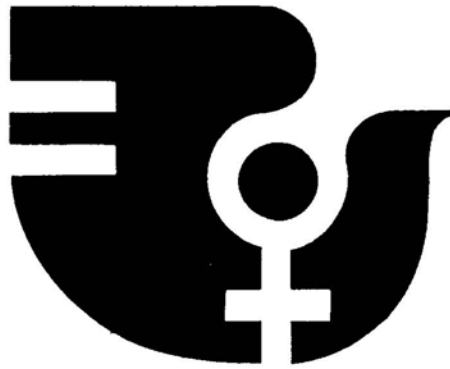


Perspective Policies and Planning for the  
Development of Women  
(1992-2011)



National Committee on the Perspective Plan and Policies for Women's Development  
National Commission on Women's Affairs (NCWA)  
Office of the Prime Minister, Thailand

1995



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# PREFACE

The National Commission on Women's Affairs has appointed a Sub-committee to prepare the 20 Year Perspective Plan for Women (1992 - 2011). This document includes policies, problems and issues related to women and development, and key programmes and subprogrammes to be used as a basis for each 5 year development plan for women as well as to assist in the coordination and promotion of women in development.

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In drafting this final document, we wish to acknowledge the cooperation of many individual writers whose drafts were scrutinized by about 20 - 30 experts for each chapter. The second draft was read through by about 200 persons whose critical comments were incorporated into the third draft. The final draft was presented to 300 persons including planners, administrators, academics, experts, workers with women, both GOs and NGOs who met at the Government House.

This document was accepted by the National Commission on Women's Affairs and the Council of Ministers has approved it in July 1995

The writers for each chapter are as follows :

- Chapter 1. Summary  
(Saisuree Chutikul)
- Chapter 2. Socio-Economic and Cultural Changes and Women Development  
(Visuth Kanchanasuk and Kulwadee Charoensri)
- Chapter 3. Women and Family  
(Amara Pongsapich et al)
- Chapter 4. Women and Health  
National Committee on Health and Environment  
(Pensri Phijaisanit et al)
- Chapter 5. Women and Education  
National Committee on Education, Employment and Culture  
(Chuachan Chongsatityoo et al)
- Chapter 6. Women and Employment  
National Committee on Education, Employment and Culture  
(Vichitr Raviwongse et al)
- Chapter 7. Women and Social Participation  
National Committee on the Social and Political Participation  
(Supang Chantavanich, Orapin Sopchokchai, Ravevan Prakobphol,  
Dhipavadee Meksawan and Gothom Areya)
- Chapter 8. Women and Environment  
National Committee on Health and Environment  
(Pensri Phijaisanit et al)
- Chapter 9. Women and the Mass Media  
(Kanjana Kaewthep)
- Chapter 10. Women and Religions

- National Committee on Education, Employment and Culture  
(Khunying Samorn Bhuminarong, Bunmee Chulagiri and Chatsumarn Kabilsingh)
- Chapter 11. Women and Commercial Sex  
National Committee for the Elimination of Involuntary Prostitution  
(Khunying Kanitha Wichiencharoen et al)
- Chapter 12. Women and the Law  
(Malee Pruekpongsawalee)
- Chapter 13. Roles of Government and Non - Government Organizations in Women's Development  
(Pairote Sooksamrit)
- Chapter 14. Resources for Women Development  
(Virath Damrongphol et al)
- Chapter 15. Indicators on the Status of Women and Research Topics on Women Development, National Committee on the Development of Women's Information System  
(Amara Pongsapich et al)

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It is my sincere hope and the wish of all those involved in this project that this Perspective Plan will be used and prove useful in the promotion of the advancement of Thai Women.



Saisuree Chutikul  
Chairperson  
National Committee on the Perspective  
Plan and Policies for Women's Development

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CHAPTER 1  
**SUMMARY**

## SECTION 1

### TARGETED CHARACTERISTICS OF WOMEN AND OBJECTIVES AND PRINCIPLE POLICIES FOR WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT

#### 1.1 BACKGROUND

1) In the early eighties, Thailand developed a Perspective Policies and Plans for Women (1982 - 2001) and this document was used as a basic for formulation of the five-year development plans, namely, the Fifth and the Sixth Development Plans (1982 - 1991).

2) When the National Commission on Women's Affairs was set up in 1989, a national committee was appointed to review the former plan and reformulate the second perspective policies and plans to be used for the following five-year development plans in the hope that with rapid economic and social changes, some of the directions and substantive parts of the former plan could be modified accordingly.

#### 1.2 THE PRESENT POLICIES AND PLANS

1) This present document presents situation analyses related to various topics, problems as well as recommendations for further action. There are 14 supporting papers on the economic, social and cultural changes, women and the family, health, environment, education, employment, social participation, mass media, religions, laws and regulations, prostitutions, the role of governmental and non-governmental organizations dealing with women in development, resources used, social indicators and topics for research.

2) This document is indicative in nature and deals with programme levels. There are examples of projects which are given in another part of the book.

3) This document will not cover the theories of feminism, the basic philosophy relevant of women in development, the history of the roles of Thai women and evaluation of past programmes and projects. It stresses forward - looking strategies in the Thai context.

4) To make this document more effective, it is necessary to set up priorities and "translate" the long-range plans into the regular five-year development plans. In addition, the formulation of implementation and coordinating plan should follow with specific projects and responsible bodies identified. This would help facilitate further activities such as monitoring and evaluation.

#### 1.3 RATIONALE FOR PLANS FOR WOMEN

1) About half of the Thai population is female. And since women tend to live longer now, there will be an increasing number of women. Human resources should be developed to their full potential; these women should not only become the targets or beneficiaries of development but also significant contributors.

2) Thailand cannot achieve its development goals without the participation and cooperation from women who are wives, mothers, labour force and citizens of the nation. The development of their quality of life and their potentials will greatly benefit families and society.

3) In the process of women's development, the following problems are faced :

3.1) Inequality of opportunity. Women lack access to various economic and social services and some are excluded as recipients of resources and benefits from development.

3.2) Lack of participation of women in decision-making process and leadership, especially with regards to development process and political development. This results in the inability to prevent women's problems as well as to solve problems related to women.

3.3) There are still discrimination against women, both de jure and de facto.

3.4) Lack of protection measures for women as individuals and as female persons.

3.5) Negative attitudes and values towards women as reflected in abuses and malpractices, discriminations, and undesirable actions toward them.

3.6) This is a time of very rapid social and economic changes. Women, as a group, will be neglected or not included in the development process if the national development plans do not specially and consciously mention women as a special target group.

4) The movement for women's development has widely been promoted through international organizations throughout the world. For example, Thailand has become signatory to the Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women and has participated in other commissions and meetings dealing with human rights and the status of women. This, then, is already a national commitment whereby women must be targets for development.

#### **1.4 TARGETED CHARACTERISTICS AND QUALITIES OF WOMEN**

This topic has been proposed already in the First Perspective Policies and Plan. However minor modifications have been made.

##### **1.4.1 Personal Characteristics**

1) Women should have the opportunity for full development of body and mind. They should be able to look after and take care of themselves physically, mentally and emotionally, especially during pregnancy, childbirth, during the time they look after the young and during various critical periods in life.

2) Women should be able to complete at least basic or compulsory education. They should have opportunities to develop their mental abilities, moral and ethical lives, desirable values, and vocational skills. They must be able to become independent and self-reliable. They should be suitably employed and their work should be useful.

3) Women should become enthusiastic in using their rights. They should be eager to seek new knowledge so as to be able to develop their full potentials. They should be ready to use what they know to help improve the quality of their lives and their family members, especially those who are young.

4) Women should understand their responsibilities, both economic, social and political. They should possess ethical values whereby they can become kind and loving human beings.

##### **1.4.2 Life and Family**

1) Women should have freedom in loving and choosing their males whenever they are ready to marry. They should be physically, mentally and emotionally fit. Sexual morals and ethics should be held equally important for both men and women.

2) Women should participate equally with men in family planning and abortion under the guidance of national laws.

3) Both men and women have to share their responsibilities in child rearing practices and household chores. Works should be shared among men and women with the full consent of both parties.

4) Both men and women must be co-responsible for family development which reflects warmth and unity, love and respect for each other. They must spend time together for building happiness and moral support for family members, including children, youth, the aged, the relatives and the community.

### **1.4.3 Social Participation**

1) Women should play a part in determining their values and roles especially as related to women themselves at all levels, in the family, community or larger society. They have to help campaign for the change of attitudes towards women so as to eliminate discrimination.

2) Together with men, women should be able to participate in decision-making related to problem solving and activities of the communities.

3) Women should be able to participate in economic activities considering also their ability, aptitudes and talents. They should have employment, earn wages and develop career advancement. They also need protective measures so that abuses will not take place.

4) Women should play a significant part in solving critical social problems, community development, supporting religions, participating in environmental conservation and protection, political development, cultural development, and recreation.

## **1.5 OBJECTIVES IN WOMEN'S DEVELOPMENT**

1) To develop to their full potentials in all aspects, i.e., physical, mental, intellectual, aptitudes, talents, emotional and ethical. This could be accomplished through provisions of economic and social services which are accessible to all women. These services also aim at the promotion of a better quality of life, and at encouraging women to participate in formulating social directions, as well as community and national development.

2) To promote equality between men and women and to eliminate the discrimination against women, both de jure and de facto, especially for those who are employed and those in the disadvantaged groups.

3) To protect women from various abuses, as human beings who have dignity. Such protection also covers women in the work places as well as women as mothers.

4) To promote the participation of women in all aspects of life: economic, social, political, family, community, at the national and international levels.

## **1.6 PRINCIPLE POLICIES**

1) To promote women's potentials in all aspects such as physical, mental and intellectual and emotional well-being so that they can become more valuable human resources. The tasks should be done by both governmental and non-governmental organizations.

2) To ensure that women reach the level of development and possess desirable characteristics as stated earlier and that the women have better quality of life.

3) To promote women to take part in social and economic development. They must participate in the tasks of carrying out responsibilities and in the decision making processes as related to political development, environmental protection, religions and cultural development, family development and mass media development.

4) To eliminate discrimination against women ensuring equality between genders and offering protection of women in various circumstances.

5) To promote social thoughts and values related to acceptance of the worth of women, their ability to think as well as ability to work.

## **1.7 BASIC STRATEGIES TO PROMOTE WOMEN**

1) The governmental central organizations or mechanism responsible for women in development should be further developed and promoted; networking among the governmental as well as the non-governmental agencies

should be established. Coordinating and networking should be among levels horizontally and vertically, all the way to the village level. In all undertakings, men should also be encouraged to participate.

- 2) Initiation of programmes and projects with special reference to women.
- 3) Integration of women in all programmes and projects, both as beneficiaries as well as agents of development.
- 4) Campaigns for values and attitudinal changes related to women, especially those which have negative connotations or stereotypes. Pressure groups should be formed to encourage and open ways for women to participate more fully in economic and social development.
- 5) Recognition of the importance of information and the use of mass media with special emphasis on women's issues and status of women in order to create a common understanding and common needs so that goals could be achieved.
- 6) Promotion of training in various subjects so that women can have knowledge and skills in determining societal changes.
- 7) Recognition of the family as a common social unit in promoting development equality, and elimination of gender-based biases especially for children and youth.
- 8) Revision of laws and regulations to facilitate equality, both de jure and de facto.
- 9) Collection and analysis of information and situation to promote women in development as well as promotion of research related to women.
- 10) Promotion of various government agencies to include women in their projects and activities.
- 11) Organization of formal and informal groups to promote the protection of women.
- 12) Promotion policies related to women as a part of political platforms to all political parties.
- 13) Coordination must be established among organizations and agencies; instill a systematic exchange of information on innovations used for women in development. Distribution and dissemination of information to help change the image of Thai women especially in the international communities.

## SECTION 2

### SOCIAL CHANGES, IMPACT ON WOMEN AND RECOMMENDATIONS INTRODUCTION ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL CHANGES AFFECTING WOMEN : LOOKING AHEAD

#### **1. ECONOMIC STRUCTURAL CHANGES**

Major economic changes include;

- 1) Agricultural production results in the increase of new agricultural products.
- 2) The proportion of Gross Domestic Products in the industrial and service sectors increase, while the agricultural proportion decreases.
- 3) Agricultural land area decreases and the price becomes higher.
- 4) Trade competition, trade barrier and changes of global economic policy and trade will affect Thailand's economic structure.
- 5) Development in the region and in the neighbouring countries will cause inter-country labour migration.

#### **Impact on Women**

- 1) Women in the agricultural sector need to be more knowledgeable and more skillful in terms of agricultural work. They must also have additional occupation since the income from agricultural work will not be enough.
- 2) Women will play more roles in the industrial and service sectors and this will affect family living conditions.
- 3) Women in the industrial sector must become skilled labour in order to improve their occupation and adjust to new technology, even though they are unskilled or semi-skilled at present.
- 4) Women in the informal economic sector should be given opportunities in skill training whether they are employees or entrepreneurs. They should be entitled to protection and assistance in the form of loans to pursue their own occupation.
- 5) Women should have knowledge, understanding and ability to obtain information on the relations of Thailand's economy and global trade situation in order to promptly adjust their participation in the economy.

#### **2. INCREASE IN APPLICATION OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY**

- 1) Development has been rapid with available science and technology, especially in the agricultural, industrial and services sectors and in daily living conditions.
- 2) Development of mass communication will also become very rapid, and there will be enormous sources of information. This will stimulate the speed of economic and social changes.

#### **Impact of Women**

- 1) Programmes and projects of ministries, departments and various organizations related to the application of science and technology normally ignore the importance of women as a target group. Therefore, women do not benefit from the development of science and technology. They lag behind and are deprived of necessary and crucial information to support their decision making.

- 2) Women labour will have to adjust themselves to keep pace with changes.
- 3) Female illiteracy rate will still be twice as much as that of male. This will be a major obstacle for women to get access to science and technology development.
- 4) Basic education will have to be improved in order to sustain knowledge in science and technology. However, the rate of women continuing in secondary education is still low.
- 5) Women still prefer conservative or traditional fields of study rather than science and technology.

### **3. CHANGES OF INCOME DISTRIBUTION**

- 1) Even though there exist several development plans, 13 million people or 25% of the population is still in the poor agricultural sector.
- 2) The gap between social classes will be widened e.g. between the higher and the lower income group, people in different regions, urban and rural people, and people in the agricultural and industrial sectors.

#### **Impact on Women**

- 1) Women and men in the agricultural sector will have low and irregular income, resulting in urban and rural poor.
- 2) Poverty will have an impact on family living conditions and create crisis affecting women and children.
- 3) Poverty will force more women to seek permanent and seasonal jobs in urban areas.
- 4) Poverty will play a key role, together with other factors, in pushing young women with insufficient education and skills into commercial sex.

### **4. SOCIAL STRUCTURAL CHANGES**

- 1) Thailand social structure has increasingly changed from that of a rural society to an urban one e.g. more municipal and sanitation areas, and the increase in number of urban population. This is the result of the expansion of the industrial and service sectors.
- 2) When urban-bound migration increases, living quarters become a problem, and this results in higher number of overcrowded communities/slums.
- 3) Apart from urban-bound migration, there is also rural-to-rural migration, for example, agricultural labourers who move to progressive agricultural areas.
- 4) Another type of population migration is the overseas migration of Thai labourers.

#### **Impact on Women**

- 1) Urban infrastructures are incompatible with social changes. This problem has affected living conditions of women who move into cities in adjusting themselves and learning about urban social values.
- 2) Urban and crowded environments create problems to women in the form of living quarters, public services, job opportunity and safety.
- 3) Overseas migration of male labourers results in women living with children, youth and older members of the families. Migration of women labourers also create problems of self-adjustment, exploitation and abuse in many ways.

### **5. FAMILY STRUCTURAL CHANGES**

- 1) The size of the family becomes smaller due to family planning efforts.
- 2) The family structure changes from that of an extended family to a more nuclear one.

- 3) The average age of women and men will increase, and women's average age will be higher than men's
- 4) More women will be forced by economic pressure to work outside the home.
- 5) Polygamy will remain a social value among men.
- 6) Men will still view women as sex objects and of lower status.
- 7) The divorce rate will increase.

#### **Impact on Women**

- 1) Due to increased average age, there will be more older women who will stay alone and uncared for because of the increase or nuclear families.
- 2) Women need to work outside of home and yet have to be responsible for domestic chores and child care. They will work two to three times harder and lack time for recreation. All of these will have results on family life, especially if the husbands do not increase their roles in child care and domestic chores.
- 3) Owing to work and other factors, some women will seek to have no family and this will result in higher numbers of single women or of live-in couples.
- 4) Because of polygamy among men and the higher rate of divorce, some women will have to play the family leader role. This will also affect the children.
- 5) Men's viewing women as sex objects and of lower status will result in women abuse, including rape and beating of wives.

#### **6. TRADITIONS AND SOCIAL VALUES**

- 1) Most Thai people view women as not as competent as men, particularly in traditionally male-dominated jobs. The society considers women as wives and mother only, in spite of the fact that women's roles and duties have extensively changed.
- 2) Materialism has created unfavourable social norms e.g. monetary and luxury values, selfishness, showing-off and consumerism.
- 3) Level of moral consciousness and behaviour has become low. The society accepts as common actions that were once considered wrong, including sexual behaviour.
- 4) The society still expects women to act within the traditional behavioural frame.
- 5) Obvious discrimination in child rearing between boys and girls should be reduced in the future.
- 6) Thai society still believes in invalidated negative stereotype of women as being in lower status than men.

#### **Impact on Women**

- 1) Conservative and gender values that differentiate men and women weak points and strong points deprive women's chances of having access to various services and occupational prosperity.
- 2) A number of women are still unaware of their own potentials that can be beneficial to themselves, their families, and society due to their strong ties with old traditional values.
- 3) Some sexual behaviours destroy women's dignity as a human being, and these behaviours tend to be more accepted if there is no intervention for changes.
- 4) Changes in child rearing practices will reduce traditional gender values and negative attitudes towards women.
- 5) Women will react more to discriminating behaviours towards them, they will take actions to correct these negative attitudes.

## **7. CHANGES IN AGE STRUCTURE OF THE POPULATION**

- 1) Rate of population growth will decrease to 1.2% in 1996 and may be lower in the future.
- 2) Women's fertility rate will decrease.
- 3) Average life expectancy will increase and average women life expectancy will be higher than men's.
- 4) The number and the proportion of youth will increase in the next ten years and then will decrease.

### **Impact on women**

- 1) There will be more older women. Additional social measures for this age group might be necessary.
- 2) As the number of children decreases, resources can be utilized to improve services for each age group including various groups of women.
- 3) The cycle of employment and unemployment may take place when population in the working age increases and then decreases in the next two decades. Women will be affected before men, as they will be considered labour surplus.
- 4) There must be human resource development especially among women so that they have sufficient knowledge and skills to be well prepared for the economic changes.
- 5) Women will play a greater role in shaping more balanced development directions for the country.
- 6) Family planning will have to be continued and will require more participation from men.

## **I. WOMEN AND FAMILY**

### **1. IMPORTANCE OF FAMILY**

- 1) Family is the fundamental social institution that creates human beings adding new family members : infants and children.
- 2) Child rearing practices have influences on human quality and characteristics which include social values, mentality and behaviour of children and youth.
- 3) Family is the fundamental social institution that contains the life styles of all family members. The life styles include economic, social, political, cultural and moral aspects.
- 4) Some families can also play the roles of economic production units.

### **2. FUTURE TREND**

- 1) There will be a higher number and more types of nuclear families: parents and children; or the elderly and children (with parents having migrated for work); or women as the family head with children because the husbands deserted the family or went to work somewhere else; or children living alone without parents or older relatives.
- 2) Relationships between family members will change, between men-women, husband-wife, parents-children or older relatives-younger relatives. Their roles will change according to economic and social changes. Migration will increase, as well as tight and heavy workloads. Family members will have less time together.
- 3) There will be more single women due to their higher education and self-supporting ability. Also being a single women will considerably be acceptable in Thai society.
- 4) There will be more live-in couples without marriage. This will have negative impact on the family institution.

5) More labour saving tools will be used in family chores. However, women will still have to be responsible for family matters if men do not change their attitudes and behaviours and take more household responsibilities.

6) More women will have higher education and work outside of home. Opportunities will be higher for women and men to share decision-making regarding family matters.

### **3. CONDITIONS OF PROBLEMS**

#### **1) The Daughter's Roles**

1.1) The family will bring up daughters in the tradition role which will contradict to the conceptual changes in modern human resources development and the present ways of living.

1.2) Since the family places more importance and grants more opportunities to the son with the belief that he is the heir, the daughter will be required to take more family responsibilities than the son and, in some cases, the parents will deprive her of prosperity in life in order to promote the son.

#### **2) The Wife's Roles**

2.1) The wife's roles in child rearing, doing house chores, taking care of family members are considered economically worthless. However, many countries have now calculated the value of housewife's work and realized its enormous worth. The problem is that women have to work outside as well, and this adds twice or thrice to their burdens. Women work hard and lack sufficient time to improve themselves or to enjoy recreational activities.

2.2) Women face physical, sexual and mental abuses by their husbands. Other problems include husbands' irresponsibilities for the families and infidelity; multiple marriage registration, divorce and others.

#### **3) The Mother's Roles**

3.1) Mothers work outside the home and have to leave their small children with baby-sitters or other people, because there are not enough day care services or the existing services are not up to standards. More problems will exist among urban nuclear families.

3.2) Due to economic conditions and other factors, parents will have less time for their children. Children will be neglected. This will result in more social problems.

3.3) The maternity leave period is too short. Mothers are not able to nurse their children as long as universal standards require. Rules and regulations reflect ignorance and narrow visions of men who create the rules. They do not wish to understand the significance of child care and breast-feeding. The limitation of maternity leave also violates children's rights.

3.4) Women in most families take on the mother's role in child rearing without assistance from their husbands despite the fact that children need attention and love from both father and mother.

#### **4) The Elder Member's Roles**

4.1) Since there are more nuclear families, roles of older women in household activities decrease. The society places less importance on the elderly, and the elderly lose their self-esteem.

4.2) More older women are left alone. State and private welfare services for older women are also limited.

#### **5) Social Values and Attitudes**

5.1) Discrimination between boy and girl rearing practices results in children gender discrimination. Girls are taught to take care of their brothers instead of caring for each other.

5.2) Traditionally, women and men are sexually unequal: men have freedom, while women have to behave according to social norms.

**6) There will be more divorce and separation cases.**

**4. MAJOR RECOMMENDATIONS**

1) Promote the 14th or April as the Day of the Family. Government and non-governmental organizations should organize regular family development activities all year round.

2) The 7th National Development Plan (1992 - 1996) has formulated policies which cover family development issues. Tangible activities must be organized to concretize genuine family development efforts.

3) Parental education must be offered to pre-marital and newly married couples to prepare them for family life and to prevent family problems. The content of such education includes family education, sex education and specific topics of women education.

4) Family welfare has to be promoted, especially maternity leave, breast-feeding, early childhood welfare, elderly welfare and welfare for poor female heads of the family.

5) Counselling services must be given to families with problems including those with abuse cases. Assistance has to be given from both government and non-governmental organizations.

6) Campaigns must be launched to create an attitude of partnership among women and men in the families, including child rearing practices with equality for children of both sexes.

7) Improve family laws to create integrity and enable families to have good quality. Women must also be informed of related laws.

8) Promote a more active role of good father so that men are proud of being a father and take more roles in family matters.

9) Promote appropriate family education and family development at different levels of schooling.

10) Conduct research on family issues and disseminate finding e.g. family and economics, family and laws, family and culture, family and politics, family and society, family and religion, etc..

11) Establish family courts all over the country.

12) Encourage government and non-governmental agencies, organizations, and business companies to organize activities and facilities for family recreation. Support must be given so that these activities can be carried out efficiently and effectively.

**II. WOMEN AND HEALTH**

**1. CONDITIONS OF PROBLEMS**

1) Women still suffer from preventable illnesses and death caused by pregnancy, child delivery, post-natal conditions and undesirable pregnancies. This is due to lack of knowledge and services among particular groups of women.

2) Women bear the burden of birth control ten times more than men. Some women are not interested in this; some lack proper understanding of birth control. This has effects upon their own health.

3) Genetic diseases increase e.g. thalassemia.

4) Powder milk feeding is more popular than breast-feeding.

5) There is a lack of day care services in communities and in workplace.

- 6) Teenage girls suffer from anemia, malnutrition and stunted growth, especially among disadvantaged groups.
- 7) Women have little interest in medical check-ups for gynecological diseases.
- 8) More women have health problems and accidents resulting from their work.
- 9) Older women do not pay attention to their own health, nor are they major target groups for both government and non-government sectors.
- 10) More women are infected with HIV and transmit the disease to their children.

## **2. FUTURE TREND**

- 1) Since women have become key labour in the industrial and service sectors, their health and safety at work will be a major issue e.g. work environment, continuous working hours, accidents, cumulative trauma disorders, stress, etc..
- 2) Sexual services and sexual misbehaviours will increase and result in more STDs and AIDS cases. Women will be infected from husbands and babies will from mothers.
- 3) There will be a greater variety of food and medical products. It will be essential to have knowledge on food and medicine selection, consumer protection, consumption habits and fitness exercises.
- 4) Violence : beating and physical, sexual and mental abuses will increase according to socio-economic and moral changes. More women and children will be victimized.
- 5) Abortion will become an issue of social problems since the society has changed its sexual behaviours, and there is an increase of genetic and sexual transmitted diseases that are harmful to human life.
- 6) Social values concerning women's and men's height will change and this will relate to changes in consumption habits and will have psychological effects on those who are not as tall as the new standard.
- 7) In order to be considered modern, women will smoke and drink more.

## **3. MAJOR RECOMMENDATIONS**

- 1) Teenage girls and pregnant women have to be provided with parental education e.g. health care; prevention of preventable diseases through vaccination; pre-natal check, nutrition and supplementary food. These issues are related to pregnancy, delivery and post-natal conditions of both mother and child.
- 2) Breast-feeding must be promoted and maternity leave must be at least 90 days with full pay.
- 3) Arrange and enhance proper infant care services. The services should be generally available and the quality of the attendants must be improved.
- 4) Women must be encouraged to seek knowledge about gynecological diseases and must be provided with medical check-ups for uterus cancer, breast-cancer, venereal diseases, AIDS, especially among the high-risk groups.
- 5) Campaigns must be launched on risk conditions and illnesses caused by work-environments. Protection for working women must be arranged by their employers.
- 6) Women must be encouraged to be aware of the importance of nutrition so that they can protect themselves and their families in this aspect. They must recognize the significance of good health and proper physical development
- 7) Medical staff must be educated on women and child abuse so that they can report such cases to government officials and participate in problem prevention and solution processes.
- 8) Abortion law must be reviewed and made effectively responsive to the real situation. Other laws and regulations must also be improved to enable women to have good health and to protect them from dangerous conditions.

- 9) Educate women on dangers of smoking, drinking and using other drugs.
- 10) Provide of comprehensive primary health care with participation of women. Equip women with more knowledge on health issues.
- 11) Provide health and welfare services to poor elderly women (and men).
- 12) Educate women on proper family planning methods which do not produce negative effects upon their health.
- 13) Campaign must be conducted to enhance male participation in family planning.
- 14) Health and sanitation education must not lead to discrimination against women and must eradicate old-fashioned beliefs related to women in this aspect.

### **III. WOMEN AND ENVIRONMENT**

#### **1. CONDITIONS OF PROBLEMS**

- 1) Women are not aware of their own potentials and their duties which can influence their family members and communities in environmental protection, for example cleanliness and natural resources preservation, e.g. water and energy, etc..
- 2) Women are not provided with knowledge and understanding on working environments, occupational and domestic use of chemical and toxic substances affecting their health.

#### **2. FUTURE TREND**

- 1) Environmental problems including water, air, noise, toxicity, garbage and waste, energy and natural resources will become more critical
- 2) The concept of environment as a macro issue and government's responsibility must be changed to the micro level with responsibility of everyone including women.
- 3) Natural resources are limited and will be more scarce because of population increase and people's careless habits in exploiting the nature.
- 4) There will be more conflicts among groups of people concerning the use of natural resources.
- 5) Women will play key roles in conserving and developing the environment, including economical and appropriate use of resources.

#### **3. MAJOR RECOMMENDATIONS**

- 1) Continuously provide women with information on environment and energy so that they know how to prevent and solve the problems.
- 2) Mobilize women to unite in an effort to protect the consumers, conserve and improve the environment, and use energy and natural resources effectively.
- 3) Stimulate women to realize the significance of environment both at home and at work, for example, cleanliness of home and surrounding areas, garbage and household waste water treatment, toxicity in food, and agricultural and industrial products. Women must take responsibility and have influence upon their families and communities in those respects.

- 4) Women should take part in training providing by ministries, ministerial departments or other agencies in the issues of environment and natural resources which are related to their work in the agricultural, industrial, service and other sectors.
- 5) Create awareness on resources conservation in every socio-economic group, taking into account the best interest of future generation.
- 6) Women should publicly express their views on environmental issues.

## **IV. WOMEN AND EDUCATION**

### **1. CONDITIONS OF PROBLEMS**

- 1) Generally, women have less education than men. Half of the women population finishes only primary education. Apart from that, the number of illiterate women is twice as much as that of men.
- 2) The number of girls continuing in junior high school is lower than boys; while the number of those in the north and the northeast is lower than in other regions.
- 3) In areas of vocational education, women select traditional subjects related to their usual roles e.g. home economics and commerce while men choose industrial and agricultural subjects.
- 4) At the university level, the conditions are the same as in vocational education; especially the fields related to sciences and technology attract less interest from women.
- 5) In practice, women have their rights limited in some fields of study and in specific courses arranged by various agencies.
- 6) Non-formal education for women is also limited in terms of services and traditional concepts on subjects provided.
- 7) Education through mass media still has problems in terms of methods used to create enthusiasm and interest, and there are not many subjects specifically concerning women and women development.

### **2) FUTURE TRENDS**

- 1) Compulsory education will be extensively expanded from 6 years to 9 years. There will be funds and campaigns to support more women to further their education in junior high-school. This will be the basis for women to enhance their present knowledge and skills.
- 2) There will be a greater variety of occupations, and women will play important roles in these new occupations. Types of education must also be varied, with different curricula. Women will be encouraged to pay attention to computer, communication, science and technology, research for development, etc...
- 3) The interest in women's academic development will increase, and women studies at the university level will be established. In addition, the evolution of women issue in basic studies and research on women development in various faculties will also increase.
- 4) There will be a greater interest for gender-based analysis in development. This will result in more training on such issues in government agencies and more training assessment and evaluation.
- 5) The society will be more complex. Individuals and families will have mental problems. Psychological counselling, especially for the improvement of family and work relationships, will receive more attention.
- 6) Mass media will be used more for communication and entertainment and education. This will result

in the change of pattern of education through mass media. Preparation for senders and receivers of messages will be more important than before.

7) Forms and methodologies in education will be more varied. Both governmental and non-governmental organizations will benefit from these forms and methods: e.g. the application of technology to enhance the learning process.

8) There will be an awareness of life-long education and the acceptance of the new value that education is not limited by age.

### **3. MAJOR RECOMMENDATIONS**

1) Campaign must be launched to encourage more women to enrol in all levels of schooling, especially junior high school. Opportunity must be provided to women to select subjects aside from traditional ones. Eradicate illiteracy among women.

2) Stimulate women to have more interest in science and technology, and other subjects that were believed to be for men. Provide women with chances to apply their study to their work and daily life.

3) Encourage women to seek knowledge from various sources and give attention to information and data; and know how to select those which are beneficial for the development of themselves, their families and community.

4) Provide women with legal education applicable to their daily life and occupation.

5) Create an opportunity for women to get vocational training in agricultural, industrial and service sectors.

6) Eradicate discrimination against women in university level education or in other fields. Encourage human resource development agencies to include women in their courses.

7) Encourage women of all ages to keep on learning and increasing their analytical and synthesising skills.

8) Promote training on gender-based analysis in various development projects of government, private and business sectors.

9) Assess curricula, text books, reading materials and teaching methods, and eliminate sexual discrimination in them.

10) Promote women studies and integrate women development issues in other appropriate subjects in universities, and support researches on women.

11) Encourage mass media to pay attention to women development and arrange more programmes or activities that provide knowledge to women.

12) Encourage governmental and non-governmental organizations to implement projects that enrich women's knowledge, especially those that include family activities e.g. museums for adults and children or science museums/centres which organize family activities.

## **V. WOMEN AND EMPLOYMENT**

### **1. CONDITIONS OF PROBLEMS**

1) Women are still discriminated in some occupations or positions, legally and practically, both in government and private sectors.

2) Job promotion between men and women is not equal.

3) There exists negative social values and attitudes towards employment and work of women.

- 4) Women still have an attitude that they and their colleagues are less able than men.
- 5) women have limited choices in seeking more knowledge. They lack opportunities and self-motivation.
- 6) Women in governmental sectors have less chance to be promoted to executive level, even though there is a higher number of female officials.
- 7) Women in the informal economic sector e.g. small entrepreneurs, street vendors, are not appropriately looked after. There is no legal protection for women working as housemaids.
- 8) Women in the agricultural sector are neglected by policy makers and development projects. They lack chances for training or receiving useful information for their work.
- 9) Women in the agricultural sector have no or little income of their own. They therefore migrate to city areas.
- 10) Women in the agriculture sector who have their own business lack knowledge in business management and do not work continuously. They then have unstable income.
- 11) Women in the industrial sector: both factory workers and piecemeal workers have problems with their working conditions which are hazardous to their health and safety.
- 12) Women in the industrial sector are terminated when they get older and may have no chance for a new job.
- 13) Women in some types of services are exploited and at risk of dangerous diseases.
- 14) Women who are piecemeal workers must work very hard to get enough income.
- 15) Forming unions of working women is not stable, since women do not see its benefit or they do not have time due to their housework. Only a few of them are union members. However, they will reduce their participation once they are married.
- 16) Women who work outside the home lack support and assistance from their husbands.

## **2. FUTURE TRENDS**

- 1) More Women will work outside the home. Most of them will work in the industrial, commercial and service sectors. Labour in agricultural sector will decrease but the ratio of women labour in agriculture will increase since men will move to other sectors.
- 2) More women will become self-employed in the informal economic sector, and they will be faced with problems since they do not enjoy protection and rapid occupational changes within the society are likely to occur.
- 3) Women in the industrial sector need to improve their knowledge and skill in order to keep up with the increase of technology in the industrial sector.
- 4) Women in agriculture will need to be trained on the use of agricultural machines, farm management, marketing and related information.
- 5) Because of occupational expansion and diversification, women will be interested in new jobs and will need more knowledge about their jobs.
- 6) Women will enter into work areas that once belonged to men. They will become bus drivers, taxi and motorcycle drivers, factory drivers, etc...
- 7) More women will develop attitudes against occupational discrimination on women.

### **3. MAJOR RECOMMENDATIONS**

- 1) Encourage women to have equal opportunity with men in job promotion, both in the government and private sectors.
- 2) Provide extensive labour protection for women e.g. women labour in the informal and agricultural sector.
- 3) Protect women in the area of dangerous and jobs with health hazards.
- 4) Support women to become self-employed and to gain effective administrative and managerial skills. Protection of women in various ways should be provided.
- 5) Promote measures that will decrease the burden of women who work outside the home with regards to housework and child-rearing. Promote the roles of fathers.
- 6) Provide chances for women to obtain more knowledge in every way to ensure their occupational prosperity.
- 7) Encourage women to obtain knowledge and jobs in new fields, including those in modern science and technology.
- 8) Eliminate women occupational discrimination of all kinds: job opportunities, job progress and employment.
- 9) Encourage women in various occupations to form permanent groups in order to increase their bargaining power.
- 10) Improve laws, rules and regulations so that women are provided with protection at work, receive more welfare especially family-wise. Exploitation must also be eradicated.
- 11) Advocate women's self-esteem.

## **VI. WOMEN AND COMMERCIAL SEX**

### **1. CONDITIONS OF PROBLEMS**

- 1) The sexual services business is a form of human trade, which is against human rights.
- 2) Many of the present laws clearly state that Thai society is not in favour of prostitution. However, the sexual behaviour of some Thai men encourages prostitution. The two values are contradictory.
- 3) Tourism has contributed to the rapid expansion of commercial sex.
- 4) The causes of commercial sex are consumerism, need for fast money, poverty, ignorance, low education, lack of occupational skills, materialism, exploitation.
- 5) Commercial sex involves children under 18 years. Some are confined and lured; others are victims of inter-country trafficking. These actions are definitely illegal.
- 6) The spreading of venereal diseases and AIDS has augmented.
- 7) Government authorities do not take appropriate law enforcement actions or take bribes from prostitutes and brothel owners who do not want to be penalized and seek legal personal gains.
- 8) Some Thai "VIPs" require the services from the girls involved in commercial sex as part of the local "hospitality".

## 2. FUTURE TRENDS

- 1) The sex trade will further expand and have an influential back up, if there is no direct intervention.
- 2) Venereal diseases and AIDS will spread and reach women who are not involved in prostitution, through their husbands. The diseases will also spread to babies in the wombs.
- 3) Girls and boys will be lured or taken into prostitution with the consent of their parents. This will include children from neighbouring countries, if no immediate actions are taken to solve the problem.
- 4) More tourists will be involved in sex tourism. This will result in an expansion of problems and a negative image of the country. If no intervention is introduced.
- 5) There will be more influential groups and a lack of effective law enforcement. A considerable number of government officials also participate in this business.
- 6) At present, the emphasis of penalty is on prostitutes rather than on brothel owners, agents, seducers and pimps. Future penalty must be on the contrary.
- 7) Inter-country network will become more influential since it is known that Thailand is inefficient with regards to law enforcement

## 3. MAJOR RECOMMENDATIONS

- 1) There must be a distinct national policy that discourages women from becoming prostitutes, primarily to eradicate child prostitution and to prevent women from being locked up and abused. Continuing measures must also be formulated for effective solution of the problem.
- 2) Discourage both internal and external sex tourism.
- 3) Undertake serious actions against indecent shows and pornography.
- 4) Improve related laws, rules, regulations to deter women and girls and boys from internal and external sex trade cycles. Formulate heavy penalty for parents, brothel owners, agents, customers and those who force women and children into prostitution. Emphasis must be made on continuing law enforcement.
- 5) Educate and rehabilitate prostitutes to enable them to change their occupation, as well as to pay attention to STDs and AIDS.
- 6) Launch campaign through media to discourage men from their habit of visiting prostitutes. The campaign must emphasize sex education and alternative activities.
- 7) Condemn government officials who are in favour of prostitution and prohibit government officials from bringing women to serve their superiors or guests. Strict measures must be used for this matter.
- 8) Advocate positive values and attitudes of respect for human honour, rights, dignity and virtue of both sexes, with firm belief in sexual morality.
- 9) Prevent women from entering prostitution by providing education, job opportunity, income generation and knowledge of STDs and AIDS
- 10) Encourage children, especially girls, to study at least until grade 9.
- 11) Provide women, parents and teachers with information on various kinds of inducement.
- 12) Establish a centre where cases of child prostitutes and abuses can be reported, and through which actions can be promptly undertaken.
- 13) Allow non-governmental organizations to act on behalf of the plaintiffs in legal cases concerning child prostitution.

14) Request for legal actions from countries whose citizens violate child rights, especially in sexual aspect, in Thailand. Campaign must also be conducted to reduce sexual tourism in Thailand.

15) Improve conditions in welfare centres and institutions to enable the rehabilitation of prostitutes, and allow the private sector to extensively provide welfare services to these women.

16) Disseminate knowledge on the danger and disadvantage of prostitution to children in primary and secondary schools.

17) Create awareness among adults, especially parents who send their girls for prostitution, on related problems so that they stop sending them to become prostitutes.

18) Formulate heavy penalty on government officials who cooperate with those who violate the law or promote sex trade.

19) Advocate and take actions to eliminate street children by using clear and effective preventive measures.

20) Campaign for the reduction of materialism and consumerism and promote activities that enhance sexual morality.

21) Create coordination between related government and non-government organizations.

## **VII. WOMEN AND RELIGION**

### **1. CONDITIONS OF PROBLEMS**

1) Women play an important role in taking care of the children and in shaping their social and moral concepts. However, women cannot completely perform this role since they have no chance to learn and understand the essence of religion enough to utilize religious concepts in the development of their families.

2) Women groups, in some religions, are not formally accepted to the extent that they can become religious leaders.

3) Some religious values and traditional practices are obstacles to women development.

4) There is a lack of concepts and moral practices that work against misconduct which are considered acceptable in some sectors of the society.

### **2. FUTURE TRENDS**

1) Some religions will give more chances to women to fully obtain maximum religious knowledge and information.

2) Some highly-educated women will seek religious knowledge, practise religious concepts, seek leadership in the field and disseminate the information.

### **3. MAJOR RECOMMENDATIONS**

1) There must be more religious courses in the curriculum of academic institutions. The curriculum must include essential religious teaching including the scripture and the commandments of each religion in the Thailand.

2) There must be direct dialogues between religious leaders, individual women or women groups.

3) Women must be given the chance to learn about their own religious traditions, including how to behave according to the teachings.

- 4) Promote the role of religion in eradicating temptations, social values and attitudes that obstruct women development.
- 5) Encourage women to participate in religious activities and to have greater dissemination ability as well as assume the role of the religious leader.
- 6) Promote research on religious issues concerning women and publicize findings.

## **VIII. WOMEN AND SOCIAL PARTICIPATION**

### **1. CONDITIONS OF PROBLEMS**

- 1) In entrepreneurship and business administration, women are still at the labour level. The number of women at the executive level is lower than men.
- 2) The ratio of women leaders or executives is lower than men in the following groups e.g. cooperative groups; farmers groups; labour unions; rural development organizations; local administration including village committees, sub-district councils, village heads, sub-district heads, provincial councils, municipal councils, BMA council; government sector; state enterprises and international organizations; etc.
- 3) Women have little participation in politics: in the Cabinet, the Parliament, the Senate and various commissions.
- 4) The proportion of women decreases at the higher decision making level.
- 5) Organization culture focuses on grouping according to men's values, which makes it difficult for women to be integrated.
- 6) There is still a tradition stereotype of women which implies a lack of confidence in women's decision making ability.
- 7) Women are biased and do not accept other women. This attitude is an obstacle to women development.

### **2. FUTURE TRENDS**

- 1) In the old tradition of middle class and labour class, women and men take decision together in family issues, both at the personal and productive levels. However, when technology and modern equipment are utilized in the production process and daily living, the role of men will increase whereas that of women will decrease.
- 2) Women will lack external information aside from their family for their decision making.
- 3) Women who work outside the home will have more power in decision making in their families, since they have an economic status.
- 4) The number of female government officials will increase since more women enter the civil service while more men leave this sector. The quality of female government officials will be more essential.
- 5) Through campaigns and interventions, women will become more interested in politics. Their participation will be upgraded to the decision-making level.
- 6) Through advocacy, women will increase their social participation much more than just being a token. However, women need to unite among themselves and with men.
- 7) Economic stress will force women to struggle for their occupation and higher positions.

### **3. MAJOR RECOMMENDATIONS**

- 1) Review laws, rules and regulations that discriminate women from some positions in business, government and private sectors.
- 2) Encourage women to play qualitative role in politics, administration and government system by formulating specific strategies and measures.
- 3) Encourage women to unite among themselves and join with men in order to increase their participation in decision making.
- 4) Encourage political parties to adopt policy on women development and encourage more women to become party members and candidates for election.
- 5) Provide training on administration and management to women, including political training to enhance women's knowledge and leadership ability.
- 6) Support women in their participation both as contributors and recipients of various development projects throughout the country.
- 7) Create awareness and confidence that an individual's worthiness lies in his/her knowledge and capabilities at work, self-confidence and dedication and not in being a man or a woman.

## **IX. WOMEN AND MASS MEDIA**

### **1. CONDITIONS OF PROBLEMS**

- 1) The mass media still confirms sex stereotypes and sexism concerning women with regard to understanding, opinions, emotions, treatment and attitudes and biases towards women. These are, however not applicable to contemporary women.
- 2) There is no policy that promotes the use of mass media for the development of women potentiality.
- 3) The role of public and the receivers of the media are still limited in defining directions of the media, especially in the women groups.
- 4) There is no information on professional media women.
- 5) Female media workers have no clear vision and concepts on women development.
- 6) There is discrimination towards women in this profession, and their chance for advancement.
- 7) Women hardly have access to mass media, especially rural and disadvantaged women.
- 8) Most mass media are geared towards profit making and consumerism, rather than knowledge and creativity for the enhancement of women potential.
- 9) Mass media are seldom used for the women development process.

### **2. FUTURE TRENDS**

- 1) Mass media will increase both in terms of variety and quantity, and will influence the ideas, attitudes and values of the society.
- 2) If the new generation become involved in the media world and if the government and private sectors conduct regular campaigns, production groups will be more aware of social problems.
- 3) Upgrading people's education will force mass media to change the issues and ways of presenting them.

4) There will be more contact with overseas media. If the selection of issues and contents is efficient, people will benefit more. This will channel more information to women and in turn, help them in their decision-making.

5) More message receivers will express their views concerning the content and presentations of mass media. More women will take part in this process.

### **3. MAJOR RECOMMENDATIONS**

1) Launch campaigns for the public, especially for women to gather and help formulate directions, content and presentation methods of the mass media to accelerate the development of women's potentials and roles.

2) Promote new values among the mass media to avoid emphasizing women as a sex object and a stereotype.

3) Provide training for female media workers to increase their professional knowledge, as well as to change attitudes toward women and their ability.

4) Support the establishment of media women organizations e.g. production, management, programming, reporters groups, etc.; and of message receivers e.g. women consumers, media women's rights protection groups, etc..

5) Promote arrangements of programmes which are extensively beneficial to various groups of women.

6) Campaign for mass media to increase their roles in steering the society toward a desirable direction.

7) Promote research on women and mass media.

8) Arrange training on the application of mass media for women development for various women groups e.g. formulating curricula for universities, conducting training for rural housewives and young women and teachers groups, etc.. These groups will later on form critic groups to offer comments, recommendations to mass media.

## **X. WOMEN AND THE LAW**

### **1. CONDITIONS OF PROBLEMS**

1) There are several laws, rules and regulations concerning women e.g. civil and commercial laws, criminal laws, education and training related laws, occupation related laws, politics and administration related laws, etc..

2) Women lack information and understanding on laws concerning themselves, their families and their occupations.

3) Women have little participation in the legislative process, both at the national and at the local levels.

4) Women have little opportunities to receive legal training or attend academic activities on legal issue.

5) Women who study law and political sciences, give little attention and importance to issues of women problems.

### **2. FUTURE TRENDS**

1) Women will participate in policy making and law enforcement, if there are intervening measures.

2) The legal process will be more universal. Injustice toward women will be clearly identified, globally and nationally.

3) Women will increase their roles in various aspects, and the democratic political atmosphere will stimulate women's need for more knowledge on law and political sciences. This will help women to better protect their own rights.

4) Changes of social norms and attitudes toward women will be one of the factors influencing law revision.

### **3. MAJOR RECOMMENDATIONS**

1) women must receive more legal training, especially on their rights and duties, their living and their occupation.

2) Revise laws, rules, regulations, announcements and orders that discriminate against women so that women have equal legal rights and are able to develop their own potentials.

3) A campaign must be conducted to have Thailand withdraw reservations on the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women.

4) Provide legal counselling services to disadvantaged women, as well as produce educational materials.

5) Encourage women lawyers to participate in the revision of laws, rules, regulations, announcements and orders that have effects on women.

6) Enhance the private sector to participate in women development in legal aspects.

7) Promote the understanding of women development among legal agencies and individuals. This includes members of parliament, lawyers, etc..

8) Establish national and international networks relating to women discrimination, women's rights and human rights.

## **XI. GOVERNMENT AND PRIVATE AGENCIES ON WOMEN DEVELOPMENT**

### **1. PROBLEM CONDITIONS**

1) Different understanding among various agencies regarding policies and plans on women development has resulted in different ways of operation.

2) The government sector lacks strong horizontal and vertical networks to implement women development programmes, because it does not understand the significance of women development and problems.

3) National organizations on women development still lack personnel and experience in analyzing, synthesising, monitoring and evaluation. They are unable to accomplish their duties as specified by laws.

4) The private sector does not cooperate in terms of action and planning.

5) The pattern of cooperation between government and the private sector is not clear.

6) There is no delegation of authority to non-governmental organizations so that they can take legal actions for women.

7) Non-governmental women organizations have problems with funds and high turn-over of staff. This results in the disruption and limitation of the women development process.

### **2. FUTURE TRENDS**

1) The business sector will pay more attention to women issues, if there are interventions and campaigns.

2) Various forms of people organizations will be established for specific purposes and will become pressure groups.

3) Coordination with overseas groups will increase because of mutual interest in the issue. Women will be encouraged to participate more in the development process.

4) Government's roles will change from exclusive control and implementation to supervision, monitoring, follow-up and evaluation.

5) Non-governmental organizations roles will increase and become stronger, particularly in network building, internal cooperation, and cooperation with government.

### **3. MAJOR RECOMMENDATIONS**

1) Create understanding between government and the private sector in order to achieve mutual women development directions, including women development policies and plans.

2) Stimulate the government sector to establish women development in their various agencies for coordination purpose and utilize gender analysis in programme implementation.

3) Upgrade personnel in national women development organization, other government agencies related to women development and non-governmental organizations so that they have appropriate qualifications and are able to work efficiently and effectively.

4) Enhance networking among government agencies and between the government and the private sector, both horizontally and vertically, so that women development becomes a focal point in all networks.

5) Promote and support non-governmental and business organizations to have more participation in women development and in the formulation of their roles and coordinating methods.

6) Enhance the capacity of non-governmental umbrella organizations in supporting and coordinating their member organizations.

7) Encourage the private sector to play a greater role as a pressure group in women development and to increase in number.

8) Promote variety of activities of the government and private agencies in response to the needs and the different target groups.

## **XII. RESOURCES FOR WOMEN DEVELOPMENT**

### **1. CONDITIONS OF PROBLEMS**

1) The budget allocated directly for women development is only 0.003% of the overall budget. This lack of financial support is quite a serious problem since women development does not get enough attention from the government.

2) The reason for the lack of budget is the inability to produce good programme plans.

3) Organizations or individuals who donate funds for women development do not receive the tax deduction privilege, neither do some private women development agencies receive tax exemption.

4) There is a limited number of government personnel who understand women development issues.

## **2. FUTURE TRENDS**

1) Women development work will be more diversified according to socio-economic changes. Women development agencies must know how to formulate action plans and design projects in order to obtain suitable resources.

2) General assistance from overseas will decrease. There will be a need for domestic support. The trend of support for women development is still favourable, but there are lack of contacts and project development.

## **3. MAJOR RECOMMENDATIONS**

1) Budget should be allocated specifically to develop women work, and integrated into work plans/projects of various ministries, bureaus, and departments so that all kinds of development benefit women who are included in their target groups.

2) Provide training on project proposal writing to related personnel in governmental and non-government sectors so that they are able to draft requests for financial support.

3) Formulate framework of women development policy and plan within 5 years period and propose to the Cabinet for approval. Inform concerned agencies to prepare plans/projects and submit them to the National Economic and Social Development Board and the Budget Bureau for acknowledgment and support.

4) Formulate a framework for development policy and plan at the local level, using the main framework from the ministries and departments that already analysed the contents of women development. Provincial budget can then be allocated according to provincial development plan. Support training for women development groups at the provincial, district, subdistrict and village levels.

5) Formulate action plans and coordination plans within the approved plans or projects in order to utilise budget for women development more effectively.

6) Enable agencies and individuals who donate for women development organizations to receive tax deduction privileges from the Ministry of Finance, as well as tax exemption for women development organizations by revising tax exemption conditions.

7) Support non-governmental women development organizations in establishing endowment funds so that they can have continuity in their work by using the interests of such funds.

8) Coordinate with foreign government and non-governmental organizations or other agencies to join hands with local agencies in women development.

## **XIII. INFORMATION AND RESEARCH ON WOMEN**

### **1. CONDITIONS OF PROBLEMS**

1) Lack of a central information centre to facilitate planning, plan evaluation and women situation assessment.

2) Many parties conduct information and data collection but no processing and effective utilisation of such data are undertaken. There is also a lack of coordination among concerned agencies.

3) Lack of information and data analysis, and systematic compilation and application of indicators.

4) There is no collection of research findings and recommendation on research topics.

5) Existing data are not gender-oriented, since it is considered not important.

6) Existing data are not up-to-date and incomplete.

## **2. FUTURE TRENDS**

1) There will be a need for systematic up-to-date information on women for women development agencies and the general public.

2) Information technology will be made more convenient, faster and better. Women development work will lag behind if there is no development of the work and personnel.

3) Relationship with other countries especially the United Nations will increase in terms of indicators and research findings.

4) Non-governmental agencies will take part in collecting useful information on women, with assistance from academic institutions and related agencies.

5) Academic staff in educational institutions and researchers will become more interested in research on women issues and women studies.

## **3. RECOMMENDATIONS**

1) Establish a central information centre that includes data collection, data analysis, data processing, etc. for planning and evaluation purposes.

2) Conduct training and campaigns on comprehensive data collection that is up-to-date and gender-oriented.

3) Design indicators and disseminate the information to concerned agencies. In the meantime, data collection is necessary for the projection of indicators.

4) Disseminate research topics to related and interested individuals. More research on women issues must be encouraged. In addition, other research projects must be gender-oriented, if possible.

5) Regularly upgrade personnel involved with information and women development research.

6) Coordinate information network between government and the private sector.

7) Issue regular women situation reports, using indicators and research findings as basic data.

8) Coordinate among various research agencies including the universities in order to recommend important research topics, collect finding and coordinate with overseas research agencies and the UN.

## SECTION 3

### PROGRAMMES AND SUB-PROGRAMMES ON WOMEN DEVELOPMENT (1992 - 2011)

#### **I. PROGRAMME 1 : DEVELOPMENT OF WOMEN'S POTENTIALS AND QUALITY OF LIFE**

Five sub-programmes include :

1. Physical and mental health, nutritional and environmental development.
2. Educational development.
3. Employment and income.
4. Moral and cultural development.
5. Family development.

#### **II. PROGRAMME 2 : PROMOTION OF WOMEN'S LEGAL EQUALITY, SAFETY PROTECTION AND WEL FARE**

Three sub-programmes include :

1. Improvement of law, rules and regulations.
2. Protection and welfare schemes.
3. Legal literacy.

#### **III. PROGRAMME 3 : WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION IN SOCIETAL DEVELOPMENT**

Three sub-programmes include :

1. Economic participation.
2. Social participation.
3. Political and administrative participation.

#### **IV. PROGRAMME 4 : IMPROVEMENT AND SOLUTION TO THE PROBLEMS OF THE SO-CALLED "SPECIAL GROUPS OF WOMEN" (COMMERCIAL SEX)**

Three sub-programmes include :

1. Prevention.
2. Suppression.
3. Rehabilitation.

#### **V. PROGRAMME 5 : IMPROVEMENT OF MECHANISMS FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF WOMEN**

Four sub-programmes include :

1. Organizational and personnel development.
2. Formulation of plans, programmes and projects, implementation plans, monitoring and evaluation plans.
3. Coordination.
4. Resource mobilization.

## **VI. PROGRAMME 6 : ADVOCACY AND DISSEMINATION OF INFORMATION ON WOMEN**

Two sub-programmes include :

1. Campaign and information dissemination.
2. Mass media.

## **VII. PROGRAMME 7 : RESEARCH AND DATA ON WOMEN**

Two sub-programmes include :

1. Research development.
2. Development of data system and indicators.

## **I. PROGRAMME 1 : DEVELOPMENT OF WOMEN'S POTENTIAL AND QUALITY OF LIFE**

### **A. OBJECTIVES**

1. To develop women in all aspects : physical, intellectual, aptitudes and skills, mental and social, to their maximum potentials in order to achieve the desirable goals.
2. To improve women's quality of life so that they can utilise their potential to develop themselves, their family and their community.
3. To stimulate women to continue with life-long self improvement.

### **B. TARGET GROUPS**

1. Every woman all over the country both in rural and urban areas.
2. Women in school and out of school.
3. Women in various occupations e.g. in the agricultural, industrial, service and informal sectors.

### **C. FIVE SUB-PROGRAMMES**

Sub-programmes and principle strategies include :

#### **1.1 Physical and Mental Health, Nutritional and Environmental Development**

1.1.1 Reduce death and illness rate among women, especially cases related to pregnancy and delivery, by education through all kinds of media and provision of extensive primary health care.

1.1.2 Promote good nutrition among women, especially pregnant and breast-feeding women, including extension of breastfeeding period, and women at older age.

1.1.3 Encourage women to perform physical exercise which make them healthy and provide them with knowledge on the selection of good and proper food according to their age.

1.1.4 Educate and provide medical check-ups for women for the following diseases e.g. uterus cancer, breast cancer, venereal diseases and AIDS, especially among high risk groups.

1.1.5 Educate women on the various dangers caused by smoking, drugs, alcohol and particular types of food and medicines.

1.1.6 Provide education and counselling to women on the psychology of women in order to prevent and solve psychological problems which reduce their competence.

1.1.7 Enable women to understand appropriate family planning methods, and encourage men to participate more in sterilisation and the use of condoms.

1.1.8 Educate young pregnant girls and their parents on proper and comprehensive child care : immunisation and psychological stimulation, etc..

1.1.9 Provide extensive and qualitative early childhood services to enable the development of their potential at this crucial age and to provide employment opportunities to women.

1.1.10 Revise the abortion law to conform to the real situation and to be in accordance with medical diagnosis.

1.1.11 Educate women on environmental issues closely related to themselves and their work or related to the production process. The target groups include women farmers, female factory workers or women in the service sector. This will enable women to understand the environment related to their production and their occupation. Women will learn to prevent and solve problems and adopt a conservation approach in environmental protection and development as well as efficient utilisation of natural resources including the promotion of sustainable development.

## **1.2 Educational Development**

1.2.1 Eradicate women's illiteracy within the period of the long term plan, and maintain literacy in women with low education.

1.2.2 Encourage all young women to complete at least nine years of schooling.

1.2.3 Encourage women outside of the school system to pursue further education through non - formal and informal education services.

1.2.4 Stimulate women to become more interested in science and technology, including subjects that are usually popular among men, in the formal as well as in the non-formal and informal education systems.

1.2.5 Revise textbooks and teaching-learning materials used in schools and academic institutions, including teaching methods, to eliminate gender discrimination.

1.2.6 Promote women studies and integrate women issues into basic subjects at the university level, in both the government and private sectors.

1.2.7 Create opportunities for women to receive additional vocational training, especially in the areas of new technology and those appropriate for women in the agricultural, industrial and service sectors; as well as women in the informal sectors.

1.2.8 Eliminate gender discrimination in various fields of study in academic institutions, in specialised agencies and in non-formal education services.

1.2.9 Encourage women of all ages to seek lifelong education, information in all aspects, and develop their analytical and synthesising skills.

## **1.3 Employment and Income**

1.3.1 Provide vocational training services for women who left school and those who pursue their occupation so that they can enhance their skills and knowledge. Women in the agricultural sector must be provided with knowledge on science and new technology as well as women in other sectors e.g. industrial sector, etc.. This will enable them to keep up with occupational changes in the society.

1.3.2 Eliminate gender discrimination and exploitation in occupations, employment, promotion, occupational and job advancement and income inequality for equal type and amount of work.

1.3.3 Extend protection coverage to women in the agricultural, service and informal sectors. Protect women with regard to working conditions and environment especially those which are dangerous and hazardous to their health.

1.3.4 Urge women in various occupations to form permanent and organized groups in order to increase their bargaining power and to help develop one another in occupation advancement and other aspects which increase the quality of life.

1.3.5 Formulate measures to reduce women's load in household chores and child care by increasing the role of the father or the husband, and providing welfare and day-care services to infants and pre-school children.

1.3.6 Organize training for women in management and administration to increase their self-confidence and occupational confidence. They must also have reasonable knowledge in national and global socio-economic issues which will help them to improve their work and increase their decision-making ability.

1.3.7 Formulate special measures to increase the ratio of women at the important decision-making level and at the policy planning level.

#### **1.4 Moral and Cultural Development**

1.4.1 Provide women with the chance to study extensively moral and religious teachings so that they are able to relay these teaching and foster practices accordingly.

1.4.2 Increase courses on religion and morality in the schools and out of the school as well as through appropriate and modern media methods, so that women have more access to religious teachings.

1.4.3 Encourage women to be able to teach religion and to become religious leaders.

1.4.4 Support the role of religion in the eradication of temptations and vices, and cultural values and attitudes that are against women development.

1.4.5 Enhance women's artistic and cultural creativity and appreciation as well as their opportunity for recreation and cultural activities.

1.4.6 Support women artists and promote women's artistic and cultural achievements.

#### **1.5 Family Development**

1.5.1 Campaign to establish the 14th of April as Family Day to symbolize family development and encourage the government, the private and business sectors and other groups and organizations to have all year round activities that promote family development.

1.5.2 Provide knowledge to couples before marriage, to married couples and to parents on desirable parenthood, family education, sex education, the roles of good husbands and wives, and successful marriage and family life.

1.5.3 Organize family welfare services, especially for women who are on maternity leave and breast-feed their babies. Organize day-care services for pre-school children, and welfare for the elderly and women who are family heads and needy women.

1.5.4 Provide family counselling services and other kinds of assistance to families with problems, or families whose members are abusing one other and eradicate violence of all form in the family.

1.5.5 Campaign to create values and attitudes towards gender equality within families, and to teach boys and girls to have no gender bias through effective socialization.

1.5.6 Accelerate the establishment of youth and family courts in all provinces.

1.5.7 Educate the public on various issues concerning family, and the awareness of family security. Promote family activities.

1.5.8 Promote models of good father and instill in men the pride of being father.

1.5.9 Improve laws and regulations concerning the family in order to foster family rights and justice to all.

1.5.10 Disseminate legal knowledge to women, especially family laws and provide necessary legal actions concerning family life.

1.5.11 Encourage women to prepare themselves for their old age in order to be able to help their families and themselves. Accommodation and other services must be arranged for older women if necessary.

1.5.12 Promote social values with regard to monogamy which creates love and peace in the family. Discourage divorce, especially in families that have children, by providing family counselling services and other measures.

1.5.13 Urge men to play a greater role in family planning.

## **II. PROGRAMME 2 : PROMOTION OF WOMEN'S LEGAL EQUALITY, SAFETY PROTECTION, AND WELFARE**

### **A. OBJECTIVES**

1. To promote legal equality for women, and to eradicate legal discrimination.
2. To provide safety and protection to women.
3. To promote a welfare scheme for women as a wife and a mother.

### **B. TARGET GROUPS**

1. Every woman all over the country.
2. Women who are wives and mothers.
3. Specific groups of women e.g. prostitutes and women in especially difficult circumstances.

### **C. THREE SUB-PROGRAMMES**

Sub-programmes and principle strategies include :

#### **1.1 Improvement of Laws, Rules and Regulations**

- 1.1.1 Improve laws, rules and regulations to validate women's rights and equality e.g.
  - laws that recognize rights and equality in education, employment, job advancement, politics and administration ;
  - laws concerning status and individual rights of married women ; family and inheritance laws ;
  - laws concerning ownership of property in case of women married to foreigners ;
  - etc..
- 1.1.2 Improve laws, rules and regulations that provide safety and protection to women, e.g.
  - abortion law ;
  - sexual violation law ;
  - prostitution suppression law and law against women and child trafficking ;
  - etc..
- 1.1.3 Withdraw reservations on the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women
- 1.1.4 Urge lawyers, members of parliament, pressure groups, and women groups to participate in the improvement of laws, rules and regulations concerning women and children.

## **1.2 Protection and Welfare Schemes**

1.2.1 Protect women who are in various types of the labour force and who are in dangerous situations to health, and in environmental hazards.

1.2.2 Protect the status of women as wives and mothers e.g. laws concerning rights to maternity leave (in the government, industry and private business sectors), tax law, etc.

1.2.3 Arrange for the enactment of social welfare law for the well-being of women and older women.

1.2.4 Protect and prevent women from physical, mental and sexual abuses, and other types of violence.

1.2.5 Provide counselling services to individuals and families vulnerable to problems or to those with problems.

1.2.6 Encourage women to unite and act as pressure group for protection and welfare services.

## **1.3 Legal Literacy**

1.3.1 Provide training for women, especially rural and disadvantaged women on women-related laws and regulations.

1.3.2 Produce legal documents and materials appropriate to women at various levels of education, and use mass media for the benefit of women in this aspect.

1.3.3 Provide counselling services and legal advice to women in difficult situations.

# **III. PROGRAMME 3 : WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION IN SOCIETAL DEVELOPMENT**

## **A. OBJECTIVES**

1. To provide opportunities for women to upgrade their potentials for the benefit of community, society and country development.

2. To allow women to share responsibility equally with men in formulating social directions and in shaping a prosperous, secure and peaceful society.

3. To reflect women's views in the development of the economy, society, politics and local administration ; and other aspects concerning community and the country.

## **B. TARGET GROUPS**

1. Women all over the country.
2. Women in politics and all political groups.
3. Female members of parliament.
4. Female social development volunteers.
5. Career or potential career women.

## **C. THREE SUB-PROGRAMMES**

Sub-programmes and principle strategies include :

### **1.1 Economic Participation**

1.1.1 Encourage and support women to have their own income to help their families ; to use their knowledge and skills in a beneficial way ; and to increase their independence in decision making.

1.1.2 Enable women to participate as contributors to and recipients of economic development projects of both the government, non-governmental and private sectors.

1.1.3 Provide training on administration and management for women to increase their leadership roles in economic aspect.

1.1.4 Revise laws and regulations that discriminate against women with regard to work and job advancement, both in the government and private sectors.

1.1.5 Urge women to pay attention to economic information and new technology to increase their work efficiency and effectiveness.

1.1.6 Calculate women's labour in and outside of the home into cash value as part of the GNP per capita to visualize the important role of women in economic terms.

1.1.7 Support women to form occupational or professional groups to enable networking among themselves and to increase knowledge related to their careers.

1.1.8 Create attitudes and social values among women concerning professional commitment so that they can participate in economic development of the family and the country.

## **1.2 Social Participation**

1.2.1 Encourage women to become involved in the decision making process in community development, in the rural areas and in the disadvantaged and the poor areas, and to play a significant role in the income generation and distribution process.

1.2.2 Train women volunteers and semi-volunteers to participate in social development, so that they understand causes and issues related to social problems and increase their participation in formulating corrective measures.

1.2.3 Unite women and encourage women to join with men in social development, women development, and human resource and environmental development by allowing women to have more participation in decision-making.

1.2.4 Campaign and create a new social awareness that human value is based on knowledge, ability and devotion and commitment to work, not on being a man or a woman.

1.2.5 Campaign to reduce luxurious habits among some groups of women, and encourage these women to spend their resources for social development. Reduce materialistic values and enhance social service values instead.

## **1.3 Political and Administrative Participation**

1.3.1 Encourage and support for a greater number of women to become village and sub-district heads, in proportion corresponding to the country's population ratio of men and women. These women should also be supported in becoming leaders with quality and with women's perspectives.

1.3.2 Conduct legal and practical improvement programmes so that women can be in high political and administrative positions.

1.3.3 Arrange systematic training for women who are interested in being political and administrative leaders, and build up internal and external networks among these women.

1.3.4 Urge all political parties to have policies on women development and to encourage women to become political party members and run for general elections.

1.3.5 Encourage young women to become interested in politics and local administration and to increase their knowledge and understanding of political and administrative mechanisms of the constitutional monarchy.

1.3.6 Encourage female political and administrative leaders to become good models characterized by honesty, ethics, efficiency and effectiveness in their work.

1.3.7 Encourage women to unite and become pressure groups and play key roles in national political development.

1.3.8 Urge women to use their voting rights at all levels of election and to support clean and fair elections.

1.3.9 Encourage women and women groups to express their opinions on political and administrative issues.

#### **IV. PROGRAMME 4 : IMPROVEMENT AND SOLUTION TO THE PROBLEMS OF THE SO-CALLED 'SPECIAL GROUP OF WOMEN' (COMMERCIAL SEX)**

##### **A. OBJECTIVES**

1. To discourage women from becoming prostitutes or involved with the sex business.
2. To eradicate the problems of children in commercial sex (children under 18 years of age).
3. To reduce the number of prostitutes.
4. To provide occupational alternatives to prostitutes.
5. To eliminate the sex business cycle.

##### **B. TARGET GROUPS**

1. Young girls and women in and out of schools.
2. Women who have already become prostitutes.
3. Those involved with sex business e.g. parents, guardians, agents, seducers, brothel owners, pimps, police and others.

##### **C. THREE SUB-PROGRAMMES**

Sub-programmes and principle strategies include :

###### **1.1 Prevention**

1.1.1 Campaign to create values and attitudes of respect for human honour, rights and dignity and virtue for both men and women.

1.1.2 Campaign to change undesirable sexual values and create sexual morality, especially to discourage men from visiting prostitutes, by emphasising sex education and providing alternative activities.

1.1.3 Educate young women with regards to the danger and the undesirable effects of prostitution such as venereal diseases and AIDS.

1.1.4 Educate young girls, women, parents, guardians and teachers on the ways girls are lured into prostitution.

1.1.5 Encourage young women to complete schooling up to at least grade 9.

1.1.6 Provide counselling and advisory services on further education or occupational training to high risk groups among women as well as parents and guardians. Scholarships should be provided for young girls.

1.1.7 Provide effective vocational training which results in income generation.

1.1.8 Urge parents or guardians to stop sending or selling their children into prostitution.

1.1.9 Campaign to reduce consumerism and materialism.

1.1.10 Conduct continuing campaigns against sex tourism.

1.1.11 Condemn government officials who use women as part of their hospitality services or go to prostitutes themselves.

## **1.2 Suppression**

1.2.1 Revise laws on the suppression of prostitution and child trafficking by increasing the penalty for organizers, brothel owners, pimps, agents, seducers and those who confine and abuse girls.

1.2.2 Undertake legal and practical actions to strictly prevent children under 18 years of age to enter prostitutes.

1.2.3 Conduct hotline services and established a citizen report system for the public to enable effective suppression of prostitution. Enable plaintiffs to make their complaints so that prompt actions can be undertaken.

1.2.4 Allow non-governmental organizations to become plaintiffs in cases concerned with children in commercial sex.

1.2.5 Enforce strict penalties on indecent shows and pornography, including arrangement of places for such displays.

1.2.6 Apply heavy penalty on government officials who cooperate with violators in promoting commercial sex or those who neglect their duties.

1.2.7 Establish coordination between those responsible for prostitution suppression in related governmental and non-governmental agencies by providing effective mechanisms for full-cycle operation.

1.2.8 Coordinate with overseas agencies and governments to effectively penalise foreigners who abuse children in Thailand, including those who deal in commercial sex.

## **1.3 Rehabilitation**

1.3.1 Educate and rehabilitate young girls and women in prostitution in order to enable them to acquire occupational changes including the provision of knowledge on STDs and AIDS.

1.3.2 Allow non-governmental organizations to have full participation in the rehabilitation and solution of prostitution problems. Coordination of both government and private agencies must be established.

1.3.3 Revise legal procedures so that witnessing and allegation can be rapidly made and court action taken.

1.3.4 Provide advices to families, especially parents, guardians, young girls and women themselves.

# **V. PROGRAMME 5 : IMPROVEMENT OF MECHANISMS FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF WOMEN**

## **A. OBJECTIVES**

1. To enable organizations and personnel working on the advancement of women to develop their potentials in this area both in the governmental and non-governmental organizations to work efficiently and effectively.

2. To develop the potential of national government mechanisms and those of the NGOs in formulating policy, plans, programmes, projects as well as monitoring and evaluation.

3. To encourage close coordination among government, non-government and business sectors for the advancement of women.

4. To mobilise resources for the advancement of women on an appropriate and continuing basis.

## **B. TARGET GROUPS**

1. Organizations and personnel concerned with the advancement of women in government and the NGOs
2. Focal points for women's affairs and development in ministries, bureaus, departments and concerned agencies.
3. Private business organizations.
4. Committees, sub-committees and working groups on the advancement of women.

## **C. FOUR SUB-PROGRAMMES**

Sub-programmes and principle strategies include :

### **1.1 Organization and Personnel Development**

1.1.1 Improve national level organizations and other organizations of the government and the NGOs in terms of administration and management in order to facilitate women development process.

1.1.2 Train personnel in national level organizations, other government agencies and the NGOs to understand women development issues and various methods and strategies to achieve the objectives.

1.1.3 Enable organizations and their personnel to understand directions and policies, as well as to create desirable and proper values and attitudes towards women.

1.1.4 Develop organizations and their personnel, horizontally and vertically in order to achieve more continuity e.g. women development committees at the provincial and district levels and focal points in ministries, bureaus and departments.

1.1.5 Provide training on gender-based analysis for concerned individuals and those who are responsible for programmes and projects in development.

### **1.2 Formulation of Plan, Programmes and Projects, Implementation Plan, Monitoring and Evaluation Plan.**

1.2.1 Enable agencies to effectively implement long-term and five-year women development plans, and integrate women's issues in the framework of various ministries, bureaus and departments.

1.2.2 Formulate action plans in every 5 year plan.

1.2.3 Establish a monitoring and evaluation system for the advancement of women.

1.2.4 Issue reports on situational analysis on the status of women at the end of each five year plan.

### **1.3 Coordination**

1.3.1 Establish specific coordination networks between government, non-government, private business sectors and various institutions, e.g. universities, ect.

1.3.2 Formulate a tangible and concrete coordination plan for various plans and projects.

1.3.3 Support the NGOs in their roles and participation in development and protection of women's rights.

1.3.4 Encourage more cooperation with overseas organizations, international NGOs, UN agencies and related responsible government agencies, e.g. the Department of Technical and Economic Cooperation and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

1.3.5 Empower the NGOs and umbrella organizations to be able to support and promote their member organizations and their projects through effective coordination.

#### **1.4 Resource Mobilization**

1.4.1 Organise periodic analysis on women development budgets in order to promote and mobilize greater resources.

1.4.2 Establish a women development fund.

1.4.3 Campaign on tax exemption or tax deduction for individual or organizations which contribute to women development work.

1.4.4 Encourage resource distribution for women development all over the country, especially for rural women and poor urban women.

1.4.5 Urge government, non-government and private business organizations to financially support women development programmes as well as mobilize resources for research purpose.

1.4.6 Budget allocation must be arranged in two aspects : especially for the women development process, and for integration women's concern and concern for women into other projects of various ministries, bureaus and departments, so that women as a group can benefit from the results of their implementation.

### **VI. PROGRAMME 6 : ADVOCACY AND DISSEMINATION OF INFORMATION ON WOMEN**

#### **A. OBJECTIVES**

1. To disseminate up-to-date information on women to women themselves and the general public.
2. To conduct campaigns on changes of social values and attitudes towards women.
3. To disseminate information on various women development plans, programmes and projects to interested groups.
4. To urge the mass media to become more beneficial to the the advancement of women.

#### **B. TARGET GROUPS**

1. Women groups and women all over the country.
2. The general public, especially those who have biases on women.
3. All kinds of mass media.

#### **C. TWO SUB-PROGRAMMES**

Sub-programmes and principle strategies include :

##### **1.1 Campaign and Information Dissemination**

1.1.1 Campaign to make the general public understand women and women development issues, e.g. sex education, family education, sexual values, effects of prostitution, women and job advancement, laws, rules and regulations that are unfair to women,

1.1.2 Disseminate news and information on various issues in order to develop women's potentials. Use women newsletters and other forms of media to keep women well informed with up-to-date information.

1.1.3 Campaign to create social values and attitudes towards equalities between men and women.

1.1.4 Organize a national assembly on women every two years to advocate the advancement of women and to enhance the strength of women as a group. The substantive part of the assembly must be beneficial to related groups and must include a brief situational analysis on women.

## **1.2 Mass Media**

1.2.1 Urge the mass media to become a central point and a core instrument in the development of women's quality of life.

1.2.2 Support the mass media in the production of more materials and news on women and for women which render maximum benefit to women.

1.2.3 Establish control on the presentation of pictures, programmes and news that provide sexual misconceptions and misconduct and degrade the status of women.

1.2.4 Encourage women to play leading roles in the mass media and become leaders in presenting information on women development issues to the public.

## **VII. PROGRAMME 7 : RESEARCH AND DATA ON WOMEN**

### **A. OBJECTIVES**

1. To study and conduct researches on women issues, in order to enrich knowledge and to seek problem solving approaches and women development directions.

2. To understand aspects of women situations which will help in formulating policies, plans, programmes, projects and activities for the advancement of women.

### **B. TARGET GROUPS**

1. The academicians in universities, and technical staff in ministries, bureaus, departments and the NGOs who work on women issues including university students.

2. personnel in women development work, especially in national central organization and other governmental and non-governmental organizations.

3. Various groups of women who are the targets of the study.

4. The general public who will benefit from this activity.

### **C. TWO SUB-PROGRAMMES**

Sub-programmes and principle strategies include :

#### **1.1 Research Development**

1.1.1 Promote research on evaluation of the women development process at the levels of planning, implementation as well as policy making. This will help in planning appropriate and effective policy and strategies in dealing with the advancement of women.

1.1.2 Promote studies, researches, analysis and synthesis of researches on various issues concerning women and disseminate the findings.

1.1.3 Support the creation and collection of knowledge and information concerning women from researches in order to create better understanding in women development and to develop guidelines in formulating theories on women and women development process.

1.1.4 Train personnel in various organizations to understand women development issues and several types of researches, in order to increase their research work and to enable them to bring research findings into good use for the advancement of women.

1.1.5 Allocate funds for research activities from the budget and from other sources.

1.1.6 Enable various existing research agencies to understand women development issues and encourage them to conduct researches on women.

## **1.2 Development of Data System and Indicators**

1.2.1 Establish an information centre and a network which include the NGOs to collect statistics and information on women in various aspects and standardize such information according to national and international requirements.

1.2.2 Conduct continuous, up-to-date and comprehensive data collection according to needs at different levels and these data must be disaggregated by gender.

1.2.3 Collect and process research findings on women in a systematic way, and consider them as significant data to be used.

1.2.4 Formulate indicators on women to enable continuing and up-to-date report on the status of women.

1.2.5 Campaign for a gender approach in all statistic records concerning population at all levels.

1.2.6 Train data collection and data analysis personnel for gender specific.

1.2.7 Coordinate with internal and external information agencies.

1.2.8 Issue an annual report based on time series which could be used easily by the public.

CHAPTER 2

**SOCIO-ECONOMIC**

AND

**CULTURAL CHANGES**

AND

**WOMEN'S DEVELOPMENT**

## CHAPTER 2

### SOCIO-ECONOMIC AND CULTURAL CHANGES AND WOMEN'S DEVELOPMENT

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

According to the statistical data from the Central Population Registration Office of the Ministry of the Interior, the composite proportion of women in Thailand's total population for the two-year interval 1989 - 1990 was around 49.9 per cent of a total population of 55.8 and 56.3 million respectively. This proportion signifies the equal importance of men and women in the history of economic, social, political and cultural development in Thailand.

Therefore the changes and interactions of the economic, social, political and cultural dimensions of the ever changing status of women in Thai society must be identified and analysed. Such an analysis will yield insight into the general Thai conception of women prior to formulating long- and short-term development directions and measures towards women, particularly composites and conditions for women's role and status promotion. Two approaches of analysis are to be followed :

1. to analyse situations which are not static but changing, and
2. to analyse situations which represent the total picture and not only composite parts.

This paper is part of a major work plan to deal with women in a long-term perspective. This introductory part will describe and envisage changes in the economic, social, political and cultural spheres including some resulting repercussions bearing upon women. Some macro policies are subsequently identified, particularly development directions and an effective involvement of women in the development process in order to fully exploit their potentials while getting access to equitable work rewards.

#### 2. SOCIAL CONCEPTION OF WOMEN PRIOR TO NATIONAL ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT PLANS

Buddhist and Brahmin practices and beliefs have been highly influential on the social conceptualization of Thai women.

Such influences had existed since the Sukhotai period and lasted well into Rama IV's time in the Ratanakosin period.

Socio-economic changes since Rama IV culminated in rapid developments in Thai society.

The conceptual view of women has thus changed. However, in order to identify views of women in Thai society it is necessary to take account of regional, class and ethnic differences.

##### 2.1 Economic Aspect

High ranking (nobility) women are not economically as productive as village women who are an essential and significant part of the productive work force.

Nowadays, women are considered intellectually and professionally equal with men ; unskilled labour for women is still exploited whereby women are not considered equal to men.

##### 2.2 Political Aspect

Society generally does not expect women to play a political role. In the polygamous times of

Thailand's history women were a means to, and an indicator of a man's power and influence. Today, women may play a political role but society still views them as supporters of men's power and ambitions.

### 2.3 Social Aspect

Despite changes and the levelling impact of modern society, traditional concepts still remain resulting in unequal relationships between men and women, high classes and low classes. Thus some women may suffer a double exploitation of class and gender.

### 2.4 Cultural Aspect

In domestic life, women have a higher status than men. They play the important role of partners and transmitters of cultural and religious norms. This is a role for which they have been socialized from very early in life. Gratitude to parents is instilled in them thus reinforcing the life-long duty of care-giver. In urban or elite populations the impact of this socialization has diminished.

## 3. SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHANGES AFFECTING WOMEN

Three decades of social and economic development have produced some substantial changes. The gross domestic product has increased 20 folds from 58,900 million Baht in 1961 to 1,223,218 in 1987 while per capita income has increased 10 folds from 2,150 Baht to 22,371 Baht during the same period. Social services have been extensively expanded and their levels upgraded, resulting in a better quality of life and longer life expectancy.

These social and economic changes have inevitably resulted in changes in women's lives, notably in the following areas :

### 3.1 Changes in Economic Structures

Production in agriculture has become more intensive as well as diversified, while manufacturing, due to continuing promotion efforts, has surpassed agriculture in terms of gross value. The share of the service sector in the national gross domestic product has also gradually increased. The Thai economy has, by and large, become more industrialized and commercialized as shown in Table 2.1

**Table 2-1** Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (Constant Value 1972)

(Value : 1,000 Baht)

	1967		1977		1987		1989	
	Value	Share	Value	Share	Value	Share	Value	Share
Agriculture	39,834	33	55,000	22	78,601	17	92,071	16
Manufacturing	17,895	15	53,655	22	102,289	23	137,050	24
Services	11,433	9	28,615	12	63,792	14	74,232	13
Others	51,227	43	108,457	44	207,953	46	271,663	47
G.D.P.	120,389	100	245,727	100	452,635	100	575,016	100
Per Capita Income (Baht)*	3,171		9,234		22,960		31,875	

**Source** : National Account Division, National Economic and Social Development Board.  
: Market Price

It is evident from table 2.1 that, despite changes in economic structures, growth in all sectors has been constant although at different rates. The decrease in the share of the product value of agriculture in the national gross domestic product can be explained by the rapid growth of the manufacturing sector due to substandard promotion privileges intentionally given by the government.

It should be noted that the analysis of economic structures is based on gross domestic product values at the constant value of the year 1973 and therefore the inflation element is thereby eliminated. Structural changes, as reflected in the analysis can be said to be actual.

In the area of the labour force, changes are also equally interesting. Statistics from the most recent labour force survey conducted by the National Statistical Office has indicated a gradual decrease of the labour force growth rate. Despite an increase in overall employment, the share of the male employed is slightly greater than that of the female.

**Table 2-2** Changes in Labour Force and Composition of Employment

	1987		1988		1989	
<b>Total Labour Force</b> (1000 persons)	29,419.3		30,318.4		31,205.7	
<b>Percentage change</b>			3.06		2.93	
Male			3.20		2.92	
Female			2.89		2.93	
Percentage Composition of Employment	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
	95.36	91.47	97.23	95.79	98.46	97.69

**Source :** National Statistical Office, Employment Survey, Round 3 (August)

By and large, changes in the national economic structure are beneficial for Thailand because economic activities are more diversified and concomitantly more employment and income are generated. Newly initiated industries are more labour intensive and do not need so much high skills. Food canning and weaving industries are good examples. Low wages and high supply of labour has helped make Thailand more competitive as an industrial location. Female labour is a contributing factor. The labour force survey has also indicated a high level of employment among women at the working age. The reasons for their being so favoured are their dexterity for skill training and "non-choosy" attitudes towards work. Women feel that working in factories is less harsh and has a more stable income than in agriculture.

In short, changes in economic structures help to some extent to open up opportunities for women for employment and more independence in income earnings. The process has resulted in a transfer of the female labour from the agricultural sector to the manufacturing one without jeopardizing the output of the former. But this is not to obscure the fact that a sizable number of women, due to such limitations as low skills and educational background as well as lack of legal protection, have not yet been able to benefit from the changes. Their choices of employment are still limited and their employment conditions are less favourable.

### 3.2 Changes in Science and Technology

Thailand has reached a level of development where science and technology inevitably enter into not only production techniques to compete in the product market but also affect the course of everyday lives. The implication of a higher level of science and technology in economic production means that the demand for labour has shifted towards those with a higher level of education from secondary schools or higher. At the same time there has been a rise in the level of industrial wages. The trend is towards an inevitable decline of labour intensive techniques in economic production, a trend which is in conflict with the social reality of low educational levels of most Thai people. Although the illiteracy rate has gradually declined, it is actually still high. It is among women that the number of the illiterates is higher, twice that of men.

**Table 2-3** Illiteracy Rates Classified by Sex.

Year	total	Male	Female
1960	29.2	19.4	39.0
1970	18.2	11.1	25.1
1980	10.5	6.9	13.8
1985	9.9	6.2	13.6

**Sources :** Statistics on Out-of-School Education, 1988

Continuation of education is also relevant. Enrolment rates among those primary school graduates who go on to secondary education is about 47.19 per cent for the whole country. The rate is lowest in the educational region 2, which is about 30.39 per cent.

**Table 2-4** Secondary Education Enrolment Rate in 1989 Classified by Educational Region

	Primary School Graduates 1988	Secondary School Enrolment 1989			Total	Percentage point of Secondary School Enrolment			Total
		State	Others	Private		State	Others	Private	
Bangkok	83,278	60,900	2,118	20,079	83,097	73.13	2.54	24.11	99.78
Region 1-12	925,556	355,658	1,602	35,713	392,973	38.43	0.17	3.86	42.46
Region 1	47,305	30,592	287	3,622	34,501	64.67	0.61	7.66	72.94
Region 2	24,747	6,965	55	500	7,520	28.14	0.22	2.02	30.39
Region 3	79,855	36,656	185	6,291	43,132	45.90	0.23	7.88	54.01
Region 4	25,037	10,951	-	1,313	12,264	43.74	-	5.24	46.98
Region 5	56,547	23,355	-	3,307	26,662	41.30	-	5.85	47.15
Region 6	50,316	27,054	269	2,171	29,494	53.77	0.53	4.31	58.62
Region 7	98,070	35,007	33	3,307	38,347	35.70	0.03	3.37	39.10
Region 8	76,714	33,716	203	5,986	39,905	43.95	0.26	7.80	52.02
Region 9	124,051	37,460	240	1,641	39,341	30.20	0.19	1.32	31.71
Region 10	134,308	39,698	64	1,310	41,072	29.56	0.05	0.98	30.58
Region 11	142,231	43,493	-	2,177	45,670	30.58	-	1.53	32.11
Region 12	66,377	30,711	266	4,088	35,065	46.27	0.40	6.16	52.83
Total	1,008,834	416,558	3,720	55,792	476,070	41.29	0.37	5.53	47.19

**Source :** Labour Force Division, Department of Secondary Education, MOE

In terms of educational aptitude and preference, a considerably clear distinction can be made between male and female students. Female students prefer home economics and commerce while their male counterparts are inclined towards industrial crafts and agriculture. Industrial arts is a group of subjects that show no difference of preference between male and female students.

At the university level, the enrolment ratio between male and female students has been gradually shifting in favour of the female : from 54 : 46 and 51 : 49 respectively for the years 1985 and 1986 to 48 : 52 and 45 : 55 for 1987 and 1988 respectively. Educational aptitudes and vocational choices clearly reflect students' gender also. More than 60% of the female students choose such major subjects as business administration, commerce and accountancy, social science, social administration, education, nursing and health science. Male students prefer such subjects as law, political science, architecture, engineering, medical science, veterinary science, forestry, agriculture, agricultural technology and agricultural extension.

If Thailand is to remain competitive in the world market, more and more people will have to become competent in the more advanced levels of science and technology. Thailand must strengthen her educational foundation to assure that a sufficient technical work force is adequately trained. Attention must, of course, be paid to women who have been, so far, quite neglected.

### 3.3 Changes in Income Distribution

Despite a steady and satisfactory rate of overall economic growth, Thailand has not yet been able to solve the problem of income disparity and poverty among the people. The gap evidently tends to widen. According

to a survey on income distribution during 1976 - 1986 conducted by the National Statistical Office, income differentials between the lowest twenty and the highest twenty per cent groups have become increasingly wider from eight folds in 1976 to eleven folds in 1986.

**Table 2-5** Income Distribution, 1976 - 1986

	1976	1981	1986
20% Highest Income Group	49.26	51.47	55.63
20% Second Income Group	20.96	20.64	19.86
20% Third Income Group	14.00	13.38	12.09
20% Fourth Income Group	9.73	9.10	7.87
20% Lowest Income Group	6.05	5.41	4.55
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00

**Source :** National Statistical Office

Place of residence also influences earnings. Income differentials between rural urban dwellers have become wider. The average income of rural dwellers which was twenty four per cent of that of an urban dwellers in 1976 has been lowered to only twenty per cent in 1987.

**Table 2-6** Per Capita Income by place of Residence

**Unit : Baht**

	1976		1981		1986	
	Baht	%	Baht	%	Baht	%
Rural	3,252.00	24.49	6,873.6	24.06	7,036.8	20.15
Urban	13,281.6	100.00	28,562.4	100.00	34,916.4	100.00

**Source :** National Statistical Office.

**Note :** Sanitary Districts are classified as urban.

The disparity of income in general threatens national solidarity. In terms of rural-urban differentials, the disparity is the root cause of erosion in population quality in the rural areas. It leads to malnutrition in both the newborns and adults. Other social problems include drug addiction, crime, and urban slums. It should be noted that more than half of the rural residents are women and mothers of the newborns.

### 3.4 Changes in Social Structures.

Thai society was primarily rural and agricultural, involved in such activities as farming, animal husbandry and fisheries. The rural village, formed by a cluster of few families, is the most common and closely structured community ; its members are well acquainted with each other and help each other in their daily living. The village economy is quite self-sustained and therefore inter-village contact is less frequent.

Many rural Thai villages have been transformed into urban communities and the rate of transformation is quite rapid in some places. A community is characterised as being urban if :

1. it is declared as municipality, or
2. it is declared as sanitary district and has a total population of at least 5,000 persons with population density of at least 1,000 persons per square kilometre.

The numbers of municipalities and sanitary districts increased from 120 and 652 in 1980 to 132 and 826 in 1988 respectively, indicating that Thai communities are becoming more urban. In terms of population, the Thailand Development Research Institute has found out that the proportion of population characterized as being urban has increased from 23.0 per cent in 1978 to 26.6 per cent in 1987. This increase is more accentuated in the central region of the country, followed by the northern region.

**Table 2-7** Proportion of Urban Population (percentage)

	1978	1987
Whole Country	23.0	26.6
North	14.2	16.7
Northeast	10.4	10.5
Central Region	18.3	29.9
South	14.5	15.8
BMA	100.0	100.0

**Source :** Thailand Development Research Institute

Urban areas refer to the areas under the jurisdiction of municipalities and the Bangkok Metropolitan Administration, Pattaya City Administration and the sanitary districts with a total population of at least 5,000 persons and population density of 1,000 persons per square kilometre.

The figures in table 2.8 indicate that Thai society is becoming more urbanized and the rate of urbanization is more rapid in the provincial cities than in the Bangkok Metropolitan area. The trend is therefore towards a decline in the primacy of Bangkok Metropolitan resulting in a decline in the pressures confronting.

Repercussions upon human lives are quite numerous. While urban life is more comfortable materially, costs of living are equally high and earning a living is more competitive. Communal bonds are loose, resulting in greater changes for maladjustment and the possibility to commit various offenses to the community at large. Density of population in the urban areas coupled with a wide spread of numerous improperly located manufacturing establishments causes unhealthy living conditions. Women are effected most when they grow old and unprotected.

### 3.5 Changes in Residence

Population mobility in Thailand is characterized by :

- a. a town-born migration from both the rural and urban areas,
- b. a countryside-born migration from both the rural and urban areas, and
- c. a seasonal migration.

Statistics from the population census of 1970 and 1980 indicate that during the two periods of 1965-1970 and 1975-1980 the town-born migration of the population aged 5 years and over increased from 23

per cent, numbering 760,000 persons of this age group, to 34 per cent numbering 1.1 million persons respectively. The total breakdown of the destinations of migration are 57 per cent in Bangkok Metropolitan area, 3 per cent in its vicinity and the rest 40 per cent in provincial towns. By contrast, the countryside-born migration, particularly country-side to country-side, has decreased from 70.9 to 55.6 per cent of the total migrants during the same periods.

Seasonal migration is town-born and peculiar to young workers aged 13 - 25 years with four-year primary education. Most of them are northeasterners. Sexes of the migrants are quite equally divided. Normally they are from big and not well-to-do families whose land holdings are too small to provide satisfactory employment for family labour. Their destinations are either Bangkok Metropolitan to seek non-formal jobs or other rural areas where agricultural production is progressive.

**Table 2-8** Proportion of Population Migration

	1965 - 1970	1975 - 1980
Town-born Migrants <sup>1/</sup>	23.0	34.3
Country to town	12.4	18.8
Town to Town	10.6	15.5
Country-born Migrants	77.0	65.7
Country to Country	70.9	55.6
Town to Country	6.1	10.1
Total	100.0	100.0

<sup>1/</sup> Town refers to municipality

**Source :** Report of the Seminar on Population Policy and its Operation in the Sixth Plan.

Another dimension of migration which is more recent is that of migration towards foreign countries, mostly in the Middle East region. At the peak of this phenomenon in 1983, about 108,127 workers went abroad, of whom about 40 per cent were from the northeast, while 38 and 22 per cent were from the central region and the north respectively.

Of the reasons given for migration, employment is the main motive. Of all town-born migrants, about 75 per cent seek new jobs or want to change former jobs for new ones. This phenomenon indicates a quite rapid expansion of urban employment opportunities while agricultural production in the countryside is stagnant. Although town-born migration will not decline, Bangkok will lose its importance as a destination due mainly to its being overcrowded. New recipient areas are likely to be Bangkok's vicinity and other expanding provincial towns.

Repercussions of population migration are mixed. There are negative impacts in terms of congestion, traffic problems and environment deterioration. On the positive side for the migrants and their farming families, out-migration means a transfer of surplus labour from their farms allowing the remaining workers to increase their productivity in farm work. As for migrant workers, particularly those who work abroad, they bring back home additional income which contributes to improve their family's economic status. A study reveals that about 75 per cent of the families were in debt when their members went to work abroad, in the Middle East countries in particular. Only about 18 per cent of these families remained with debts after their members returned home. Increase in family income means a greater demand for goods and services, leading consequently to more investment and production. Lives are eventually better for both men and women.

### 3.6 Changes in Culture and Social Values.

As Thailand moves towards industrialization and urbanization as well as to a nuclear family type, the Thai values and life style undergo changes described below.

Women whose former prime roles was being housewives start finding outside jobs to supplement family income, leaving the care of their offsprings to house servants or day-care businesses. As a result, mother-child relationships, psychological in particular, begin to be distant. Eventually, this situation has negative effects on the child's development.

When women's time is mostly spent for outside jobs and travelling, their expected functions of housewives loose their importance. Food for daily family survival and happiness begin to be insured by ready-cooked meals packed in plastic bags. The question of nutrition and health risks of the whole family is put in the hands of the food sellers.

In the area of social values and morality the individual remains alone, having no universal standards to guide human actions. Therefore, amid economic development and growth, there is an increase of corruption, prostitution and gangsterism.

### 3.7 Changes in Population's Age Structure.

Until March 1970 when the Thai Government decided to adopt a national population policy, the rate of population growth had been very high, reaching 3.3 per cent per annum. After the introduction of family planning measures, the rate of growth declined gradually to a level of 1.51 per cent per annum in 1990.

Despite this high rate of growth, life expectancy remains quite short, averaging not more than 60 years, while, at the same time, the mortality rate remains high in all age groups due to poor nutrition and sanitation. Therefore, the resulting shape of the population's age structure is pyramidal with the newborn being its broad base.

As a result of the country's economic development, scientific progress and improvement in sanitation, the average life expectancy of the Thai people has increased from 58 years in 1970 to 61 years in 1990 for men and from 61 years in 1970 to 67 years in 1990 for women. These changes consequently effect changes in the population's age structure from a pyramidal shape to that with a narrow base and broad middle and blunt top.

**Table 2-9** Proportion of Population by Age Group (in per cent)

	1970	1990	1995	2000
0 - 14 years	45	33	29	27
15 - 59 years	50	61	64	65
60 +	5	6	7	8

**Source :** Working Group on Population Forecast, National Economic and Social Development Board

Table 2.10 shows a decline of population proportion aged 0 - 14 years due to a gradual decrease of the birth rate since the adoption of family planning programmes in 1970. In contrast is the increasing proportion of population of the working age, the majority of whom were born before the introduction of the family planning programmes. The improvement of sanitation contributes much to the longer life of the people aged 60 years and over, resulting also in an increasing proportion of this age group. By and large, the structure of the population age group in Thailand is becoming more similar to that of the developed countries.

A study on trends and changes of population in terms of size and structure for the future 35 years reveals that from the year 1980 to 2015 the level of fertility among Thai women will decline, but the decrease will be gradual and slow. At a point where the replacement level is attained, the rate of population increase will go down to 1.4 per cent per annum at the end of the Seventh Plan. The replacement level is referred to as the level at which the number of the female offsprings is equal to that of the child-bearing mothers.

The consequences of the changes in population's age structure are changes in aggregate economic demands. A reduction of the population of younger age means a deflation of demands on public services for this age group, such as investment for educational expansion and disease immunization for infants. A reduction in the extent of these kinds of public services consequently helps make it possible to upgrade the levels and to extend the coverage of social services.

At any rate, if there is a change in the population's age structure in such a way that the number of population in the puberty age is more than half of the total population, pressure on employment opportunities will be unavoidable. The situation may lead to a serious problem of unemployment if the economy cannot absorb additional labour force entrants. On the other hand, an increase of population in the working age means an increase not only of the national productive forces but also in the consumption of goods and services, particularly those matching the tastes of the young.

An increase in the proportion of the old in the population age structure also produces some significant consequences. Since women usually live longer than men, the old people in Thailand, therefore, will comprise mostly women. Most of the old or about 85 per cent of them live in rural areas from which the young migrate. Consequently, these old women will face hardships in earning their living.

Statistics from the population census of 1980 indicate that most of the old or about 60.5 per cent of them do not work. The rest who do so are classified as the following : 26.5 per cent self-employed, 10 per cent working for their families without payment, 2.8 per cent hired workers and 0.2 per cent employers.

Sources of their earnings reflect a similar pattern of employment : 58 per cent were supported fully or partly by their younger relatives, 30 per cent from their work and 12 per cent through pensions, rents, savings, etc.

Places of living also reflect a similar pattern. The majority of the old or about 52 per cent reside in extended families, 40 per cent in nuclear ones and the rest 8 per cent in one - person families.

Planning assistance to the old who really need help should aim at those people who do not have adequate means to sustain a satisfactory level of living. If this direction is to be followed, a conclusion reached by several research projects reveals that among all of the old only 20 per cent face economic difficulties and need assistance. Assistance by giving monthly allowances, an approach common in developed countries, result in people saving less and encourage the family institution to unburden its traditional role in caring for the old to the state. It is therefore suggested to keep relying on existing methods of assistance, namely, health, education and other social services, with relevant adjustments to suit conditions and needs of the old.

### **3.8 Changes in Family Structure.**

Since Thailand's base of economic production is agriculture, production methods are still traditional and labour-intensive. The most common form of family organization is the extended one in which relatives stay and work together for mutual support. The old do not isolate themselves to stay alone but reside and have their proper place in the family, giving advice to family members and helping to look after young children. Such close and warm relationships among members of the extended family help prevent to some extent social problems.

The emergence of the urban society brings about a new form of family organization which is becoming smaller comprising a married couple and one or two other members. Family planning programmes and

the level of formal education attained by family members, including other general developments of the country, are among the forces that limit the family organization to be a small, nuclear family. A study conducted by the Thailand Development Research Institute reveals these family patterns and trends.

**Table 2-10** Proportion of Extended/Nuclear Family in 1987

Location	Extended Family	Nuclear Family	Total
Rural	79.6	20.4	100.0
Urban	50.6	49.4	100.0
Total	74.3	25.7	100.0

Table 2.11 indicates a declining proportion of the extended family in contrast with the nuclear one which is on an increasing trend. This pattern of change bears some repercussions upon society. A higher economic burden of the nuclear household heads in the urban areas compels them to exclude many relatives from their support, including the old. Therefore, an increasing trend towards a nuclear type of family means that more and more old-age people will be deprived of support. Their numbers are more significant, representing about 6 - 8 per cent of the total population, with the female group becoming larger since their life expectancies are longer. Being alone, the old people inevitably look to the government and society at large for support.

### 3.9 Changes in Numbers of Members and Patterns of Households.

Being an institution, the Thai family has its norms enforcing its members to comply with the spirit of mutual social and economic help. However, rapid changes in the economic climate has been threatening the stability of the Thai family institution. This is manifested in terms of numbers of family members and other behaviours of family relationships.

A study conducted by the Thailand Development Research Institute reveals that changes in such social and economic factors in the development process such as levels of educational attainment, shifts from agricultural to non agricultural occupations and urbanization, result in two significant outcomes :

#### a. A Decline in the Rate of Increase and Size of Households

Households numbered 10.2 million in 1985. The forecast for the year 2005 is 18.1 million, a decline in terms of increase rate from 3.3 per cent in 1990 to 2.4 per cent in 2005. The average number of household members also tend to decline due to a reduction in fertility : from 4.98 members in 1985 to only 3.7 in 2005.

**Table 2-11** Numbers and Size of Thai Households

Year	Numbers	Rate of Increase	Size
1985	10.2		average 4.98
1990	12.0	3.3%	average 4.62
1995	14.0	3.1%	average 4.27
2000	16.0	2.7%	average 3.96
2005	18.1	2.4%	average 3.70

**Source :** Thailand Development Research Institute.

**b. Increase in the Number of Single Females as Household Heads.**

The proportion of the household heads who are single and female tends to increase from 17 per cent in 1985 to 20 per cent in 2005. This trend is in contrast with a declining proportion of married household heads from 74 per cent to 69 per cent during the same respective years.

Such changes in numbers of household heads compel women to enter the pool of the labour force and to become more independent from men. Women tend to postpone their marriage until a later age. Those who get married become less tolerant of their husbands, ending up either with divorce or with difficult situations which impose sacrifices on female partners. In other words, changes in household head characteristics have resulted in women improving their economic status.

Despite a declining rate of household increase, the level of about three per cent per annum can bring about a significant impact in terms of income distribution, upgrading of family life quality and other public utility provisions. The impact is likely to be more significant in urban areas. It may be suggested that assistance for child rearing be given to single female household heads in the form of tax reductions according to level of family income and numbers and ages of the dependents. The private sector should be encouraged to provide adequate child care services.

#### **4. ANALYSIS OF THE NATIONAL ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF THE WOMEN DEVELOPMENT'S PROCESS.**

National development in Thailand since 1961 has been carried on through 5-years plans. It is believed that this method was to bring about rapid development and efficient use of resources.

##### **4.1 Government Policy on Women's Development**

The seriousness of the government in fostering women's development can be measured by examining the following points : firstly, does the government have a system of work or a plan for women's development ; secondly, how have implementation instruments been designed. The study of these two aspects will eventually lead to concrete actions of women's development.

On the first point, it can be said that during the initial period of planned development, no specific plan for women was laid down because women's development policies were integrated in the overall development framework. There was no sex segregation.

It was only in the Fourth Plan, when concern for negligence in considering women in the process of national development was raised in a chapter on social development. In the Fifth plan, women were identified as a target group but the level of emphasis was more or less similar to that of the Fourth Plan. In the Sixth Plan, development policies for women were integrated into the Manpower, Social and Cultural Development Plan, which is one of its ten development programmes.

Due to a high level of international awareness of the problem of women, particularly at the United Nations, a Sub Committee on the Economic and Social Development Board was formed during the Fifth Plan period to formulate a long-term women's development plan 1982 - 2001. The content of this plan deals with the state of women's problems and formulates development policy objectives, major targets and measures. It can be said, therefore, that this long-term development plan is the first one in Thailand that is concerned specifically with women's development.

As for development instruments, a national committee for women's development with its own secretariat has been instituted during the Fifth-Plan period.

Therefore, such measures show how much the government has paid attention to the development of women.

#### **4.2 Shortcomings in Women's Development in the National Plan and in the Long-term Development Plan for Women**

Some significant efforts have been made in terms of development policy and measures for women. However, there are still some shortcomings as explained below.

##### **1) Lack of Integration between the National Development Plan and the Long-term Plan for Women's Development.**

The discrepancies between these two plans are in terms of development targets for women which are different in the two plans.

##### **2) Lack of Development Phases in the Long-term Women's Development Plan.**

The Twenty-year development plan spells out seven areas of development targets :

- a. Provision of basic health knowledge and services for women is comprehensive enough to reduce the following rates of health hazards :
  - Death rate of unborn children 1 : 1,000
  - Death rate of infants 15 : 1,000
  - Death rate of mothers in child delivery 0.8 : 1,000
- b. Women aged below 35 years are to receive regular education at least at a compulsory or equivalent level and at least 80 per cent of those aged 35 - 40 years must receive comprehensive adult education ;
- c. Reducing underemployment rate of the female labour force both in the agricultural and non-agricultural sectors while at the same time ensuring equal treatment among men and women in terms of work rewards and advancement ;
- d. Ensuring that time and opportunities for self-development among women are equal with those for men ;
- e. Ensuring more freedom and participation of women in social development ;
- f. Revising laws and regulations which result in unequal treatments between genders ;
- g. Reducing sex-related crime, sex trade and communicable diseases to a minimum or, at least, to less than half of the existing level .

These development targets have been set for the end of the twenty year period for the year 2001 ; the five-year time interval normally set for national economic and social development plans has no place in the women's development plan. Setting development targets for a too long period of time is self-defeating for development plans ; moreover it becomes difficult to integrate these targets with those set for other development plans.

##### **3) Existing National Administrative Structure Non-conducive to Women's Development.**

Government administration is usually divided into ministries and departments. Instead of being client-oriented, these divisions are function-oriented, aiming to serve both men and women. There are some departmental divisions set up primarily to render services for women, but this is the exception. Parallel to such divisions of the administrative structure is the provision of government budget allocations which must inevitably correspond to the departmentalization of the functions of government. This type of national administrative structure may help explain the inadequate attention of the government towards women's development.

##### **4) Plan Evaluation**

Since its inception in 1982, ten years ago, the 20 year long-term women's development plan has not been formally evaluated by any agency. The absence of any mechanism for performance evaluation is another weak point of the women's development plan.

### **4.3 Approaches for the National Development Plan to Contribute to the Overall Process of Women's Development.**

The national development plan is only a policy plan, concentrating mainly on objectives and directions of development. Therefore, if national development plans are to contribute to the overall process of women's development, the following points should be given serious consideration.

#### **1) Ministerial Operation Plan.**

The ministerial operation plan consists of work programmes prepared by ministries and departments to implement national policies. These work programmes are usually referred to when a ministry's annual budget estimates are prepared and when officials perform their duties. Therefore, the existence of work programmes for women's development in any ministry and department indicates that actions will be taken bearing directly upon women's development since the ministries and departments have at their disposal the necessary operational resources and administrative mechanisms.

#### **2) Gender Analysis Technique**

Awareness of the existence of such technique and its application should be implemented in all development agencies, particularly those who are directly in charge of development project preparation and implementation. By applying this technique to the development process, the role and status of women will eventually be upgraded resulting in greater work efficiency.

## **5. WOMEN'S BASIC MINIMUM NEEDS AND THEIR DEVELOPMENT DIRECTIONS**

**Terminology** Women's Basic Minimum Needs refer to those conditions which are necessary and sufficient for all women to promote their role and status and develop themselves to their full potentials.

Women's basic minimum needs can be summarized under three headings :

### **5.1 Personal Characteristics**

1) Women must be endowed with good physical and mental health. They must know how to look after their own physical and mental health, especially during pregnancy, childbirth, postnatal period, and during major physical changes at various stages of their lives.

2) Women must receive education at least up to the compulsory education level ; they should be equipped with certain fundamental intellectual abilities and moral principles, as well as with elementary skills for earning their living. They must also be self-reliant and be engaged in types of work which are both suitable and useful.

3) Women must be encouraged to use their rights and opportunities for seeking further knowledge for the full development of their capabilities, and for developing the living standards and values of their families, especially their children.

4) Women must have an understanding of their economic, political and social roles and duties. They must base their lives on moral principles and show kindness and love to others.

### **5.2 Women's Lives and Families**

1) Women must have the freedom to choose in matters of love and marriage provided they have the proper physical, mental and emotional maturity. Sexual morality must be regarded as equally important for men and women.

2) Women must have the right of decision on birth control methods or abortion when necessary, within the limits of the law.

3) Men and women have joint duties and responsibilities in bringing up their children and with regards to household work. Hence, there should be a suitable division of such responsibilities and work, done with the free consent of both parties.

4) Men and women have the joint responsibility for creating warmth and harmony in the family. They should enjoy mutual love and respect, and together devote time to creating a happy and morally sound foundation for the members of their family, especially their children. In so doing, they should also extend their efforts to the wider family circle and to the community.

### **5.3 Social Participation**

1) Women must participate in determining values and roles, especially those which concern women, at the family and community levels.

2) Women must participate in deliberating over and making decisions on community problems and activities on an equal footing with men.

3) Women in their participation in economic activities, according to their capabilities, must enjoy the same opportunities as men with regards to selection for employment, remuneration and opportunities for advancement.

4) Along with their increased capabilities, women must have more participation at all levels of community development, politics and government, including arts and cultural activities and all types of recreational activities.

## **6. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

The foregoing social and economic analysis clearly shows the changes that have appeared in Thailand in recent times. The direction of changes are towards modernity and globalization. Judging from the prevailing momentum of development, Thailand's economic and social changes are likely to have an impact for a long time to come.

By and large, economic development appears to be satisfactorily successful. But the success has been more or less at the expense of the disintegration of the traditional Thai society. Today, Thailand's ways of life are threatened; its social values are overlooked. Thai people find themselves in either advantaged or disadvantaged positions. The family institution which used to be like an insurance company and a school for the offsprings has been forced to abdicate its functions. People's lives have become insecure.

Women have been affected in many ways by such social and economic changes. In terms of opening up new opportunities for women, changes imply a transfer of women from agricultural activities to the manufacturing and service sectors. But new opportunities have not been fully exploited due mainly to the state of womanhood. Women are limited by poor skills and educational background as well as by several loopholes in laws and regulations. These limitations confine women into a helplessly disadvantageous position in the arena of life. Moreover, due to longer life expectancy, women often experience, following the death of their life partner, loneliness and hardships associated with their role as heads of the household.

Development efforts to upgrade roles and status of women are hampered by inadequate operational instruments and mechanisms that need to be improved. For the long-term Development Plan for Women (1992-2011), three major macro aspects should be undertaken :

1) Assistance to women in terms of

- Welfare
- Non-welfare

Welfare assistance refers to assistance to be given to women for life sustenance, namely, assistance given to deserted old women.

Non-welfare assistance refers to such assistance that helps women to fully exploit their own potentials such as education and training, employment information, legal services, etc..

2) Long-term development plans for women must be made clear enough in terms of development ideology, principles, direction and targets so that at least basic minimum need targets for women are met. Such basic minimum needs include personal identity of women, life and marriage and community participation. The plan must be able to be periodically adjusted to suit changing circumstances.

3) Operational mechanisms, monitoring and evaluation, and plan adjustments are requisites that need to be imprinted in all development agencies and administrators. All development activities aimed at women must be integrated into the overall development process.

**LONG - TERM TWENTY - YEAR MASTER PLAN FOR WOMEN (1992 - 2001)**

<b>Identified Problems</b>	<b>Proposed Policy Alternatives</b>	<b>Justifications</b>	<b>Measures</b>	<b>Operating Agencies Proposed</b>
1. Lack of support for the plan	Arousing political awareness	Securing insights among policy level decision makers	Conducting seminar of public relations on plan, approach, etc.	National Commission on Women's Affairs
2. Lack of linkages between national plans and the master plan for women	Effecting mutual understanding of women's development directions and targets among national planning board members	Paving ways for an integration of women's aspects in national plans	Providing national planning board members with data and information	National Commission on Women's Affairs
3. No preparation of suitable welfare and non-welfare services for women	Setting up working principles and foundations for welfare services	Securing life security among women	Setting up operating committees	

### FIVE - YEAR MASTER PLAN FOR WOMEN (1991 - 1996)

Identified Problems	Proposed Policy Alternatives	Justifications	Measures	Operating Agencies Proposed
1. Lack of systematic evaluation.	Establishing a monitoring and evaluation system in the master plan for women.	Planned evaluation brings about knowledge on work progress or short-comings.	Identifying programmes/projects to be evaluated.	National Commission on Women's Affairs or academic institutions.
2. No operational plan on women at ministerial level.	Supporting operational planning at ministerial level.	Operational plan for women's development subsequently leads to actions.	Preparing operational plans in the ministries.	Ministries and departments concerned.
3. Lack of promotion on existing roles and status of women.	Disseminating development effectiveness of gender analysis techniques.	Effecting awareness among project formulators and administrators of the techniques and their effectiveness on women's status promotion.	Conducting training programmes on the techniques.	National Commission on Women's Affairs and related Committees.

CHAPTER 3

**WOMEN AND FAMILY**

# CHAPTER 3

## WOMEN AND FAMILY

### 1. INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 RATIONALE

##### 1.1.1 The importance of the family institution

The family is one of the important social institutions which functions as a small social unit for the procreation and socialisation of the new members of society. The family is a place where members of the society first learn about their roles and how to live and interact with other people within and outside of the family. Economically speaking the family is also a production unit where active members engage in common livelihood activities such as in agricultural production, home industry and other forms of family enterprises, etc.

Traditionally, in non-agrarian communities in Thailand the husband has been regarded as the bread winner and the head of the household who earned an income to support the family members as well as to give them protection. With this role, the husband has the authority to make decisions on these matters and to lead the family the way he sees fit. The wife on the other hand plays the passive role completing household chores including childcare. With a relatively inferior role the housewife tends to be excluded from the important decision making process within the family.

This attitude still prevails and has influenced the socialisation process whereby sons are being prepared to become family heads and leaders. Girls or daughters are taught to be obedient followers or dedicated wives attentive to their husbands' wishes and the wellbeing of the whole family.

However, things have been changing rapidly due to socio-economic developments. The economic structure of the country has shifted from an agricultural based to a manufacturing or industrial based production. These changes have also affected gender relations in production both within and outside of the household. Women are drawn more into the labour market and have to take part in socio-economic and political activities.

Thus, it is necessary to prepare and adjust the roles of men and women as husband and wife or as father and mother in the family context to be able to adapt to the changing socio-economic and cultural conditions. This should enable them to make appropriate decisions when faced with problems.

##### 1.1.2 Scope

This chapter deals with the family life of Thai women and their interrelationships with other family members by assuming that women belong to two types of family, namely, the family of origin and the family of procreation. In the former, the roles of women are discussed in terms of daughters, sisters and male selectors. In the latter, the roles of women are discussed in terms of wives, mothers and grandmothers.

Moreover, this chapter attempts to analyse the roles of men and women as husbands and wives or fathers and mothers within the family context, and how they determine the course of family and sexual life within the present socio-economic conditions. "Family" is used as a "looking glass" to reflect the roles and position of women and to identify problems and constraints as well as their causes. This is one of the strategies to assist planners in the formulation of appropriate plans to deal with the problems or to promote women's roles and position in the society as a whole.

## 2. PROBLEMS AND TRENDS

### 2.1 FAMILY STRUCTURE AND CHANGES

#### 2.1.1 Size of family and composition

Modernization will bring about a reduction in the extended family. Data from the census of the National Statistical Office of Thailand for 1960, 1970, and 1980 are presented in Table 3-1. Figures in the table indicate that changes between 1960 and 1970 were minimal and that changes became very obvious between 1970 and 1980. At this point one cannot say that the drop in family size is due to modernization. Table 3-2 further elaborates that the family planning programme implemented since the Third National Economic and Social Development Plan (1972 - 1976) has had a very strong impact on family size. Change in family size is more apparent among non-agricultural families.

Figures in Table 3-1 and 3-2 show data for size of family with no distinction between nuclear and extended, or extended-stem. When anthropologists provide demographic information on a village population, they make distinctions between nuclear, extended, extended-stem, joint, etc. in describing the domestic or family cycle. They agree that a family usually goes through the cycle of extended then nuclear and then extended family.

Table 3-3 shows the current situation for the size of the population and the number of households in Thailand. A very substantial increase in the latter over the past two decades is obvious. Even within the short time span of five years (1980-1985), the number of households has increased by about 1.5 million. Such a dramatic increase is due partly to the rapid increase in population growth, of almost 2 per cent per year. The population in 1985 of 50.9 million was almost double that of 1960. At the same time there is a decline in the average household size: the number of household members was around six persons in 1970, but decreased to five by 1985. (Mason et al., 1987 in Hutaserani, 1989)

The projections presented in Table 3-4 are prepared by Puapongsakorn (1988) (Hutaserani, 1989), who applies the hardship rates to convert the population projections into household projections. The number of households will increase from 10.2 million in 1985 to 18.1 by 2005 with an average annual growth rate over the period of 2.9 per cent, which will be much faster than the average annual population growth rate of around 1.4 per cent over the period. The more rapid increase in the number of households than in the number of population implies a smaller household size, which will decline from around 5 persons in 1985 to 4 by 2005.

#### 2.1.2 Family and kinship patterns

In studying post-nuptial residence and age of marriage among Central Thai Women in the setting of modern Thai society, Aphichart, et al (1986) looked at three strata of people: rural, urban middle, and urban lower. They conclude that with economic development and urbanization the power of older family members derived from land ownership in an agricultural society is now eroding. They explain that the change is largely due to the availability of extra-familial employment. When young couples are no longer totally dependent on elders for subsistence there is an inter-generation power shift, and, as a consequence, a sharp decline in incidence of extended family households is expected. However, the research team also observed that those living with parents were less concerned about the economic costs of having additional children, did not have to worry about the high cost of housing, and received substantial child care and housework assistance from the older generation. They conclude that urbanization and industrialization are not necessarily incompatible with extended residence.

Furthermore, one may expect that extended family residence makes it possible for a women to work far away from home. The research team found a high percentage of husbands and wives not cohabiting. There are a wide variety of reasons why a couple may be sleeping in different residences, including different employment locations or education locations, in-law conflicts, minor wives, or even being a live-in domestic servant. However, the fact that families are separated is not good. The family unit should still be the most essential primary group for children to grow up in and to learn to live in society.

Being the primate city of Thailand, Bangkok is a destination for rural people hoping to find wage labour and cash income. Thus, Bangkok has been absorbing rural migrants, both temporary, circular, and/or semi-permanent. Many migrants have now become permanent residents, have settled and are raising their families to become Bangkokians. Table 3-6 provides data from Thienchay, et al. (1982) drawn from 24 districts of Bangkok. They indicate that about 50 per cent of the respondents were born in Bangkok and another 50 per cent were born in other regions of the country. Nibhon, et al. (1983), collected data from 4 slum areas of Bangkok and found that only 34 per cent of the respondents were born in Bangkok. This clearly shows that in slum areas there are more migrants than in other parts of the city. This is as expected since migrants from rural areas have no place to live and slums are the only possible residential areas for first arrivals. They join relatives or fellow villagers who came earlier and settled there.

Prasit Swasdiyad (1983) studied families and kinship patterns in Bangkok: 1090 respondents were interviewed from 19 districts of the city. It was found that during the first year after marriage about 55 per cent of the respondents lived neolocally and after the first year many couples who had been living in the parents' home moved out. When asked about present residence, 89 per cent reported living neolocally. This is in agreement with the discussion made in the earlier sections of the paper where it was reported that in rural areas, newly married couples live with the wife's parents and establish a new household after a few years. Similarly, Thienchay, et al., found about 53 per cent of the respondents in 24 districts of Bangkok establishing their homes neolocally. (Table 3-7) The large percentage of neolocal residents reported for Bangkok support the fact that Bangkok is an urban area where land is scarce and there is no space for an additional family to live in conjunction with the parents' family, either within the same house or within the same house compound. Thus, the percentage of nuclear family households reported in contrast to residential extended families is also high for Bangkok.

Preference for neolocal residence among Bangkok people is also seen more among the middle class where both husbands and wives work outside the home. Since resources in parental households are limited and cannot be distributed to all children, those who move out of the parent's households are the ones who feel that they are able to support themselves as well as wanting to establish independent households. Changes in the socio-economic conditions of the overall society demand that families make the necessary adjustments.

Apichart et al. indicate that in modern Thai society there is also a strong preference to live with the parents who have the most resources. The couple live in an extended or shared household and choose among the optional of living with parents, or relatives, of whichever side provides access to strategic resources. Thus, "flexibility" has been identified as one of the characteristics of the Thai marriage pattern. Flexibility also extends to the length of time the couple spends living with either his or her parents. They are expected to stay temporarily. The length of stay is determined by the circumstances and resources of both the newly married couple and the older parents. Apichart, et al. also note the strong preference for living with wife's parents among the rural people and the preference for patrilocal residence among the Chinese. Urban Thais are as likely to report patrilocal residence as matrilocal post-nuptial residence. A substantial minority initially live with relatives. They suggest that the urban pattern conforms to expectations of a rapidly urbanizing society. Married couples find residence where they can find available resources.

The research team found that there were a large proportion of people living apart after marriage. After thorough examination of the data they felt that the figures obtained from their survey represent a fair approximation of the number of people living apart after marriage. (Apichart et. al., 1986)

## **2.2 TRENDS IN CHANGING FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS.**

### **2.2.1 Roles of husband/wife**

#### (1) Decision making

According to research studies during the period of 1977-1986, there have been some positive changes in the attitudes of men and women in the urban areas with regard to the roles of husband and wife in a family.

Both sexes are having more or less equal share in the decision making process in all family matters, be it in the economic production or reproduction activities. One of the major factors which brings about this change in gender "balance of power" within the family is the improvement of women's education and work status.

However, in the rural areas, according to a study on the attitudes of local women leaders in 39 villages by the Technical Division in the Local Government Department, findings were unclear and did not show to what extent rural men accept women into the decision making process in the household as well as in the community.

However, it was found that rural men consider men's social status as relatively higher than that of women and that they are more recognized as such. Interestingly, they also stated that if women were to be recognized, they would have to exert more efforts to prove their capabilities. It was concluded that the main obstacle restricting the advancement of women was patriarchal social values and traditions.

### (2) Housework

Housework has become an issue in the study of the Thai family pattern. In this context housework includes food preparation cooking, house cleaning and washing. These tasks have always been regarded as women's responsibility. According to a study by Sirisambhand (2530) on farmers' attitudes towards gender relations in the households, men see housework as boring and as a "light" task to be done by women. On the other hand 51 per cent of the female respondents agreed that house work is boring and is never ending. It was concluded that in general most of the housework was the responsibility of female members of the family, i.e. wives and daughters.

The Long Term Women's plan (1992-2001) shows that working hours of men and women in agricultural production were 2294 and 1644 hours per year respectively. But when working time on housework was added, women spent up to 3894 hours per year for all the productive and reproductive work, whilst men's working hours remained unchanged.

Housework responsibilities is one of the problems which limit the opportunities of women in upgrading their status or position, e.g. in obtaining or seeking knowledge and information necessary to improve their position as well as the livelihood. This problem also constitutes constraints for women who work outside the home.

With regard to the urban setting, it is less likely that as of today the reorganisation of gender division in housework will be fully accepted by men. Husbands may help ease some load on housework providing that household automation and appliances become available. In many cases the women's burden for housework is lessened by the service of housemaids who again are women.

However, in this context women from the low income groups or the urban poor such as those working as casual labour, construction workers and women in slums should be given priority and considered as target groups.

A study by Chanja Suwanathat (2524) indicates that women who work either inside or outside the home and have pre-school children are facing additional burdens of childcare. They lack the opportunities and motivation to acquire new knowledge, e.g. from the mass media, to improve their position and the well being of their children or family. The study concludes that women's position did not improve much because their needs for childcare services and welfare were not adequately met.

### (3) Family life

According to the social norms of family life conduct, husband and wife relations are based on mutual respect, understanding and faithfulness. If husbands and wives can maintain this code of conduct the family could be without conflicts and the result a happy marriage life for the couples. In most cases, broken marriages are often caused by the fact that husbands and wives do not conform to such norms. As a consequence, all kinds of conflicts arise with increasing degrees of intensity and ending in divorce or separation.

At present, such family conflicts are on the increase and will continue to pose serious problems in the future, unless policy makers and planners from relevant agencies commit themselves to tackle the problems systematically.

It was found that most of the conflicts are caused by problems such as:

(3.1) Double marriage registration

This is a problem of an unfaithful husband who registers another marriage with another woman. The root cause of this male practice is due to the double standard of sexual morality prevalent in Thai society which judges male and female sexual conduct differently.

(3.2) Keeping of mistress or mistresses

Male infidelity takes place through having a relationship with another women either through double marriage registration or simply by keeping her as a mistress. The root cause of this male sexual conduct is due to the double standard of sexual morality prevalent in Thai society which has been going on for centuries. It constitutes discrimination against women because it evaluates the sexual behavior of male and female differently.

(3.3) Family violence which includes physical and verbal abuse as well as negligence to family members.

This is a universal problem occurring in families in all societies, agrarian traditional or industrialised. In this situation women and children are often victims of such violence due to their relative physical weakness. In the older days in Thailand, wife beating as a form of punishment was legitimate conduct for the husband and justified by law.

According to the output of a workshop organised by some NGOs and the Department of Public Welfare on Women and Family Violence, the main causes of the problems are:

1. Jealousy and misunderstanding between husband and wife due to a big age gap.
2. Economic problems and unemployment which create stress and strain for the family trying to ensure its survival.
3. Lack of responsibility of family members in fulfilling their roles and duties.
4. Social values and customs which discriminate against women. For example patriarchal attitudes hold that men are the household heads and have a relatively higher status than women.
5. Ignorance concerning sexual matters.
6. Family background and socialization which ignore morality.
7. Impact from external forces such as mass media which promote unwanted conduct.
8. Physical and mental health problems which lead to deviant sexual behaviors.

Kobkul Rayanakom, in her study on the laws and measures to stop family violence indicated that the problem lies in the enforcement of laws rather than the lack of laws and legal measures to deal with family violence. Moreover the victims, i.e. women or children, generally could not afford to take their case to court. On the part of officials involved, they tried to view family violence as a private matter in which outsiders should not interfere. More often than not, they would talk the dispute parties into compromise. On the other hand, a wife who is the victim generally lacks knowledge on legal rights. In many cases women decide to tolerate the problem for the sake of the children.

The study concludes that family violence is one of the major social problems which directly affects the development of the personality and temperament of a person from the time of childhood on. In addition, this problem also leads to other social problems such as drug addiction, juvenile delinquency, child prostitution and other crimes.

#### (4) Divorce

Figures for the divorce rate in Thailand for 1977-1986 presented in Table 3-15 show that there is an obvious difference between Bangkok and the other regions of the country. While divorce rates in Bangkok range from 17 to 25 per cent of ever married women for 10 years, rates in other regions range from 6 to 11 per cent for the same period. There is no doubt that the urban setting of Bangkok has certainly caused marriage to be less stable and led people to seek divorce as a solution to settle marriage conflicts. Furthermore, in Bangkok divorce rates tend to increase from year to year while in other regions the rates fluctuate and the increasing trend is not very clear.

Hutasereni (1989) pointed out that female single-headed households have begun to increase substantially in the age groups 45-49 and 50-54 respectively.

Figures from table 3-13 and table 3-14 show that divorce rates for females are higher than for males. This implies that males have the opportunity to remarry. However, in such a situation when comparing male single-headed households with female single-headed one, it is clear that most of the time the females have to take responsibility for childrearing and earning income for the household. (Nitaya Piriathamawons, 1988).

### 2.2.2 Parents' Roles

#### (1) Child Rearing and Socialization Process

Having children in most societies is a responsibility affecting mostly women. Their responsibilities begin from pregnancy and child rearing. Having a child is therefore a problem for women and it may lead to conflicts in married life. The burden is particularly troublesome for cases such as unwanted/unplanned or premarital pregnancies. Some women may want children to satisfy or to strengthen relationships with husbands, but, at the same time, they are aware of the implications for their career. There might also be cases where a husband wants a child while his wife does not. Having a child, although the burden rests mostly on women, should be based on a mutual decision, providing that women still reserve to themselves the right to practice family planning and to have an abortion.

Parents not performing their roles is the root cause of child abandonment, a phenomenon found in today's society. A large number of small children are orphaned or abandoned (CUSRI and NESDB, 1990). Between the years 1977 and 1985 the number of abandoned children in hospitals, including normal and disabled ones, increased from 673 to 1,607 (Alternative Development Studies Programme, CUSRI, 1990), and the 1988 statistics from Department of Public Social Welfare give figures as high as 5,641 abandoned children.

Chintana Nontapaoraya (NYB 1988: 171) reports from the records of the Sahathai Foundation that in the past decade more than 80 per cent of the abandoned children were from single mothers. A study of those single mother's backgrounds indicates that 80 per cent had a premarital pregnancy, 70 per cent migrated to work or study in big cities, 50 per cent were young mothers and another 50 per cent were student-mothers (in secondary schools, pre-colleges, and universities (CUSRI and NESDB 1990).

Other research findings show that parents unable to perform their roles of giving love and comfort as well as providing socialization to their children have been a cause of social problems for their children such as physical and mental health problems, juvenile delinquency, and drug abuse. There were up to 136 research projects between 1974 and 1980 revealing that broken homes result in child misbehavior (Wicha Mahakun 1987). The Central Correction Department also reports that causes of children being sent to the Department are firstly due to family problems (32.7%), secondly bad friends (32%), and finally physical and mental ill health (13%). (Amara Phongsapich, et. al, 1986).

Although statistics at the macro level show that the crime rate, the number of child prostitutes and youth problems are not that high, these problems are delicate and need urgent action.

#### (2) Child Sex Preference and Gender Role Definition.

Thai parents in general want children of either sex. Yet, parents are different in many ways in raising their children whether it be defining gender role or controlling behaviour and manner.

Sumon Amornwiwat (1987) finds that according to Thai beliefs, looking like one's parent of the opposite sex is a desirable feature for a child. Children are taught to take part in household work according to their gender. Girls are responsible for all housework while boys participate in farming and outdoor work. Stewen Piker's study on child rearing at Ban Oay, Ayutthya province, observes that girls in the village begin to take part in housework at the age of 5-6 years. When reaching their teens, girls can take full responsibility for the housework. On the contrary, boys are sent to school and have not much responsibility throughout their teenage years. At 20, boys may enter the monkhood for one period (3 months) and get married afterward.

A survey by Snit Smuchkarn and Suntaree Komin (1979) also indicates that the traditional gender role is still persistent. It is clearly seen that girls are taught about courtship, housework and proper manners while boys are taught about the means of making a living.

The differentiation of child rearing between boys and girls is due to the fact that daughters are expected to look after elderly parents. Akin Rabibhadana points out that the relationship between parents and children is based on gratitude. Parents, particularly mothers, must receive gratitude for giving birth to and raising children. This gratitude cannot be entirely paid back. Daughters show their gratitude in a different way to sons. While sons can enter into a monkhood to show their gratitude, daughters will have to look after parents and support them financially, to get married with a good man that her family can depend on. Akin and Piker say that such social beliefs and practices regarding child rearing are obviously differentiated between daughters and sons.

Regarding women's expectation for children, a study of Chalio Buripakdi (1977: 29) reveals that women respondents want to have daughters in order to have help for housework. This is characteristic of rural families as well as low income families in urban areas. There are only a small number of respondents whose expectation for daughters is to look after parents when getting old. Having a son is still very important. Sons will carry on family names. Rural families want their sons to help in family economic matters more than in the urban areas. Noppawan Chongwattana and Juta Manaspaiboon (1986: 71-73) indicate that in rural areas 86.8 per cent of the mothers want to depend on their sons and 94.4 per cent on their daughters; in urban areas the percentages are 65.3 and 73.1 respectively.

Family socialization for girls are the same in all income groups. Housework as well as good conduct for wives and mothers are the major concerns. Higher income families may stress proper manners, cooking and artistic skills in arranging the house. In low income or rural families, daughters learn how to take care of the young and how to do housework. Akin raises the point that girls from low income families in slum areas have to learn how to take care of the young and do housework from the age of 8 years while boys at the same age are free to play around.

Socialization for women therefore stresses that women should behave according to their expected role. This perception has been long embedded in Thai society, and, as a consequence, women have adopted it as their own value.

Furthermore, several research projects show that families today have no strong objection to traditional ways which do not conform to social values, traditions and culture. Such attitudes might have some effects on the socialization process of the younger generation in the families. This point should be taken into consideration to prevent social problems in the future. Attitudes showing a lack of moral principles, values and good traditions will result in a lack of social immunity in children (Sopa Chupikulchai, 1989).

### (3) Sharing responsibility for child rearing and establishing gender role

Important tastes and responsibilities of women include carrying the baby throughout the pregnancy period and raising children afterward. In Thai society, past and present, when a child is at an early age fathers who stay at home can share the responsibility in child rearing. A study on men and women's attitudes toward child rearing in both urban and rural areas indicates that it should be a mutual responsibility between husband and wife (Bhassom 1987, Napas, 1987). This important task should not be the responsibility of one particular partner alone.

In an urban society, women tend to play a greater role in economic, social and political activities which consume part of the time that should have been allocated for children. A preschool nursery and a child care centre, for instance, are taking up this responsibility for single families living in the urban area.

Child rearing at the early age, according to the research, is a problem for a nuclear family more than for an extended one. Those problems are child rearing practices of baby sitters and a need for changing baby sitters and service places. Research indicates that this problem could be minimized if child care centres were set up at offices so that mothers could look after their children more closely. Parents have not yet relied on private child care centres because of low quality services or otherwise high service charges.

The situation where parents are engaged more with outside activities makes them unable to take care of the children adequately. The relationship between parents and children is therefore deteriorating because of having less quality time together. The consequence might lead to child deviant behaviour, especially among children in a disorderly urban society.

What needs to be considered is the problem of socialization of children in both urban and rural areas. The gender role from an anthropological perspective is perceived through the social learning process. The family can play a role in establishing gender roles because it needs to maintain its integration and stability. In a family, the father plays an instrumental role and the mother plays an expressive role. If there is no incidence of deviance, daughters and sons will grow up developing their personalities according to their parents' role models. They will learn what to expect from the opposite sex. But, if parents have insufficient time, the children cannot observe role models from their parents; children might have problems in their development by being exposed to conflicting social values outside the family domain. Children might develop double standard behaviours in relating to the opposite sex allowing men more sexual freedom without social sanctions. The conflicting values might also lead to deviant behaviour such as hypocrisy or homosexuality.

### **2.2.3 The elderly**

The study of the family cannot be complete without taking into consideration the elderly. This is especially true when one finds that extended families are becoming dysfunctional and chances for the aged being left alone higher. There are a few research reports on the elderly such as Peerasit (1980), Nisa (1982), and Napaporn (1988). Napaporn provides figures indicating the characteristics of the elderly as shown in table 3-17.

Napaporn further states that the linkages between the elderly and their families can be seen in the extent to which support is provided by children. Living near their children is no guarantee that the elderly will receive support but 97 per cent say they have received care or support from at least one child. This finding documents the fact that most older persons have children who assist them. Although the percentage is relatively small (6.4 per cent), the elderly who are single or who have no living children are also in need of care and support which must be provided through other sources. Even though the migration of the young should not be taken as abandonment of the elderly, many older persons do feel neglected.

In short, present welfare programmes in Thailand are limited in scope and are not widely available to the rural elderly, especially those programmes concerned with residence, living arrangements and recreation and social programmes. No income maintenance programme exists for assistance in time of need. Most of the elderly in Thailand live either in their own homes or those of their children, and the poor elderly, without anyone to care for them, suffer the most. Because of the limitations in services and coverage of existing programmes the poor and destitute elderly may have severe problems, especially those in families where all younger members, including women and children, have to join the labour force. Many elderly are thus left alone at home, family ties being eroded. Further many elderly have little access to the government services currently available (Napaporn, 1988 : 121).

One other problem is that the elderly play only a limited role in the performance of household chores, even in extended families younger people are expected to work but not the elderly. This value should be adjusted.

The elderly living in the home should be given household responsibilities in order to lessen the burden of the young couples who have to work outside the home. Action programmes to help bring about adjustments within extended families and programmes to involve the elderly in work on a communal basis will not only help bring self-respect and a sense of usefulness to the elderly, but also will benefit the communities in general. (Weerasit Sititrai, 2533, Amara Pongsapich, 1990).

### 3. RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 3.1 POLICIES

- (1) The Government should promote family development activities by encouraging equal sharing of responsibilities and decision making between men and women in the family.
- (2) GOs and NGOs should provide services for family counselling.
- (3) GOs and NGOs should provide welfare and services for single parents and women with violence in their family life.

#### 3.2 STRATEGIES

- (1) Provide welfare services for target groups such as lactating mothers, elderly persons and poor single mothers.
- (2) Provide public facilities for families to enjoy recreation together.
- (3) Campaigns to encourage and promote positive attitudes toward sex roles and family life.
- (4) Provide services in the form of family welfare and counselling in such areas as:
  - (4.1) Family violence,
  - (4.2) Family life, middle-age syndrome,
  - (4.3) Sexual relations in the family.
- (5) Promote attitudes toward joint family responsibility with no sexual division of labour.
- (6) Request the Ministry of Interior to control double marriage registrations efficiently.
- (7) Advocate through all types of mass media a change of attitude towards sexual discrimination.
- (8) Encourage agencies providing non-formal education to include subjects in their curriculum on family and development in conjunction with other training curricula.

**Table 3 - 1** Average Household Size in Different Regions in 1960, 1970 and 1980

	1960			1970			1980		
	Population household	No. of household	Average household size	Population household	No. of household	Average household size	Population household	No. of household	Average household size
Whole Nation	26,257,916	4,616,654	5.6	34,397,374	5,939,896	5.7	44,824,540	8,459,808	5.3
Bangkok Metropolitan	2,136,435	335,968	6.2	3,077,361	498,632	5.9	4,697,071	906,591	5.2
Central Region	8,271,302	1,418,968	5.7	10,611,877	1,821,558	5.7	14,423,343	2,795,144	5.2
Northeast Region	8,991,543	1,483,665	6.0	12,025,140	1,952,653	6.1	15,698,878	2,724,920	5.8
Northern Region	5,723,106	1,071,221	5.3	7,488,683	1,363,041	5.4	9,074,103	1,873,109	4.8
Southern Region	3,271,965	614,005	5.3	4,271,674	774,221	5.5	5,628,216	1,066,635	5.3

**Source:** National Statistics Office.

**Table 3 - 2** Average Agricultural and Non-agricultural Households in Different Regions in 1960 and 1980

	Agricultural household		Non-agricultural household	
	1960	1980	1960	1980
Whole Nation	5.7	5.5	5.6	5.0
Bangkok Metropolitan	6.3	5.9	6.3	5.2
Central Region	5.7	5.4	5.9	5.0
Northeast Region	6.1	5.9	5.7	5.2
Northern Region	5.4	5.0	5.0	4.4
Southern Region	5.3	5.4	5.4	5.1

Source: National Statistics Office.

**Table 3 - 3** Population, Households, and Average Household Size

Year	Population ('000)	Households ('000)	Average Household size
1960	26,258	4,600	5.68
1970	36,370	6,200	5.82
1980	46,718	8,700	5.32
<b>Adjusted Values</b>			
1980	46,016	8,689	5.30
1985	50,902	10,215	4.99

**Notes:** Adjusted values include only private household population adjusted for underenumeration.  
Unadjusted values are taken from census reports.

**Source:** Mason et al. (1987) in Hutaserani, 1989.

**Table 3 - 4** Household Projections

	1985	1990	1995	2000	2005	2015
Population ('000)	50,902	55,498 (1.74)	55,638 (1.45)	63,502 (1.26)	67,006 (1.08)	72,307 (0.76)
All Households ('000)	10,215	12,001 (3.28)	13,977 (3.10)	16,030 (2.78)	18,091 (2.45)	21,870 (1.92)
Average Household Size	4.98	4.62	4.27	3.96	3.7	3.31
Intact Households ('000)	7,985	9,394 (3.30)	10,938 (3.09)	12,508 (2.72)	14,028 (2.32)	16,585 (1.69)
Single-Headed Households ('000)	1,786	2,091 (3.20)	2,445 (3.18)	2,850 (3.11)	3,308 (3.03)	4,358 (2.80)
Primary Individual Households ('000)	81	94 (3.02)	105 (2.24)	114 (1.66)	123 (1.53)	134 (0.86)
One Person Households ('000)	363	423 (3.11)	489 (2.94)	559 (2.71)	633 (2.52)	794 (2.29)

Average annual growth rates (in %) are shown in parentheses.

**Sources:** Poapongsakorn (1988), in Hutsaserani, 1989.

**Table 3 - 5** Percentage of Household Structure Projections

Household Structure	1985	1989	2005	2015
Intact Households	78.2	78.3	78.2	75.8
Single-Headed Households				
Male	4.7	4.6	4.7	5.2
Female	12.8	12.8	13.1	14.7
Primary Individual Households				
Male	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4
Female	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2
One-Person Households				
Male	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.7
Female	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.9
<b>Total</b>	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

**Source :** 1. Mason et. al. (op. cit)  
2. Calculated from table 3 - 4

**Table 3 - 6** Place of Birth of Bangkok Residents

	(1) Place of birth	(2) Previous place of residence of wife	(3) Previous place of residence of husband	(4) Place of birth
This community	13.1	11.7	11.1	
Bangkok (outside this community)	20.6	53.7	47.9	49.1
Central Region	37.6	20.4	24.2	27.9
Northern	7.2	3.7	2.6	5.6
Northeastern	19.9	9.2	8.5	8.8
Southern	1.6	1.0	1.7	3.6
Don't know, other	0.1	0.3	4.0	5.0
Total per cent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total Number	695	695	695	3,306
Location	4 slums		24 districts	

**Source:** (1), (2), (3), Nibhon, et. al., 1983. Table 3, 3 - 50  
(4) Tienchai, et. al., 1982. Table ; 25.

**Table 3 - 7** Post-Nuptial Residence Pattern in Bangkok.

	(1) All Bangkok (24 district)	(2) Inner Bangkok	(3) Central Bangkok	(4) Sub-urban	(5) 19 districts First year of marriage	Present
Matrilocal	9.9	7.2	10.9	19.4	14.3	2.7
Uxorilocal	4.7	3.4	6.4	4.7		
Patrilocal	30.2	33.4	26.3	30.0	25.1	5.5
	1.2	1.3	1.2	0.7		
Neolocal	53.1	54.0	54.2	44.2	55.5	88.4
Other, don't know	0.9	0.7	1.0	0.7	5.0	3.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total N	2,842	1,396	1,152	294	1,090	1,090

**Source:** (1), (2), (3), (4), Tienchai et. al., 1982 Table j 99  
(5) Prasit, 1983.

**Table 3 - 8** Family Pattern in Bangkok

Type of family	(1) 11 district	(2) 4 slum
Extended	18.3	29.8
Nuclear	86.7	70.2
Total	100.0	100.0
(N)	1,090	621

**Source:** (1) Prasit, 1983  
(2) Nibhon et al., 1983

**Table 3 - 9** Singulate Mean Age at Marriage Classified by Sex, Age and Source of Data

Sex and age group	Census 1947	Census 1960	Census 1970	Census 1980	SPS
Female					
15 - 19	.806	.830	.810	.833	.807
20 - 24	.300	.352	.379	.435	.401
25 - 29	.109	.126	.156	.209	.105
30 - 34	.057	.082	.081	.118	.105
35 - 39	.040	.040	.053	.073	.071
40 - 44	.032	.030	.039	.053	.050
45 - 49	.029	.026	.030	.041	.036
(SMAM)	21.06	21.64	21.97	22.52	22.38
Male					
15 - 19	.967	.959	.963	.958	.934
20 - 24	.606	.663	.651	.664	.630
14 - 29	.242	.242	.249	.270	.256
30 - 34	.104	.088	.106	.115	.102
35 - 39	.069	.050	.058	.061	.053
40 - 44	.050	.036	.038	.043	.033
45 - 49	.044	.032	.032	.035	.026
(SMAM)	24.32	24.52	24.67	24.90	24.49

**Source:** Bhassorn Limanonda, 1988

**Table 3 - 10** Singulate Mean Age at Marriage of Thai Women Classified by Type of Place and Region (1960, 1970 and 1980).

Area	Census 1960	Census 1970	Census 1980
Whole Kingdom	21.6	21.9	22.8
Urban Areas	*	24.7	25.5
Rural Areas	*	21.4	22.0
Bangkok Metropolis	23.4	25.0	25.9
Central (excluding Bangkok)	22.2	22.7	23.4
Northeast	21.5	21.2	21.7
North	21.0	21.1	22.0
South	21.0	21.3	22.3

**Note:** \* Data are not available.

**Source:** Bhassorn Limanonda, 1986

**Table 3 - 11** Ratio of the Single Thai Women in Bangkok Classified by Age (1960, 1970 and 1980)

	Proportion				
	1960		1970		1980*
	BKK	Thon-Buri	Bkk	Thon-Buri	
15 - 19	.915	.909	.903	.890	.898
20 - 24	.548	.528	.633	.587	.658
25 - 29	.250	.244	.337	.299	.405
30 - 34	.117	.123	.177	.163	.250
35 - 39	.073	.085	.105	.104	.154
40 - 44	.051	.060	.076	.075	.107
45 - 49	.043	.050	.055	.060	.081
50 - 54	.036	.042	.044	.045	.066
(SMAM)	23.94	23.14	25.18	24.54	25.98

\* Bangkok Metropolis

**Source:** Bhassorn Limanonda, 1986

Table 3 - 12 Marital Status of Population in 1970 Classified by Sex and Age Group.

Age	Male						Female					
	Total	Single	Married	Widow	Separate	N.A.	Total	Single	Married	Widow	Separate	N.A.
Total	100	37.8	56.5	2.2	1.0	2.5	100	31.3	56.4	8.8	2.9	0.5
13 - 14	100	95.6	-	-	-	4.4	100	98.4	0.9	-	0.2	0.4
15 - 19	100	93.1	3.6	-	0.1	3.2	100	80.8	17.5	0.2	1.1	0.2
20 - 24	100	61.3	34.0	0.1	0.7	3.9	100	37.9	57.8	0.8	3.2	0.3
25 - 29	100	23.7	73.3	0.3	1.2	1.5	100	15.6	79.1	1.4	3.6	0.3
30 - 34	100	9.8	87.3	0.6	1.3	0.9	100	8.0	85.8	2.4	3.6	0.1
35 - 39	100	5.1	91.6	1.0	1.4	0.9	100	5.2	86.7	4.0	3.9	0.2
40 - 44	100	3.1	92.8	2.7	1.6	1.1	100	3.0	80.1	12.4	4.2	0.2
45 - 49	100	2.3	92.3	2.7	1.6	1.1	100	3.0	80.1	12.4	4.2	0.2
50 - 54	100	1.9	90.5	4.4	1.8	1.4	100	2.5	72.5	20.4	4.3	0.3
55 - 59	100	1.7	88.3	6.3	1.9	1.9	100	2.2	64.7	28.5	4.1	0.4
60 - 64	100	1.7	83.7	9.8	2.1	2.7	100	2.1	53.7	39.6	3.8	0.8
65 - 69	100	1.5	78.8	13.9	2.4	3.4	100	2.1	44.2	49.4	3.3	1.0
70	100	1.8	66.2	24.8	2.5	4.7	100	1.9	27.5	66.7	2.2	1.7
M.A.	100	11.6	13.7	1.9	0.8	71.9	100	8.4	14.5	7.1	3.5	66.0

Source: National Statistics Office

Table 3 - 13 Marital Status of Population in 1980 Classified by Sex and Age Group.

Age	Male						Female							
	Total	Single	Married	Widow	Separate	N.A.	Monk	N.A.	Total	Single	Married	Widow	Separate	N.A.
Total	100	39.46	55.13	2.19	1.02	0.09	1.42	0.69	100	33.59	54.36	8.61	2.59	0.50
13 - 14	100	95.54	0.45	0.01	0.01	0.01	2.16	1.62	100	97.09	1.15	0.03	0.05	1.67
15 - 19	100	92.95	4.01	0.03	0.10	0.01	1.78	1.12	100	82.53	15.59	0.19	0.75	0.90
20 - 24	100	63.68	32.38	0.14	0.66	0.03	2.03	1.09	100	43.21	52.95	0.76	2.42	0.56
25 - 29	100	26.12	71.11	0.33	1.20	0.04	0.79	0.41	100	20.81	74.32	1.49	3.07	0.21
30 - 34	100	10.91	86.21	0.55	1.40	0.40	0.56	0.33	100	11.75	82.01	2.56	3.40	0.16
35 - 39	100	5.54	91.28	0.90	1.47	0.04	0.54	0.24	100	7.29	84.38	4.40	3.67	0.14
40 - 44	100	3.70	92.29	1.57	1.57	0.04	0.60	0.23	100	5.28	83.25	7.24	3.95	0.14
45 - 49	100	2.67	92.14	2.58	1.57	0.05	0.78	0.22	100	4.12	79.89	11.66	3.98	0.14
50 - 54	100	2.07	90.53	4.26	1.73	0.08	1.13	0.20	100	3.40	73.46	18.47	4.11	0.17
55 - 59	100	1.66	88.05	6.59	1.75	0.15	1.58	0.21	100	2.75	65.38	27.07	3.87	0.27
60 - 64	100	1.54	83.57	10.05	1.90	0.31	2.38	0.25	100	2.34	54.68	37.70	3.60	0.35
65 - 69	100	1.44	78.88	13.90	1.95	0.47	3.05	0.31	100	2.10	45.13	47.25	3.03	0.44
70	100	1.45	65.56	25.46	2.09	1.25	3.55	0.64	100	1.86	26.48	65.19	2.00	0.75

Source: National Statistics Office

**Table 3 - 14** Percentage of Population Distribution Classified by Sex Marital Status and In-out Municipality Area in 1980.

Type	Male		Female	
	in	out	in	out
Total	18.56	81.44	19.23	80.77
Single	8.69	30.78	8.24	25.35
Married	8.88	46.25	8.83	45.53
Widow	0.28	1.90	1.36	7.25
Separate	0.28	0.74	0.57	2.02
N.A.	0.02	0.06	0.09	0.25
Monk	0.20	1.22	0.00	0.00
N.A.	0.20	0.49	0.14	0.36

**Source:** National Census, 1980

**Table 3 - 15** Divorce Rates in Thailand Classified by Region.

Year	Whole Kingdom	Bangkok	Central Exclude Bangkok	Northeast	North	South
1977	6.3	16.8	6.5	9.4	4.2	3.1
1978	7.1	19.3	7.7	5.5	4.3	5.7
1979	7.9	21.3	8.7	6.3	4.5	6.1
1980	8.1	21.9	9.2	7.1	4.6	6.1
1981	7.9	21.7	8.8	6.7	4.8	6.3
1982	7.6	20.8	11.2	6.1	3.6	7.2
1983	7.4	20.2	10.1	6.2	3.6	6.7
1984	7.7	23.2	9.6	5.4	4.7	6.1
1985	9.4	22.2	13.3	9.2	5.1	8.1
1986	10.9	25.1	14.3	11.6	5.5	8.5
1987	8.3	23.3	9.3	6.1	5.0	8.1
1988	8.5	23.1	9.4	6.3	5.4	7.3
Total	8.1	21.6	9.9	7.2	4.6	6.6

**Note:** Divorce rate = Number of divorces/100 ever married women.

**Source:** Administrative and Civil Registration Division.

**Table 3 - 16** Reasons for Delinquency of Juvenile Detained (1970 - 1985).

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	(%)
Emotional and family	32.68
Gangsterism (bad influence, hired hands)	31.98
Physical, mental disturbance	12.92
Other	22.42

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**Source:** Central Juvenile Court.

**Table 3 - 17** Percentage Distribution of the Elderly According to Work Participation, by Selected Background Characteristics

Background Characteristic	Work Participation					Weighted N
	Worked during last week	Worked during last year	Currently working	Not currently working	Total	
<b>Age</b>						
60 - 64	42.6	13.7	56.3	43.7	100	1,081
65 - 74	29.4	5.9	35.3	64.7	100	1,465
75 +	13.1	3.0	16.1	83.9	100	700
<b>Sex</b>						
Male	40.1	10.4	50.5	49.5	100	1,332
Female	23.4	6.1	29.5	70.5	100	1,914
<b>Urban-rural residence</b>						
Urban	21.8	2.9	24.7	75.3	100	560
Rural	32.1	8.9	41.0	59.0	100	2,685
<b>Region</b>						
Bangkok	19.0	2.1	21.1	78.9	100	353
Central	40.6	2.4	43.0	57.0	100	722
North	30.9	4.9	35.8	64.2	100	812
Northeast	18.0	20.1	38.1	61.9	100	774
South	39.7	6.1	45.8	54.2	100	584
<b>Education</b>						
No education	25.2	5.5	30.7	69.3	100	1,606
Less than 4 years	33.7	7.8	41.5	58.5	100	625
4 years or more	36.7	13.4	50.1	49.9	100	895
Other	32.6	-	32.6	67.4	100	120
<b>Marital status</b>						
Currently Married	39.7	10.3	49.0	50.0	100	1,783
Other	18.7	5.0	23.7	76.3	100	1,462
<b>Number of living children*</b>						
0	30.5	4.9	35.4	64.5	100	207
1 - 3	29.8	5.6	35.4	64.6	100	884
4 - 6	29.8	7.4	37.2	62.8	100	1,254
7 +	31.2	11.6	42.8	57.2	100	899
<b>Religion**</b>						
Buddhist	29.9	8.2	38.1	61.9	100	2,930
Moslem	34.1	4.5	38.6	61.4	100	288

Background Characteristic	Work Participation					Weighted N
	Worked during last week	Worked during last year	Currently working	Not currently working	Total	
<b>Health***</b>						
Very good	45.6	9.1	54.7	45.3	100	115
Good	36.1	8.7	44.8	55.2	100	1,008
Fair	31.3	6.3	37.6	62.4	100	782
Poor	23.9	8.1	32.0	68.0	100	1,320
<b>Total</b>	<b>30.3</b>	<b>7.9</b>	<b>38.2</b>	<b>61.8</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>3,245</b>

\* Single and age were included in the category of 'no living children'

\*\* Excludes category 'other'

\*\*\* Excludes 28 unweighted cases of unknown health status.

**Source:** Napaporn et al., 1988.

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CHAPTER 4  
**WOMEN AND HEALTH**

## CHAPTER 4

### WOMEN AND HEALTH

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

Poor health does not mean bodily infirmity only. It also has other dimensions which may effect adversely affect national productivity. No programmes for economic development of a nation can succeed unless its citizens are in a reasonable state of physical fitness. A satisfactory national health plan, with special emphasis on women, is therefore of the utmost importance not only for promoting general health but also for fostering strategies for development.

A woman's health is closely related to her fertility. Maternal health not only reflects the quality of medical health care for pregnant women but it is also a measure other social, economic and cultural factors. Women of socially disadvantaged groups have a higher mortality and morbidity. Uncontrolled fertility aggravates the problems. Economic pressures and changing trends related to industrialization have created greater burdens for women. In the rural areas, men migrate to towns and women are forced to assume roles that traditionally were played by men. They have to produce food, feed the family, look after their children, trade to subsidize their farm income, and also become head of the household. Such overwork and stress affect a women's health.

Another factor that affects the health of women today is that they have to work in industries. The working environment often includes hazardous conditions and can cause various pathological conditions and even death. These conditions lead to disturbances in menstrual cycles, premature births, fetal malformations, abnormal deliveries, etc. . Some hazards affect the reproductive organs, and consequently have an impact on the future offspring of the women. Age at childbearing is also important: births to women who themselves are not yet emotionally and physically fully mature can permanently injure their health. The chances of dying for both mothers and babies are many times higher for this age group than for women in their twenties.

Since population trends and women's roles have changed, attention should be drawn to the special health needs of women as well as to the key roles that they can play in promoting health and development. Since women's health is influenced by many factors, efforts of enhance the quality and safety of girls' and women's lives should be a combination of health and non-health strategies. However, initiatives should emphasis the need for better and more accessible maternal and child health services with particular concern for disadvantaged groups. The promotion of family life education and effective measures aimed at improving the status of women must be strengthened. The activities should take many forms and there should be an increase in the awareness of the multi-dimensional aspects of women's health. Maternal and family health services should be strengthened. Services should be provided for specific health needs such as health care for teenage pregnancies, women at work, single mothers and the elderly. There should be greater educational and economic opportunities for women. Non-government and private agencies should be encouraged to participate more in the efforts to promote health and reduce mortality and morbidity of women. Both men's and women's status must change if improvements in health, population and development are to take place.

#### 2. SITUATION ANALYSIS

This analysis is based on women's population characteristics and their role in reproduction, health and economic development.

## **2.1 FEMALE POPULATION, CAUSES OF DEATH AND ILLNESS**

The ratio of males to females in the population is fairly equal for all age groups. It is only after the age of sixty that the female population is larger than the male population.

Female mortality occurs at two peak periods: in early childhood and during the reproductive period. The crude death rate for females has declined continuously. In the population census of 1974-76 the death rate was 7.9/1000 and in 1985-86 it was 5.8/1000. The causes of death have changed slightly. Among infants and young children, pneumonia and diarrhea diseases remained the main causes of death. In older children, malaria and accidents were additional causes. The later two causes remained important during adolescence and early adulthood. At the age 30-34 years, causes of death begin to be malignancies such as tuberculosis and liver diseases. Malignancies continue to increase till after the age of forty when other diseases come to the scene such as heart diseases and cerebro-vascular accidents. It was observed that homicide and violence were ranked in the top ten causes of death among women from the year 1983 till 1987, and their incidence was in the age group of 15-44 years.

Morbidity for women is higher than for men, particularly during the ages of 15-59 years. Comparison of female morbidity by area and age group shows that rural women have a higher morbidity rate than urban women (9.0 and 6.6/1000 respectively) and infants and young children have a higher rate of illnesses than other age groups. For problems of traumas or wounds women engaged in labour and farm work have higher incidence than women in the professions, trades and services.

## **2.2 WOMEN AND REPRODUCTIVE HEALTH**

### **2.2.1 Maternal mortality.**

Maternal mortality accounts for a large proportion of the overall excess of female mortality. Although decreasing, it is still much higher than in developed countries. It was 1.9/1000 LB. in 1973 and came down to 0.4/1000 LB. in 1987. In the southern region, the rate was higher than the national average, i.e. 0.6/1000 LB. The causes of maternal death are mainly obstetric resulting from complications in pregnancies, deliveries and their management. Hemorrhages, toxemia and infections remained the major causes with a rising trend for abortion. Abortion seems to be a birth control method for the underprivileged couples; the majority of women admitted to a hospital with complications due to abortion were married, low educated, farmers or housewives, aged from 15-34 years.

### **2.2.2 Women's acceptance of family planning.**

There are two viewpoints on women's health in relation to birth control. The first one points out to the positive effects of birth control on women's and children's health resulting from the spacing of births. From this point of view, women in the South should be given more attention because they are practising birth control less than others. The second one stresses the adverse affects of birth control methods. From this viewpoint, women take certain risks which are associated with birth control methods, much more than men because they practice birth control more than men do and their numbers continue to rise.

### **2.2.3 Women's age at marriage and unwanted pregnancies.**

On the average, the age of women at marriage and their age when having their first child is older but this is not so for the low education level groups, particularly in rural areas.

More attention should be given to unwanted pregnancies occurring mostly at a younger age, among women with less education, among those deserted by their mates mostly from the Northeastern area. This problem threatens both the physical and mental health of the women and their babies. It was the cause of illegal abortions and abandoned children.

#### **2.2.4 Health hazards of the women's offsprings.**

The health of women directly affects the health of their babies. Mothers of short height, a fact which reflects long standing nutritional deprivation, are likely to have low birth-weight babies. Abnormal genes of mothers cause hereditary diseases and congenital abnormalities. There are infectious agents in mothers passed through the placenta to infect babies. Deficiency diseases in mothers cause mental retardation and deficiency diseases in babies, etc.

Health reports for the year 1989 showed that low birth-weight infants (less than 2500 gm.) were 11.7 per cent of birth in the northern part, the highest rate in the country. The disease from abnormal parental genes that should be urgently considered is thalassemia cases because of its high incidence, and because the costs for its care are tremendous; moreover, technology for its detection and control are available. An infectious disease in need of urgent attention is AIDS: there are increasing numbers of babies born to HIV positive mothers. From 3 cases in 1988 there were 107 cases in 1990.

There are many other health problems in women that can affect their babies. These include hazardous substances in industry and heavy metals with which women have come into contact, deficiency diseases such as iodine deficiency in adolescent girls in the northern provinces, iron deficiency and anemia in pregnant women.

### **2.3 WOMEN'S HEALTH IN RELATION TO THEIR WORK**

High death and illness rates in females are also related to their work. Today, more women are employed outside the home than ever before. These developments have had both positive and negative effects on many women's health. Paid employment appears to offer considerable protection against the depression that afflicts so many housewives who stay alone all day with small children. It breaks down their isolation and gives them a greater sense of their own worth. For most families, the women's income also makes an important contribution to everyone's well-being, enabling them to purchase the necessities for a healthy life. On the other hand, women suffer stress-related diseases believed to be caused by long working hours and lack of autonomy in their work. Women working in industry have been in contact with hazardous dusts, chemicals and fumes. Many work in the textile industry, for instance, where repeated exposure to cotton dust can produce the debilitating disease of byssinosis or "brown lung". They are also at risk from many chemicals. Because of their low education and their lack of skills most women receive low wages, no occupational health protection, irregular and long working hours.

Some hospital and clinic records show that the number of women suffering from psychiatric problems and mental disorders is increasing. However, most of the available data on many indicators of mental health problems are not gender-based and complete, such as drug addiction, crime, bodily harm and violence, etc. Women's suicide rate in the northern part was reported to be twice that of other areas. Violence in the families is increasing and its major cause (68.8%) was reported to be the husband's release of anger. The rate of sexually-transmitted diseases in women is higher in the age group of 15-24 years. The highest rate is for prostitutes. AIDS, a most hazardous disease which can be transmitted sexually, is no longer confined to the "risk groups" but has spread to the "normal families". AIDS in young girls age 10-14 years and 15-19 years is 3-4 times higher than in boys. This is related to the increasing problem of child prostitution.

## **3. EARLIER POLICIES AND PLANNING FOR WOMEN'S HEALTH**

Policies and planning for women's health have never been separately mentioned in any of the previous six National Five-Year plans. It is only in the regular work plan of the Ministry of Health that women's health care was included in the Maternal and Child Health and Family Planning Programmes, which concentrated on women aged 15-44 years.

Not only women's health but also all women issues were never considered separately in national development plans. It is only in the Fifth Plan that national policies and planning on women's development appeared as a separate substantive heading in the plan.

Parallel to the Fifth plan mentioned, there was a twenty year Long-Term Women's Development Plan (1982-2001) prepared by the Task Force on Long-Term Women's Development Planning under the auspices of the National Commission on Women's Affairs in 1981. This Twenty-Year Plan specified the objectives to be achieved: women should not only receive care to promote their physical and mental health but should also receive respect to ensure their human dignity. The plan recognize women's problems related to child bearing, child care and work matters. It singled out various female groups for specific consideration, such as the under-privileged group for sufficient primary health care coverage and knowledge on maternal and child health and family planning. The target was to reduce the stillbirth rate to less than 1/1000 LB., the infant mortality rate (IMR) to less than 15/1000 LB. and the maternal mortality rate (MMR) to less than 0.8/1000 LB.

The strategies for development of women's health in the long-term plan were the following:

### **1. Long-Term Strategies :**

1.1 Education on maternal and child health, family planning, nutrition, family life education in schools and in non-formal education programmes.

1.2 Protection of women's health by law, particularly pregnant women, old age women, women working in industries, women living the under the poverty line and agricultural women.

### **2. Short-Term Strategies.**

#### **2.1 Health Care Strategies:**

2.1.1 increase coverage of basic maternal care during pregnancy, child birth and after child birth by trained personnel.

2.1.2 accelerate family planning services in sub-districts and villages by using village health volunteers and tambon doctors in order to increase family planning acceptors, particularly for male sterilization.

2.1.3 nutrition education and food production programmes particularly for female youths in agriculture, women during pregnancy, childbirth and lactation in sub-districts and villages.

2.1.4 acquire knowledge on causes of mental health problems and drug addiction in women of different ages for an appropriate extension of services on prevention and therapy.

2.1.5 provision of appropriate measures to promote health of women workers such as encouraging industries to provide attached child care services, allowance for maternal leave, etc.

2.1.6 provision of health and welfare services to women especially to specific groups such as prostitutes, service women, unmarried pregnant women, rape victims and drug addicts, etc.

2.1.7 promotion of physical fitness activities in schools and out of school programmes of illness and occupational hazards, such as an exercise program for postpartum women and agricultural women.

2.1.8 promotion of primary health care with emphasis on self-health care, health care in family and community particularly for women in agriculture and for those living in slum areas.

2.1.9 accelerate cooperation and sufficient follow-up of women's health care activities.

#### **2.2 Health Education Strategies.**

2.2.1 increase women's knowledge on health so that they become more involved in primary health care

2.2.2 disseminate knowledge on maternal and child care including service resources to women.

- 2.2.3 disseminate knowledge on family planning to women and increase awareness of men's role in birth control such as practising male sterilization.
- 2.2.4 dissemination of knowledge on essential drugs and self-health care to women in rural and slum areas.
- 2.2.5 dissemination of knowledge on vaccination needed for children and pregnant women.
- 2.2.6 promotion of women's role as health care providers for family and their roles in the dissemination of health knowledge and as health models for family members and community.
- 2.2.7 dissemination of nutrition education to women of various ages in order to foster appropriate attitudes and practices.
- 2.2.8 dissemination of knowledge on mental health including child and youth psychology and psychology of marriage in order to help women to understand and adjust to conflicts in the family and with others.
- 2.2.9 dissemination of knowledge on dental health care to women.

For these strategies to be effective, there should be sufficient cooperation between the organizations involved, both governmental and non-government, including mass media.

### 2.3 Legal Strategies.

- 2.3.1 reform of the abortion laws to protect women from illegal abortions.
- 2.3.2 enforce laws more efficiently against those who lure women into illegal occupations.
- 2.3.3 promulgate the Social Health Act to ensure women's health, particularly those working in industries, and those in the old age group.
- 2.3.4 reform laws on Social Welfare to protect women workers for such issues as allowance of maternal leave, recreation and protection measures against work hazards.

In the Fifth National Health Plan, women's health care was mentioned in two programmes, Maternal and Child Health and Family Planning. In these two programmes the strategies designed to reach targets were as follow:

1. Expansion and improvement of health services by integrating them into primary health care.
2. Expansion and improvement of public relations.
3. Promotion of training and development of health personnel to enable them to provide services efficiently.
4. Promotion of research and evaluation.
5. Encourage cooperation and coordination with various organizations both in the government and the private sector. Policy and Planning on Women's Health in the Sixth National Health Plan (1987-1991).

The Sixth National Health Plan puts emphasis on the quality of life and total health in order to reach the goal Health For All by the year 2000. Strategy for development are in four areas:

1. Promotion of quality of life through primary health care.
2. Policy development, organization building, coordination, including information systems, development of health models, decentralization and people participation.
3. Infrastructural development for health care.
4. Development of alternative resources for health care and application of appropriate technology, consumer protection and public health laws.

As in the Fifth National Health Plan, women were not clearly defined as one specific target group. Women were mentioned as specific targets only in the family health plan.

Goals were set in 4 areas as follows:

1. To achieve health indices that were defined in Basic Minimum Needs, the following activities needing to be accelerated.

- 1.1 Promotion of mother's nutrition in order to insure 60% of newborn's weight at birth at not less than 3000 gm. and birth weight of less than 2500 gm. not exceeding 8%.
  - 1.2 Reduction of 2nd and 3rd degree malnutrition in 0-4 year old children to not more than 2%
  - 1.3 More than 92% of children aged 5-14 years receiving all nutrients as required.
  - 1.4 Ninety per cent of infants receiving vaccination for age.
  - 1.5 Ninety per cent of the elementary school children receiving BCG, dT, Rubella and typhoid vaccine.
  - 1.6 Seventy per cent of pregnant women receiving at least four antenatal care sessions from trained personnel and eighty per cent receiving tetanus toxoid.
  - 1.7 Seventy per cent of deliveries being assisted by trained TBA or health personnel.
  - 1.8 Seventy per cent of women in postpartum receiving care at least four times from health personnel or trained TBA.
  - 1.9 Seventy per cent of infants from birth to six week old receiving care at least three times from health personnel or trained TBA.
  - 1.10 Sixty percent of children under five years of age with diarrhoea diseases receiving ORT.
  - 1.11 All couples planning their family with not more than two children, family planning services covering 75% of eligible women.
2. Reduction of mortality and morbidity rates.
    - 2.1 To reduce infant mortality to 39/1000 LB.
    - 2.2 To reduce maternal mortality to 0.48/1000 LB.
    - 2.3 To reduce morbidity of AHF, encephalitis, filariasis in infective stage, malaria, venereal diseases, leprosy, rabies, tuberculosis, cancer, cardiac and vascular disease, diabetes mellitus, blood dyscrasia, skin diseases, blindness, deafness, stones, epilepsy, diarrhoeal diseases, vaccine preventable diseases. (DPT, BCG, measles, Polio).
    - 2.4 To reduce mortality and morbidity from insecticides and accidents in agricultural and industrial works.
    - 2.5 To reduce incidence of worm infestation from soil contamination (Ascaris, Hook Worm, Strongyloids)
  3. Reduction of the population increase rate to 1.3 per cent/year.
  4. Improvement of health services through the following activities:
    - 4.1 Training of health volunteers and community leaders.
    - 4.2 Training and development of health personnel in technological and management skills.
    - 4.3 Strengthening of efficiency and quality of health care, health research, care for drug addicts, construction and improvement of health service resources, development and application of technologies.

Health care for women was not considered separately from the overall health policies and goals but was mentioned in 4 sub-plans as follows:

- (1) maternal and child health programme; care of pregnant women, delivery and postpartum care, selection of "model mother".
- (2) family planning.
- (3) nutrition programme; reduction of iron deficiency anemia in pregnant women and promotion of maternal nutrition during pregnancy to increase birth weight of infants.
- (4) Vaccination programme; provision of tetanus toxoid to pregnant women.

#### **4. OTHER MINISTRIES' HEALTH RELATED PROGRAMMES.**

1. The department of Agricultural Extension has had since 1962 an Economic Programme to introduce home management science to young women farmers' groups and farmer's wives groups. This programme also covered elements on health improvement and nutritional education.

2. The Department of Community Development includes a sector on "women and child development" carrying on several projects such as the nutrition and child care project for housewives.

3. The Department of Non-Formal Education, provided "interest groups programmes" whereby a programme could be initiated if at least 15 people were interested in studying the same subject. Often this provision led to programmes for women are health promotion and quality of life development.

4. The Department of Public Welfare offered among others welfare services for women prostitutes and care of venereal diseases as well as restoration of mental health.

5. The Department of Labour enforced laws on the protection of health and prevention of work hazards, especially in industrial settings.

6. The Government Housing Project conducted education programmes for women particularly in the slum areas "Prevention of Drug Addiction in Your Community".

7. Research took place in the universities on problems such as the Women's study Project of Thammasart University, in Chiangmai University and in the Population and Social Research Institute, Faculty of Social Science and Humanities of Mahidol University, etc.

#### **5. THE PRIVATE SECTOR AND WOMEN'S HEALTH.**

The contribution of the private sector to women's health included such projects as the following:

1. The Thai National Council of Woman conducted projects on health of women and children, consumers education/protection

2. The Thai Council on Social Welfare contributed to women's health through programmes for prostitutes offering care and rehabilitation, projects for the development of women in rural areas, offering training on household management and infant care, etc.

3. The Association for the Promotion of the Status of Women offered occupational training and an "Emergency Home" for distressed women and children in cases such as rape, family violence, prostitutes escaping from brothels, etc.

4. The National Family Planning Association of Thailand.

5. The Population and Community Development Association worked mainly with family planning and with the improvement of the quality of life.

6. The Thai University Women Association has public education programmes through radio networks, primary health care education, etc.

7. The Thai Girl Guides Association has long been active in rural areas, in the sphere of non-formal, vocational and health education programmes for women.

8. The "Friends of Women" Group works on women's development mainly through its publications and the organization of various seminars, which often are health related.

To sum up programmes and activities conducted so far, women's health care was mainly under the responsibility of the Ministry of Health. Women's health was included in the Ministry's Plan among other groups of the population without mentioning it as a specific target. It is only in the plans of some Divisions such as the Family Health Division, the Nutrition Division, the Division of Disease Control, that women were mentioned as specific target groups. As for the private sector, women's health was not dealt with directly but it was integrated into other activities which were mainly health promotion and health prevention activities.

## **6. LONG-TERM PLAN FOR WOMEN'S HEALTH (YEAR 1991-2011)**

The study of population structural and social changes indicates trends for more young, adult, and old age women in the future. Problems of migration to cities have resulted in slum areas in the cities and in women as head of households in the rural areas. Changes of family structures and urbanization have led to a decline of family values. Industrialization has caused more working mothers and child labour. Health policies should be aimed at the more predominant group of women exposed to greater risks of poor health such as youth, workers and old age, as well as women of disadvantaged groups (minority groups, undereducated slum dwellers, people in remote areas, etc.)

### **Principal Policy.**

The long-term Plan for Women's Health is aimed at promoting total health and well-being for all women, particularly the predominant group and the group exposed to higher risks of poor health, to enable them to be more productive and to provide them with greater resources for the development of themselves, their family and society.

### **Strategies**

1. Appoint a coordinating body for women's health development between governmental organizations, non-governmental organizations and governmental and non-government organizations.
2. Define indicators for measuring women's health status and establish a centre for the collection and dissemination of information to all organizations involved, both governmental and non-government, at all levels.
3. Maximize resources in the private sector, including women themselves, women's groups at the local, middle and national levels.
4. Formulate a five-year development plan and a yearly operational plan with binding force and not just as an advisory guide.
5. Develop a monitoring and evaluation plan for controlling and measuring the progress of the development plan.
6. Raise and allocate funds for researchers to promote women's health and development.

## **7. STEPS IN IMPLEMENTING THE DEVELOPMENT PLAN.**

1. Appoint a coordinating body for policy and development planning.
2. Improve machinery at all levels.
3. Define target groups/areas and survey their needs.
4. Decentralize works towards local administration, groups of women and other local resources of each target area.
5. Formulate operational plans with clear objectives, target, indicators for measuring progress and schedule to use them.
6. Coordinate project activities with other project activities in the area.

**MASTER PLAN FOR DEVELOPMENT OF WOMEN'S HEALTH YR. 1992 - 2012**

<b>Problem</b>	<b>Policy</b>	<b>Justification</b>	<b>Long - Term Measure</b>	<b>Responsible Organization</b>
<p>1. Maternal Mortality 0.4/1000 LB.</p>	<p>Reduction of maternal mortality to 0.1/1000 LB.</p>	<p>1. Majority of its causes can be prevented 2. MMR indicates the advance of maternal care and mother's health behavior 3. Maternal loss leads to high infant death</p>	<p>Maternal health care during pregnancy, delivery and postpartum by trained personnel to 90 per cent of mothers and all high-risk cases.</p>	<p>- Ministry of Health - Other ministries - NGOs</p>
<p>2. Rate of Iron-deficiency anemia in pregnant women 21.57 per cent</p>	<p>- Reduction of iron-deficiency anemia in pregnant women to 5 per cent</p>	<p>1. Anemia in pregnancy leads to more maternal death from hemorrhage 2. It causes anemia in infants</p>	<p>1. Health and Nutritional Education to WRA, school girls in the last school year of the compulsory education, students in mathayom sukka with emphasis on health, pregnancy, lactating, and child care</p>	<p>- Ministry of Health - Ministry of Agriculture - Other Ministries - NGOs</p>
<p>3. Rate of goitre in adolescent girls and school girls in the area of high risk, especially in the northern provinces is more than 10 per cent</p>	<p>- Reduction of goitre rate in school girls to less than 5 per cent</p>	<p>1. Iodine deficiency in children affect their personality, emotional and intellectual development 2. Iodine deficiency in pregnant women affect the development of infants in utero</p>	<p>2. Contraceptive services to cover 90 per cent of couples.</p>	
<p>4. Infant birth weight less than 2,000 gm. (LBW)</p>	<p>Reduction of LBW infants to less than 5 per cent</p>	<p>1. LBW infants reflect - problems of growth retardation in utero which may lead to many other hazards, e.g. illness, delayed growth and development of infant - poor maternal nutrition during pregnancy</p>	<p>1. Health and Nutritional Education to all pregnant women 2. Promotion of knowledge on health behaviors and practice to all WRA, especially pregnant women 3. Maternal health care during pregnancy, delivery and post-partum by trained personnel to 90 per cent of</p>	

Problem	Policy	Justification	Long - Term Measure	Responsible Organization
<p>5. Infant mortality rate 40/1000 LB.</p> <p>6. Infectious diseases causing high morbidity and mortality in women; tuberculosis, malaria, pneumonia, enteritis, hepatitis etc.</p> <p>7. Non-infectious diseases that cause high morbidity and mortality in women ; heart</p>	<p>Reduction of infant mortality rate to 20/1000 LB.</p> <p>1. Reduction of disease mortality and morbidity by half.</p> <p>2. Promotion of health and nutritional status to all infants, preschoolers, school children, WRA and old aged women.</p>	<p>- maternal health and nutritional practice during pregnancy</p> <p>- coverage and quality of antenatal care</p> <p>- IMR reflects the quality of public health services and health status of the population</p> <p>- Majority of these diseases are preventable.</p> <p>All these diseases show rising trends in WRA.</p>	<p>mothers and all high risk cases.</p> <p>4. Environmental sanitation and adequate safe water supplies to all households.</p> <p>5. Surveillance program for ART in all villages and slums and provision of primary care.</p> <p>1. Blood tests for hepatitis B virus in all pregnant women and HB vaccine to all infants of positive mothers.</p> <p>2. Periodic physical checkup e.g. chest x-rays yearly for women of high risk to pulmonary tuberculosis, blood tests for hepatitis B virus before marriage, etc.</p> <p>3. Malarial surveillance programme in high risk areas.</p> <p>4. Disseminate information of diseases prevention to change teachers, community leaders, leaders of women groups, etc.</p> <p>5. Campaign for disease prevention through mass media throughout the year.</p> <p>1. Provision of physical check-up services at all government health services.</p>	<p>- Min. of Health</p> <p>- Mass media</p> <p>- Universities</p> <p>- NGOs</p> <p>- Min. of Health</p> <p>- Mass media</p> <p>- Employers</p>

Problem	Policy	Justification	Long - Term Measure	Responsible Organization
diseases, diabetes mellitus, kidney diseases, obesity, etc.			<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>2. Encourage physical mobility programmes to release tension during working hours.</li> <li>3. Disseminate knowledge of diseases through mass media</li> <li>4. Campaign against obesity, especially in well-to-do</li> </ol>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Universities</li> <li>- NGOs</li> </ul>
8. Cancer in women, especially cancer of cervix and breast.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Increase Pap Smear services.</li> <li>2. Reduction of death due to cancer of cervix and breast cancer.</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Diagnostic technique is simple and low cost.</li> <li>2. Disease has tendency to rise with women's age.</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Pap Smear to all women               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- 40 yr. old and over, annually</li> <li>- 20 - 40 yr. every three years.</li> <li>- high risk groups, as often as needed.</li> </ul> </li> <li>2. Campaign against sexual promiscuity and STD prevention.</li> <li>3. Training courses for women in industries and certain types of service work.</li> </ol>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Min. of Health</li> <li>- Universities</li> <li>- NGOs</li> <li>- Employers, owner of industries</li> <li>- Mass media</li> <li>- Min. of Education</li> </ul>
9. Important and preventable hereditary diseases and congenital anomalies e.g. Thalassaemia, German Measles, etc.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Reduction of newborn with abnormal gene thalassaemia by half.</li> <li>2. Eliminate infant of Rubella - Syndrome.</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Diseases are preventable.</li> <li>2. Thalassaemia is rather a chronic disease which effects on family income and mental stress, and</li> <li>3. Its treatment course is time</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>4. Integrate knowledge into the curriculum of the last year of compulsory education</li> <li>5. Disseminate knowledge of diseases through mass media and encourage self-breast examination.</li> <li>1. Diagnostic test for infant in utero in area of high prevalence of abnormal gene thalassaemia.</li> <li>2. Therapeutic abortion for infant with Thalassaemia major, or Rubella infection in the first 3 mo. of pregnancy.</li> </ol>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Min. of Health</li> <li>- Universities</li> <li>- NGOs</li> <li>- Min. of Education</li> <li>- Mass media.</li> </ul>

Problem	Policy	Justification	Long - Term Measure	Responsible Organization
<p>10. High rate of injuries and wounds in women of different occupations.</p> <p>in rural areas:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- agricultural workers 89.2/1000</li> <li>- labour, skilled workers 79.0/1000</li> <li>- clerks, traders 78.3/1000</li> <li>- housewives 68.7/1000</li> <li>- students 61.7/1000</li> </ul> <p>in urban areas:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- labour, skilled workers 72.6/1000</li> <li>- housewives 68.3/1000</li> <li>- clerks, traders 58.8/1000</li> <li>- agricultural workers 58.2/1000</li> </ul>	<p>1. Reduction of injuries and wounds from jobs by half.</p> <p>2. Reduction of family violence and violence against women.</p> <p>3. Reduction of accidents in women by half.</p>	<p>consuming and expensive.</p> <p>4. Rubella causes severe handicaps.</p> <p>1. Injury and wounds may cause disability and have serious effects on emotional and mental health of the victims and their family.</p> <p>2. Majority of injuries and wounds from work are preventable.</p> <p>3. Prevention of injuries, wounds and accidents are much cheaper than care. Long - term rehabilitation and prosthesis are also more expensive.</p>	<p>3. Prenatal exam. for abnormal gene of Thalassaemia.</p> <p>4. Blood exam. for detection of abnormal gene in adolescents of both sexes</p> <p>5. Training of change agents and community leaders for program prevention.</p> <p>6. Disseminating of disease information through mass media.</p> <p>1. Provide instructions and equipment needed for prevention of injuries from specific work to cover 80 per cent.</p> <p>2. Establish emergency care and referral units in all industries under the Industrial law.</p> <p>3. Train volunteers to help minimize the rate of injuries and wounds in high risk groups.</p> <p>4. Disseminate knowledge on safety and accident prevention, including first aid in schools and through mass media.</p> <p>5. Reduce numbers of alcohol and beverage sellers and limit time for sale.</p> <p>6. Provide more recreation</p> <p>7. Create awareness of accidents and safety sense in the public.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Min. of Health</li> <li>- Min. of Science and Technology</li> <li>- Min. of Industry</li> <li>- Min. of Education</li> <li>- Min. of Interior</li> <li>- Local gov. org. of all ministries.</li> <li>- Owners, employers</li> <li>- NGOs</li> <li>- Mass media</li> <li>- Universities</li> <li>- Triple joint committee of labour.</li> </ul>

Problem	Policy	Justification	Long - Term Measure	Responsible Organization
<p>11. Rising rate of unwanted pregnancy, out-of-wedlock and pregnancy in young girls.</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. All WRA to receive sufficient knowledge of birth control</li> <li>2. 90% of young girls and school children to receive sufficient knowledge of family life and sex education.</li> <li>3. Accessibility of safe abortion service.</li> <li>4. Research and study of problems.</li> <li>5. Accessibility of birth control for all groups of high risk of unwanted pregnancy.</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Unwanted pregnancy is preventable.</li> <li>2. Unwanted pregnancy and pregnancy in young girls affect health of women and children and create long-term social problems of child care, such as neglected children, abandonment, battered-child syndrome etc.</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Provision of more "safe abortion" services.</li> <li>2. Provision of sexual and family life counseling and guidance services to all high-risk groups</li> <li>3. Foster right attitudes about sex and relations.</li> <li>4. Provision of family planning to all couples especially high-risk groups, e.g. rural or remote areas.</li> <li>5. Incorporate mental health care into counselling services.</li> <li>6. Strengthening the teaching of sex education in schools.</li> <li>7. Parental education on adolescent supervision and how to teach children about sex education.</li> <li>8. Reduce problem of migration.</li> </ol>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Min. of Health</li> <li>- Universities</li> <li>- Min. of Education</li> <li>- NGOs</li> <li>- Mass media</li> <li>- Drug sellers &amp; value.</li> <li>- Employers, Owners.</li> <li>- M.P.s and Parliament.</li> </ul>
<p>12. Illegal abortion is rising and its present rate is 64.9 per cent of all abortions.</p>	<p>Reform the abortion law with consideration of women's rights and social justice.</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Illegal abortions create five times more complications than spontaneous abortions.</li> <li>2. Complications of illegal abortions are life threatening and expensive for care.</li> <li>3. Research reveals that - 85 per cent illegal abortions are among married women, poor, with no education and</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Abortion services available to all married women with failure of birth control.</li> <li>2. "Abortinists" to receive more punishment</li> <li>3. Provide birth control service and family planning counselling to all single and married women of reproductive age at all government health services and private clinics.</li> </ol>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Min. of Health</li> <li>- Min. of Education</li> <li>- Private clinics</li> <li>- Universities</li> <li>- Police Department</li> <li>- Mass media</li> <li>- NGOs</li> </ul>

Problem	Policy	Justification	Long - Term Measure	Responsible Organization
<p>13. Poor families allow daughters to become prostitutes or send some family members to beg in city.</p>	<p>1. Identify such families and communities, and provide alternatives for legal income generation jobs. 2. Enforce laws more forcefully against those who lure girls/women into illegal occupations.</p>	<p>living in rural or remote areas. (50% from N.E.) 4. Rate of unwanted pregnancy is rising and the major cause is desertion by husband. - Prostitution and begging are hazards and dangers to health and welfare. This also give poor image of the country. It reflects social injustice and a poor quality of life.</p>	<p>4. Strengthening of sex education teaching in school. 5. Promote proper social values on sex and responsibility of sexual relations. 1. Promotion of legal jobs that yield dignity and enough income for girls and young women, such as child care and elderly care. 2. Promote "social model" of living simple life and devalue of over-consumption. 3. Eliminate value of sexual relations with young girls, and of real men having to go to prostitutes. 4. Good sex education in schools and fostering social values for both boys and girls against prostitution and promiscuity 5. Cooperate with religious organizations for correction of misunderstanding of merits and ethical jobs. 6. Blood tests for HIV in pregnant women from high-risk groups. 7. Blood test for syphilis and HIV before marriage.</p>	<p>- Min. of Health - Min. of Education - Mass media - NGOs - Consumer protection - Religious Organizations</p>
<p>14. Venereal disease and AIDS are rising, particularly in prostitutes, service girls and women workers.</p> <p>15. Numbers of young girls with the HIV virus are rising rapidly: - age 10 - 14 is 5 times the male rate.</p>	<p>Reduction of V.D. and AIDS rate of infection by half.  - Eliminate child prostitution</p>	<p>- Diseases acquired from being prostitutes can be transmitted to children during pregnancy, e.g. syphilis, AIDS, etc.  - Child prostitution is seriously harmful to the victims, family and society.</p>		

Problem	Policy	Justification	Long - Term Measure	Responsible Organization
<p>- age 15 - 19 is twice the male rate.</p> <p>16. Smoking, drinking and the use of drugs is among women.</p>	<p>1. Prohibit selling of cigarettes, alcohol and drugs to children.</p> <p>2. Discourage smoking.</p>	<p>1. Cigarette, alcohol and drugs are health hazards causing chronic illness and disability.</p> <p>2. Costs of care for diseases occurring from cigarettes, alcohol and drug-addiction are tremendous.</p> <p>3. Alcohol and drugs cause accidents, violence and crime.</p>	<p>1. Declare "No Smoking" areas in public places, e.g. gov. offices, schools, theaters, libraries, etc.</p> <p>2. Establish "anti - smoking" and "anti - drugs" group in school.</p> <p>3. Improve counselling and guidance services in schools.</p> <p>4. Integrate mental health services into all government health services</p> <p>5. Drug addiction subject is taught in all schools and universities, as well as health hazards of smoking</p> <p>6. Campaign to promote social values against smoking and use of drugs.</p>	<p>- M.P.s and Parliament</p> <p>- Police</p> <p>- Alcohol and Beverage Sellers.</p> <p>- Min. of Health</p> <p>- Min. of Education</p> <p>- Gov. Off.</p> <p>- Mass - media</p> <p>- NGOs</p>
<p>17. Women workers in both agricultural and industrial labour force lack self confidence and potential for development.</p>	<p>1. Give equal opportunity for women to receive training on technology and management for their specific job.</p> <p>2. Support "union of women workers".</p> <p>3. Promote social acceptance of women's potential.</p>	<p>Training on technology and management increases women's self confidence and career development.</p>	<p>1. Organize meetings of women from different occupations for sharing of experiences and create networking.</p> <p>2. Create "women leader development" projects in all groups of industries.</p> <p>3. Coordination among organizations involved to avoid duplication of works and create continuous, systematic work in complete cycle (training --&gt; supportive/supervision--&gt; follow-up).</p> <p>4. Establish "joint committee" to be an advisory body in industry, composed</p>	<p>- Min. of Industry</p> <p>- Min. of Health</p> <p>- Min. of Science and Technology</p> <p>- Min. of Agriculture</p> <p>- NGOs</p>

<b>Problem</b>	<b>Policy</b>	<b>Justification</b>	<b>Long - Term Measure</b>	<b>Responsible Organization</b>
			of technical specialists, environmentalists, social workers and physicians.	

CHAPTER 5  
**WOMEN AND EDUCATION**

## CHAPTER 5

### WOMEN AND EDUCATION

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

##### 1.1 RATIONALE OF EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT FOR WOMEN

Development of quality human beings should be accorded top priority as they are an invaluable asset in national development. Women, representing half of the population, constitute an integral workforce contributing to the well-being of the country. They should then be equally developed through educational means which contribute to bring about people's potential, so that concerted efforts can be made towards national goals.

A study of the history of education in Thailand shows greater opportunities for boys, educational institutions being mostly wats or temples. Instruction was conducted by monks whose direct contact with women was prohibited according to religious beliefs. Instruction was aimed at literacy, dharma or morals and vocational skills. Most girls stayed at home and received training on housekeeping. Boys from the aristocracy and royal families were trained in the royal palace in order to assume civil service posts while girls studied arts, crafts, dramatic arts, housekeeping and etiquette.

It is only after formal and modern education was introduced that women gained greater access to education. Schools for women were restricted mostly to elitist groups. Educational policies and plans included in National Educational Schemes recognized the significance of education for women. However, curricula reflected conventional values resulting in women being taught stereotyped feminine courses.

Women enrolments increased considerably after the proclamation of compulsory education for boys and girls. However, issues concerning the development of education for women began to emerge e.g. illiteracy for female over 10 years of age was greater than for the corresponding male age group, females were under-represented in the labour force, access to certain level/type of education was not equal for both sexes.

It is then necessary to explore whether educational opportunities at various levels and for various types are equally provided to females or not. If not, is it a consequence of discriminating national policies or of malpractice of educational managers/administrators or practices based on conventional values and attitudes of the women themselves or educational managers, or some economic factors, etc.

##### 1.2 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

Education covers all forms of learning through various social institution e.g. families, formal and non-formal institutions, religions, the media, etc. In this study education is restricted to that performed by formal and non-formal institutions, from pre-primary to tertiary levels, including specific vocational education provided by certain institutions and government offices to recruit their own workforce.

Data presented here are of secondary sources. Comparisons of educational opportunities and choices made between the sexes will by analysed as far as information is available.

## **2. STATUS OF EDUCATIONAL PROVISIONS FOR WOMEN DEVELOPMENT AND FACTORS AFFECTING EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT FOR WOMEN**

### **2.1 LEVEL OF EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT OF THE FEMALE POPULATION.**

The population census survey of 1980 (Table 5-1) shows that in the population over 6 years of age women constitute 60 per cent of the illiterates. There are equal numbers of men and women, both in and out of metropolitan areas, who complete primary education. But at higher levels, for instance at the secondary level, women's representation ratio decreases considerably especially for those residing outside metropolitan areas i.e. 40 : 60 and 37 : 63. At the tertiary level, fewer women reach post-primary education except in teacher education where women outnumber men. Among the women themselves 86 per cent have only primary education and 87 per cent of the illiterates are those living outside metropolitan areas.

In addition, the national labour survey (round 1) for 1988 (Table 5-2) shows that among the workforce age 11 years and over, approximately three fourth of both sexes had only lower and upper primary education level i.e. 50 per cent and 20 per cent respectively. Discrepancy between educational attainment of the sexes rose at the secondary level i.e. 8.6 per cent and 5.1 per cent for the male and female population respectively.

**Table 5-1** Numbers and percentages of population over 6 years of age by sex and educational attainment for 1980

level of education	municipal				non-municipal				total			
	no.		%		no.		%		no.		%	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
uneducated	287,548	470,032	38	62	2,139,264	3,145,954	40	60	2,426,812	3,615,979	40	60
primary education	1,717,971	1,555,926	47	53	11,950,440	11,700,307	51	49	13,668,411	13,656,233	50	50
secondary education	928,320	722,610	56	44	1,204,059	695,390	63	37	2,132,379	1,418,000	60	40
general stream	(761,684)	(555,562)	58	42	(1,052,673)	(583,580)	64	36	(1,814,357)	(1,139,142)	61	39
vocational stream	(155,226)	(146,475)	51	49	(93,562)	(63,708)	59	41	(248,788)	(210,183)	54	46
teaching stream	(11,410)	(20,573)	36	64	(57,824)	42,102	55	45	(69,234)	(68,675)	50	50
higher education	269,067	242,885	53	47	189,340	140,320	57	43	458,407	383,205	54	46
general stream	(181,301)	(146,442)	55	45	(45,653)	(27,893)	62	38	(226,954)	(174,335)	57	43
vocational stream	(46,038)	(25,095)	65	35	(28,242)	(11,026)	72	28	(74,280)	(36,121)	67	33
teaching stream	(41,728)	(71,348)	37	63	(115,445)	(101,401)	53	47	(157,173)	(172,749)	48	52
others	17,434	2,694	87	13	56,889	2,646	96	4	74,323	5,340	93	7
not known	63,034	59,716	51	49	151,982	147,088	51	49	215,016	206,804	51	49
total	3,283,374	3,453,854	49	51	15,691,974	15,831,707	50	50	18,975,348	19,285,561	50	50

**Source :** Population and Housing Survey for 1980, National Statistical Office.

**Table 5-2** Numbers and percentages of population over 11 years of age for 1988 by sex and educational attainment

level of education	M		F		total		percentage	
	no. ( <sup>'000</sup> )	%	no. ( <sup>'000</sup> )	%	no. ( <sup>'000</sup> )	%	ratio M F	
uneducated	2,045.6	5.2	2,263.0	11.2	3,308.7	8.2	32 : 68	
less than primary education	919.6	4.5	1,032.1	5.1	1,947.7	4.8	47 : 53	
lower primary education	10,031.3	49.9	10,236.7	50.6	20,268.1	50.3	49 : 51	
upper primary education	4,117.8	20.5	3,849.8	19.0	7,967.7	19.8	52 : 48	
lower secondary education	1,731.5	8.6	1,037.9	5.1	2,769.5	6.9	63 : 37	
upper secondary education	584.3	2.9	399.1	2.0	983.4	2.4	59 : 41	
vocational education	675.9	3.4	496.9	2.5	1,172.9	2.9	58 : 42	
higher education								
academic stream	341.2	1.7	282.3	1.4	623.6	1.5	55 : 45	
higher professional stream	230.4	1.2	202.4	1.0	432.9	1.1	53 : 47	
teacher training education	314.5	1.6	342.8	1.7	657.8	1.6	48 : 52	
short vocational courses	6.2	.02	19.1	.1	25.3	0.1	25 : 75	
others	49.5	.3	11.0	.1	60.5	0.2	82 : 18	
not known	46.1	.2	31.6	.2	77.8	0.2	59 : 41	
<b>Total</b>	20,090.9	100.0	20,205.4	100.0	40,296.4	100.0		

**Source :** Report on Labour Force Survey over the Kingdom (round 1) February 1988, National Statistical Office

On illiteracy, Table 5.3 shows decreasing trends of illiteracy rate from 29.2 to 18.2 10.5 and 9.9 for the years 1960, 1970, 1980 and 1985. However, the ratio of women to men remains practically the same, i.e. 2 to 1.

**Table 5-3** Percentage of illiterates by sex

	Total	M	F
2503	29.2	19.4	39.0
2513	18.2	11.1	25.1
2523	10.5	6.9	13.8
2528	9.9	6.2	13.6

**Source :** Statistics on non-formal education: Summary 1988

## 2.2 EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY FOR WOMEN BY LEVEL AND TYPE OF EDUCATION.

This part attempts to compare participation rates by sex, level and type of education. Information on qualification of admission will be provided, if available, to specify opportunity between the sexes.

### 2.2.1 Pre-primary and primary education

Table 5-4 shows roughly equal participation rates for boys and girls at the pre-primary and primary education levels. It should be noted that primary education is compulsory and that only 30 per cent of the 3-5 age-group enjoy pre-primary schooling.

**Table 5-4** Numbers and percentages of pre-primary and primary students by sex for 1989.

Educational attainment	M		F		Total	
	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%
pre - primary						
public*	380,938	51	370,739	49	751,677	100
private	153,168	51	148,913	49	300,081	100
primary						
public*	2,808,089	52	2,639,894	48	5,447,983	100
private	340,428	51	323,600	49	664,028	100

**Source :** Office of the National Primary Education Commission and Statistics on Private Education.

\* Under the jurisdiction of The Office of the National Primary Education Commission which covers 90% of primary students.

### 2.2.2 Secondary education

#### a. Lower secondary education

Table 5-5 shows that in aggregate terms male students outnumber females by 6 per cent. However, if broken down by educational region, region 1 (central), Bangkok and region 8 (northern) have the least differential representation ratios whereas the seventh (lower northern) and the eleventh regions (northeastern) have the most differential ratios which is 10 per cent. (Table 5-6)

**Table 5-5** Numbers and percentages of secondary education students by sex 1988

level of education	M		F		Total	
	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%
level secondary education	647,029	53	574,195	47	1,221,244	100
public	573,449	53	505,291	47	1,078,740	100
private	73,580	52	68,904	48	142,484	100
upper secondary education	447,811	52	413,283	48	861,094	100
public	350,022	52	325,226	48	675,248	100
private	97,789	53	88,057	47	185,846	100

**Source :** Division of Educational Policy and Plan, NEC

For the transition rate, an average of 41 per cent of grade 6 graduates go on to secondary education. If broken down by sex, the transition rates are 44 and 38 per cent for males and females. Several research studies conclude that causes for low transition can be attributed to the financial status of the parents, the needs for domestic help, and to the parents indifference towards the importance of education. The discrepancy of the transition rate between the sexes may be due to parental values and attitudes which give preferential treatment to schooling for boys. This issue will be discussed later in more details.

**Table 5-6** Numbers and percentages of lower secondary education students under the Department of General Education by education regions and sex for 1988.

education regions	lower secondary education			
	no.		%	
	M	F	M	F
education region 1	40,917	38,740	51	49
education region 2	10,741	9,415	53	47
education region 3	52,908	45,822	54	46
education region 4	15,734	14,228	53	47
education region 5	34,720	30,062	54	46
education region 6	37,440	32,682	53	47
education region 7	48,065	40,007	55	45
education region 8	43,219	40,561	52	48
education region 9	48,889	41,039	54	46
education region 10	53,937	45,607	54	46
education region 11	56,157	46,400	55	45
education region 12	38,267	34,746	52	48
Total	480,994	419,309	53	47
Bangkok	87,611	79,296	52	48
Grand total	568,605	498,605	53	47

**Source :** Secondary Education Division, Department of General Education, MOE

#### **b. Upper secondary education**

On the whole the ratio of boys to girls is 52: 48. However, in general education the ratio is 49: 51 and the reverse is true for vocational education i.e. 58: 42 (Table 5-7)

**Table 5-7** Numbers and percentages of upper secondary education students (public and private) by course of study and sex for 1988.

	M		F	
	no.	%	no.	%
General education	255,692	49	271,374	51
Vocational education	192,119	58	141,909	42

**Table 5-8** Numbers and percentages of Vocational Certificate students by course of study, sex and department for 1988.

		public*		private	
		no.	%	no.	%
Industrial	M	90,000	96.8	49,384	98.9
	F	2,984	3.2	555	1.1
Commercial	M	5,045	11.2	21,222	23.5
	F	39,866	88.8	69,005	76.5
Agricultural	M	6,386	75.3	445	80.3
	F	2,099	24.7	109	19.7
Arts and crafts	M	3,321	59.4	4,077	77.8
	F	2,273	40.6	1,164	22.2
Home economic	M	402	3.5	-	-
	F	11,151	96.5	-	-

**Source :** Division of Planning, Department of Vocational Education and Statistics on private education for 1987-1988

\* Only the students attending public schools under the DVE

Table 5-8 shows that female students are highly represented in Home Economics and Commerce i.e. 97 and 89 per cent respectively. Male students are the vast majority in Industry and Agriculture both in public and private schools.

To sum up, it is obvious that women's educational opportunities at the secondary level are less than men's. Besides, there is a marked preference for both sexes in certain courses of study.

### 2.2.3 Tertiary education

Tertiary education covers that leading to a higher certificate/technical certificate/associate degree/bachelor degree and post-graduate degree as offered by both public and private higher education institutions under the Ministry of Universities (MOU), and departments within the Ministry of Education (MOE), e.g. Teacher Training, Vocational Education, Physical Education, Fine Arts, Rajamangala Institute of Technology (RIT) and the Private Education Commission (PEC).

Data on new entrants for 1988 in institutions under the Department of Vocational Education (DVE), RIT and PEC show that the proportion of female to male students is 53 : 47. However, an examination of enrolments by level and course of study shows equal preference and opportunity for both sexes.

**(1) Associate degree level** The ratio of female to male students is 46 : 54 for education at that level. If broken down by public and private sectors the ratios are 40 : 60 and 57 : 54 respectively. The figures show that women have fewer opportunities of access to public education institutions. Higher enrolments of females in Arts and Crafts and Commerce in private institutions show that public provision does not adequately meet female demand as equally as male in Industrial courses which may be attributed to the public institutional policy to provide more places in areas with a strong demand in the labour market. (Table 5.9)

**Table 5-9** Numbers and percentages of new entrants at the Higher Vocational Certificate level by course of study and sex

Course of study	Paw Vaw Saw*				Paw Vaw Taw*			
	no.		%		no.		%	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Industrial	18,843	534	97	3	3,758	4,331	46	54
Public	14,593	490	97	3	1,845	66	97	3
Private	4,250	44	99	1	1,913	4,265	31	69
Commercial/business	4,775	17,266	22	78	2,466	7,057	26	74
Public	2,170	8,168	21	79	851	2,805	23	77
Private	2,605	9,098	22	78	1,615	4,252	28	72
Agriculture	2,894	1,313	69	31	331	154	68	32
Public	2,739	1,285	68	32	312	145	68	32
Private	155	28	85	15	-	-	-	-
Arts & craft/Fine Arts	1,054	721	59	41	125	105	54	46
Public	1,046	513	67	33	125	105	54	46
Private	8	208	4	96	-	-	-	-
Home-economics	29	2,396	1	99	6	66	8	92
Public	29	2,396	1	99	6	66	8	92
Private	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	27,595	22,230	54	46	3,139	3,187	50	50
Public	20,577	12,852	62	38	3,547	8,526	29	71
Private	7,018	9,378	43	57	6,686	11,713	36	64

\* Paw Vaw Saw : admits students in the vocational education stream

\*\* Paw Vaw Taw : admits students in the general upper secondary education

The same pattern of preference is reflected at the higher vocational certificate level i.e. men tend to opt for industrial and agricultural courses while women flock to Home Economics and Commerce. The trend in enrolments is moving downwards. Data show the downward trend of women choosing Industry and Agriculture.

Teacher Training Colleges which offer courses in Education, Science and Liberal Arts have the ratio of male to female students 37 : 63, whereas the public and private universities offering courses at the associate degree level have the proportion of 84 : 16 for male and female students respectively.

**Table 5-10** New entrants for the Associate Degree in the Department of Teacher Training, MOE, and public and private higher educational institutions under MOU for 1988

	M		F	
	no.	%	no.	%
MOE Teacher Training Colleges	5,496	37	9,213	63
MOU public institutions	3,066	84	574	16
private institution	2,311	78	311	22

**Source :** Division of Planning, DTT and MUA

(2) **Degree level** In aggregate terms the ratios of women to men has increased from 46 : 54 to 49 : 51 to 52 : 48 and to 55 : 45 from 1985-1988. Courses that have a higher ratio of women attendance are : Business

**Table 5-11** Numbers and percentages of new entrants of Bachelor's programme by sex and organization year 1985 and 1988

Organization	1985				1988			
	no.		%		no.		%	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
M. of Education (MOE) Teacher Training colleges	2,039	4,348	32	68	10,207	30,166	25	75
RIT	1,538	919	62	38	1,653	1,091	60	40
M. of University (MOU) Public universities	76,320	60,561	56	44	72,265	69,594	51	49
Private universites	4,001	5,990	40	60	6,984	10,920	39	61
Total	83,898	71,818	54	46	91,109	111,771	45	55
	155,716				202,880			

**Source :** MOE and MOU

Administration, Accountancy and Commerce, Social Science, Public Welfare, Humanity, Liberal Arts, Archaeology, Home Economics, Education, Nursing and Health Science. The following are the courses where men outnumber women : Law, Political Science, Architecture, Engineering, Medicine, Veterinary Science, Forestry, Agriculture, Agricultural, Technology and Agricultural Promotion.

To gain a place in tertiary education one has to sit in a competitive entrance examination. Some faculties have a biased admission policy, for instance, Nursing accepts only females, Pre-clinic of the Faculty of Science and King Rama VI Medical College admit only men. Tables 5 and 7 give more information on specific requirements of certain faculties. It should be noted that Veterinary Science, Agricultural Economics, Cooperatives Economics, Industrial Economics, Textile, Industry, Chemical Industry, Forestry, Agricultural Education and Physical Education accept a higher proportion of male students which, to a certain degree, reflects that these courses suit men more than women. Kasetsart University is marked for its quota system in admission practices.

#### 2.2.4 Non-formal education

The Department of Non-formal Education (DNFE) is specifically established to offer non-formal education services to the public while some others provide non-formal education on a complementary basis, for instance the Department of Community Development (DCD), the Ministry of Interior, etc.

(1) The DNFE offers both continuing education and vocational training. Among the recipients in 1988 57 per cent were women. The type of programs with the largest enrolments of women and men are vocational training for adults and functional literacy, continuing education and functional literacy through distance learning methods respectively, (See table 5.12)

**Table 5-12** Numbers and percentages of participants by programme and sex for 1988.

Programme	M		F		Total	
	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%
functional literacy	23,526	44	30,532	56	54,058	100
continuing education (old curr.)	30,124	65	16,057	35	46,124	100
continuing education (new curr.)	105,555	57	79,622	43	185,177	100
- classroom	41,068	63	24,043	37	65,111	100
- distance learning	40,300	56	31,812	44	72,122	100
- self-study	24,187	50.4	23,767	49.6	47,954	100
functional literacy through distance teaching	13,830	55	11,336	45	25,166	100
vocational training	83,677	29	206,711	71	290,388	100
- classroom	27,942	28	72,468	72	100,410	100
- interest group	55,735	29	134,243	71	189,978	100

**Source :** Department of Non-formal Education statistics for 1988.

Within vocational training, Home Economics/General Vocational training, and Business are the most popular among female participants while Industry is for men. (Table 5-13)

**Table 5-13** Numbers and percentages of participants in vocational training by course and sex for 1988.

Course	M		F		Total	
	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%
industrial	17,037	95	953	5	17,990	100
home economics/general vocation	4,235	6	61,320	94	65,537	100
business	3,715	31	8,339	69	12,054	100
agriculture	1,136	76	346	24	1,482	100
others 1,189	36	1,528	46	3,347	100	
Total	27,942	28	72,468	72	100,410	100

(2) Department of Community Development (DCD). Since there is a division under the DCD taking charge of women development, specific vocational training programmes are organized i.e. Basic and Advanced Vocational Development and Promotion. Table 5-14 gives the number of courses and participants by programmes and areas of Training. On the average, 70,000-100,000 are trained annually.

**Table 5-14** Vocational development and promotion programmes for women by DCD for 1988 - 1989

area \ programme	2531		2532	
	Basic	Advanced	Basic	Advanced
	No. of courses/ No. of participants	No. of courses/ No. of participants	No. of courses/ No. of participants	No. of courses/ No. of participants
dressmaking	65/1,745	104/2,422	54/1,270	43/920
decorative arts	12/285	13/335	19/425	18/322
basket weaving	17/386	38/1,268	10/225 <sup>1</sup>	25/635 <sup>2</sup>
mat weaving	5/145	20/560	-	-
food preservation- nutrition	5/140	5/79	9/233	4/130
beautician	3/70	4/85	-	-
fabric weaving	24/640	78/1,029	23/544 <sup>2</sup>	41/1,026 <sup>2</sup>
dyeing	2/75	10/235	-	-
cottage industry	2/45	24/610	-	-
embroidery	2/40	2/35	-	-
cattle raising	12/270	4/70	10/235	4/65
crop planting	4/100	3/90	17/487	2/90
mattress making	-	1/20	1/15	2/45
rubber coagulation	-	-	1/3	-
Total	153/3,941	306/6,838	152/3,634	145/3,378

<sup>1</sup> includes mat weaving

<sup>2</sup> include fabric weaving and dyeing

<sup>3</sup> The number of participants is not available but the number of 80 households is given instead

**Source :** Division for Children and Women Development, DUC

(3) The Department of Industrial Promotion, Ministry of Industry. Several vocational training programmes are offered to the public by respective divisions e.g. the divisions of Industrial Service, Textile Industries, Thai Handicraft Promotion and Cottage Industries. Table 5-15 provides figures on numbers of participants by sex in various programmes women had a higher representation rate in Thai Handicraft Promotion, Cottage Industries and Textile Industries whereas men outnumbered women in programmes undertaken by the Division of Industrial Service.

**Table 5-15** Numbers of participants by programme and sex undertaken by the Department of Industrial Promotion for 1988

Division/programme	No.		
	M	F	Total
Div. of Industrial Service	962 (69%)	427 (31%)	1,389 (100%)
- vocational training and development	305	73	378
- seminar	170	85	255
- vocational training	418	254	672
- training/seminar/specific training	69	15	84
Div. of Textile Industries	391 (40%)	588 (60%)	979 (100%)
- construction of silk yarn handspun nozzle	391	-	391
- silk yarn hand spinning	-	523	523
- silk dyeing	-	18	18
- synthetic yarn mechanic weaving	-	47	47
Div. of Thai Handicraft Promotion	204 (17%)	987 (83%)	1,191 (100%)
Div. of Cottage Industries	3,077 (36%)	5,452 (64%)	8,529 (100%)
Total	4,634 (38%)	7,454 (62%)	12,088 (100%)

**Source :** DIP

(4) The Department of Welfare, Ministry of Interior.. Women Assistance and Hairdressing Agencies and the Vocational Training and Assistance Center under the Division of Occupational Assistance are offering specifically designed vocational training for women. (Table 5-16)

**Table 5-16** Numbers of women undertaking vocational training by organizing agency

agency	no.
Women Assistance Agency	15,750
Vocational Training and Assistance Center	2,918
Hairdressing Training Agency	348
Total	19,016

**Source :** Report on Research and Development on Vocational Education for Women in Thailand, p. 68

(5) The Department of Agricultural Promotion, Ministry of Agriculture undertakes training programmed related and agricultural courses for agriculturists' housewives. The courses focus on leadership, quality of life and development and vocational promotion for supplementary income. Among young agriculturist participants, 58 per cent are females. (Table 5-17)

**Table 5-17** Numbers of members of the agricultural household receiving agricultural promotion for 1989.

group category	no. group	no. member	sex			
			M		F	
			no.	%	no.	%
young agriculturalist	6,042	159,026	66,402	41.76	92,624	58.24
agriculturalists' wives	13,391	458,462	-	-	458,462	100.00
agriculturalist	4,000	500,000	500,000	100.00	-	-
Total	23,433	1,117,488	566,402	50.69	551,086	49.31

**Source :** Department of Agricultural Promotion

(6) Others, for instance, the National Institute for Skill Development, Department of Labour, Ministry of Interior, and DVE of the MOE, etc. also offer vocational training programmes for people out of the school system. Unfortunately, data by sex are not available. However, the Rehabilitation Agency for Girls of the Juvenile Court under the Ministry of Justice does provide short vocational courses on Home Economics, Art and Crafts, Music and Physical Education. The number of participants in 1988 reached 1,047.

In addition to the above mentioned departments, a large number of public agencies undertake specific training programmes for women focusing on health and hygiene, law, rights and equity, political participation and leadership, etc.

(7) There are also other private enterprises offering non - formal education for the general public and women group.

(7.1) Table 5-18 presents data on private institutions under the supervision of the Office of the Private Education Commission, MOE, which offers non-formal education.

Female participants prevail by 59 : 41 and 57 : 43 for 1987-1988. Under the vocational education category the number of females is considerably higher than that of males. It is anticipated that women outnumber men in courses like English and other languages, Typing and Dressmaking.

**Table 5-18** Numbers of male and female students in private institutions by type of activity and sex for 1987 - 1988.

Type of activity	1987			1988		
	M	F	Total	M	F	Total
Adult education	492	312	804	586	351	937
Ad - hoc programme	2,231	2,191	4,422	2,325	2,310	4,635
Religious education						
- Sikh	0	127	127	0	127	127
- Christian	84	82	166	83	93	176
- Moslem	34,038	31,616	65,654	35,699	33,549	69,248
- (General education)	(13,064)	(12,265)	(25,329)	(12,795)	(12,038)	(24,833)
Correspondence	1,665	1,234	2,899	1,637	1,708	3,345
Preparatory	10,693	9,024	19,717	10,403	8,676	19,079
Art education	10,601	13,076	23,677	8,981	11,940	20,921
Vocational education	50,304	100,512	150,816	80,621	125,822	206,443
Total	110,108	158,174	268,282	140,335	184,576	324,911
(%)	(41)	(59)	(100)	(43)	(57)	(100)

**Source :** Statistics on private education for 1987-1988, Office of the Private Education Commission.

**Note :** Of the total member of students undertaking Moslem studies 25, 329 and 24, 833 took general education in 1989 to 1988 respectively

- (7.2) Other private enterprises established in the forms of councils, associations, foundation, groups, etc. are likely to be women oriented. But surveys are needed to identify numbers of participants by group and area.

To sum up, non-formal education activities for women focus on functional literacy and vocational training in order to complement and supplement women's careers as well as to foster their morality and ethics, and to increase their social participation. It should be noted that training related to science and technology and innovation is minimal.

### 2.2.5 Specific vocational training

Specific vocational training is undertaken by certain agencies so as to recruit the manpower required. It can be classified into 4 groups i.e. Military and Police Corps, medical science personnel, technical staff, and others. The first and third only take in male students, the other two take both sexes.

(1) Military and Police Corps. This category includes the Chulachomkiao Armed Forces Academy, the Academies of the Air Force, the Navy and the Police Cadet.

(2) Medical science personnel. Courses are to produce a paramedical workforce in pharmacy, pathology, haematology, dentistry, community medicine, radiography, etc.

(3) Technical staff. Among specific institutions are the Schools of the Provincial Electricity Authorities, the Irrigation Department, the Railroad Engineering Department, the Telecommunications Department, etc.

(4) The "Other group" covers those that do not fall into any of the above categories, for instance, Schools of Forestry, Navigation, Meteorology, etc.

Longitudinal data reveals that a few of these institutions take in female students i.e. military and police nursing schools.

### 2.2.6 Access to knowledge and information

It is recognized that libraries are one of the important sources of knowledge and information. Therefore efforts are made to establish a good number of libraries at various levels e.g. national, provincial, district and sub-district, including reading centres at the village level. Unfortunately, services rendered are not recorded by sex. However, the DNFE has undertaken a study on library users by random sampling, 592 users from 3 regions. Findings reveal that men constitute 55 per cent of the users. The age range of the users is between 14 - 30 years old and most of them are practically students. Results of a study on users of village reading centres show almost the same pattern. The ratio of men to women users is 64 : 36 (Table 5-19)

**Table 5-19** Number of users of village reading centers by age-group and sex for 1988

age-group	M	F	Total
below 20	132	150	282
21-40	432	258	690
over 41	229	46	275
Total	793	454	1,247
%	(64)	(36)	(100)

**Source :** Follow-up study on the establishment of village reading centers for fiscal year 1988.

Female grouping as well as mixed grouping for specific purposes e.g. agricultural, marketing, cooperatives, etc. at whatever level is an efficient way to provide opportunities to women. Grouping is done according to levels of knowledge. So far, efforts for this kind of grouping have not been thoroughly explored. However, it is considered worthwhile to promote this informal process.

Learning through the media, an influential informal process, is gaining much recognition. It will be discussed in detail in a separate chapter.

## 3. FACTORS AFFECTING EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT FOR WOMEN

The foregoing analysis reveals discrepancy of educational opportunity between men and women as well as their attitudes towards their educational choices. This section attempts to explore factors that may have an effect on women's opportunities and choices, i.e. national educational policy, social beliefs and values.

### 3.1 POLICY ON EDUCATIONAL PROVISION FOR WOMEN

Dating back to the Sukhothai, Ayudhaya and early Rattanakosin periods, educational provision for women was of the one-to-one contact type. Those having educational opportunities tended to be the economically and socially better off e.g. daughter of the royal families and senior government officials. However, folk women were also trained by their ancestors. Contents of learning included liberal arts, home economics, household chores, care of the elderly of husbands.

In the reign of King Mongkut, Rama IV, educational provision for women was transformed into formal schooling after the advent of missionaries from the West. Foreign teachers were employed to conduct English language teaching for the kings' children. The arrival of the missionaries also affected educational provision for the people in general. Christian schools were established in Bangkok, Chantaburi and Petchburi. Later on, it was during the period of King Rama V that marked revolutionary changes took place, one of which was educational. The King perceived that education was an essential element in modernizing the country and in fighting against western imperialism. The following were schools for girls established by both the government and the westerners.

- 1871 An Industrial School for girls in Bangkok by American Missionaries
- 1873 Wang Lang Girls School, in Bangkok by Mrs. Hans, and American
- 1875 Dara School in Chiangmai by French Missionaries
- 1880 Sunanthalai School in Bangkok
- 1897 Saowapa School, in Bangkok

### **3.1.1 Policy for educational provision for women in National Schemes of Education**

The Education Project 1898, perceived as Thailand's first National Scheme of Education, was announced in the reign of King Rama V, a turning point from conventional to formal schooling. Forecast of new entrants of 30,000 by different types and levels was a part of the scheme. It should be noted that a clause concerning education for girls stated that "education for girls is to be provided along the lines of that for boys when the time is right... In addition, female teacher training is to be prepared". Therefore, it can be concluded that formal education for girls was hence recognized.

In the following National Schemes of Education 1902, 1913 and 1921 provisions were made for a separate curriculum for girls as well as increases and decreases in certain subject areas so as to suit women needs.

No matter how much recognition for the importance of education for women, implementation was not satisfactory. It was only after the announcement of the Primary Education Act 1921 that every boy and girl of the relevant age group had to attend compulsory education. Consequently, male and female enrolments rose considerably, from 19,819 in 1921 to 309,622 in 1931. The rate of increase for female students was much higher than that of male students. However, boys still outnumbered girls comprising 55 per cent of the total i.e. 169, 602.

It was in the National Scheme of Education 1932, introduced at the time of political changes from absolute to constitutional monarchy, that a policy statement on education was made stating that "women will enjoy equal educational rights but provision must be made to allow for partial difference in syllabus for men and women as women hold special burden naturally".

Later on, in the proclamation of the National Scheme of Education 1936 and those which came later until the current one of 1977, no policy statement discriminating education for men and women was included.

### **3.1.2 Policy on educational provision for women as contained in the Perspective and 5-Year Development Plans**

Not a single clause was mentioned with specific educational provisions for the female target population in the National 5-Year Educational Development Plans which are formulated and integrated concurrently with the 5-Year National Economic and Social Development Plans (NESDPs). However, the roles of women, in particular in family planning, were first recognized as noted in the Third 5-Year National Economic and Social Development Plan. The following Plan, which was influenced by the U.N. declaration of 1975 for the International year for Women, and of 1975-1984 as the decade for women, embodied a specific section embracing guidelines and measures for the development of women which reads:

"1. Provide continuing education as deemed necessary to rural women to enable them to participate in community activities, as well as to facilitate the development of women's capacity and accountability.

2. Provide education and training to women through non formal means so that both women and men have a right understanding concerning the principle of equality.”

In addition training programmes, target groups and financial outlays were developed; for instance, “the programme for the promotion and the development of youth and women, and its sub-programme, the development of rural women,” be implemented by the DCD.

Within the Fifth NESDP, under the social development section, women were included as special target groups. Policy guidelines embraced quality and skills development, the provision of nutritional and health education, and the extensive expansion of compulsory education and non-formal education focussing on foundation and vocational courses that suited indigenous communities, etc. Among the measures were the establishment of schools and the distribution of instructional materials and facilities to render equal access and opportunity to education and training for women both in the rural areas, urban slums and those in cities. Acquisition of knowledge and skills were promoted through local groupings, mass media and vocational non - formal education which focused on initiative taking, leadership, general knowledge and skills development, labour law, basic rights and duties of a citizen. In addition, a number of programmes emphasizing career development and income generating were undertaken by the DCD while other development programmes to be carried out by other respective agencies were separately grouped under other development headings.

To sum up, policies on education for women, which were designated as a special target group, as observed in the fourth and the fifth NESDPs pinpointed citizen's rights, and education and training to enable those in the rural and the urban slums to develop their vocations and to increase their income level.

The sixth NESDP did not raise the issue of women development as a special target group. This plan stressed the development of women capacity, especially those in backward areas and urban slums through improvement of educational provision, skills upgrading and moral, cultural and ethical training.

Above all, a long term perspective plan for women development (1982-2001) was formulated covering overall and specific policies of which the education sector was an integral part. Policy statements were; for instance, firstly, to speed up universalization of education for women in order that they be equipped with knowledge and basic skills which could provide them a better quality of life and enable them to be self-reliant, humanistic, and well informed wives and mothers. Secondly, to encourage social institutions to be the principal agents promoting social learning concerning the adjustment of social values and attitudes so as to facilitate women development. Thirdly to promote public non-formal education and recreation in various forms. Fourthly, to support Thai nuns' institutions to be social benefactors and to promote religious learning and practices, etc. Some of the measures were, firstly, to reorganize curriculum contents and illustrations of textbooks so that new concepts on women development be made known. Secondly, to improve the counselling system to make women realize their ability and take courses of study according to their interests and aptitudes, etc.

### **3.2 VALUES AND ATTITUDES AFFECTING THE DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION FOR WOMEN**

This section will deal with the effects of values and attitudes towards educational opportunity for women and their choices of courses of study.

#### **3.2.1 Educational opportunity for women**

When Thailand adopted a modernization policy, the provision of education for women and the recognition of their roles in development were reflected in the First Education Project and the subsequent National Schemes of Education. However, only a handful of women attended schools as school attendance depended on the parents' choices. It is only after the proclamation of compulsory education that the number primary school for girls rose considerably. This information substantiated conventional values and attitudes that education was not essential

for women as they ended up doing household chores and taking care of their husband and children apart from working in the fields. In metropolitan areas working women were regarded as members of low or proletariat classes. Thus, there was no incentive to acquire knowledge apart from that concerning domestic work.

Although girls and boys were equally enrolled at the compulsory level there were discrepancies in enrolments at the secondary level. The difference grew more significantly at the regional level, especially in the lower northern and northeastern regions, despite the state's policy on equal educational opportunity. Several studies identify family's economic status, needs for additional domestic labour and the likely incurred income, and conservative values and attitudes as causes of low female enrolments.

Surveys on parents' opinion conducted by a task force revealed that 70 per cent of parents both males and females would seek educational opportunities for boys rather than for girls if they had limited financial resources. Among women, the educated degree holders, agree with the concept of equal opportunity between sons and daughters more than the less educated with only secondary or primary education.

At the upper/tertiary level, the opportunity of women paired with that of men as most women attending secondary education tended to go on studying. Somehow values and attitudes did affect their choices of study which will be discussed in the next section.

### **3.2.2 Courses of study chosen by women**

Courses of study chosen by women reflected their roles in family and society and were substantiated in the earlier National Schemes of Education, as can be seen in the following quotations.

The Education Project 1898, the section on education for girls reads: "...Apart from offering the same courses as for the boys, girls are to study needlework and household chores..."

The Education Project 1908, states: "...subjects that are considered unnecessary for girls such as English, Mathematics are decreased at the elementary, primary and secondary levels. Added subjects are needlework, weaving, music, singing and cooking. For girls who want to do foreign languages, a special curriculum equivalent to those offered to boys is provided instead. The difference is that numerical ability subjects are reduced to a minimum while hygiene and feminine stereotyped subjects mentioned above are added.

The Education Project 1932, the year of the revolution clearly states the government's goal to extensively provide educational equality. However, the curriculum for girls was made partially different than that for boys on the belief that women by nature must bear special responsibilities.

Afterwards no official policy discriminating against the sexes was introduced. Somehow conventional beliefs and values still have an influence on educational choices made by women. It is noted that very few boys opt for home economics and more girls now enroll in medicine, dentistry, mass communications, etc. At present the number of working women is increasing due to economic and social factors, as well as to influences from the western ways of thinking. However, an analysis of university quota admission shows that selection is not based entirely on competitive examination but on sexes. This practice reflects that educational personnel and those in specific institutions still hold androcentric values and attitudes that some courses of study are not suitable for women.

## **4. ISSUES CONCERNING EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT FOR WOMEN, TRENDS ON DEVELOPMENT NEEDS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **4.1 PROBLEMS AND ISSUES RELATED TO EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT FOR WOMEN**

Based on the above analysis the following are remarks on problems concerning educational development for women.

4.1.1 The female population generally has a low education, half of the women having completed only primary education. Illiterate women represent 13.6 per cent, twice the rate for men.

4.1.2 The promotion rate to secondary education for girls is much lower than that for boys i.e. 38 and 44 per cent respectively. Among school-going females, those from the north and northeast have the least representation ratio.

4.1.3 Educational choices in vocational education and tertiary education reflect prescriptive values binding the roles of men and women. Female students tend to opt for commerce and home economics courses, business administration, accountancy, social science, humanities, liberal arts, education, nursing, etc. at the vocational and higher education levels respectively, whereas male students choose law, political science, architecture, engineering, medicine, veterinary science, forestry, agriculture, agricultural technology and promotion and industry. This phenomenon also applies to choices for short vocational training services offered by the DNFE. However, a slight change can be noticed showing that more women tend to enroll in medicine and political science. On the whole, men's choices are rather science and technology oriented while women's are social science and humanity biased.

4.1.4 The choices undertaken can be attributed to prescriptive values of both students and those operating educational services. On this point the following can be noted.

(1) Since the National Scheme of Education 1932 and the first National Education Development Plan, no policy statement has been made to pinpoint certain subject areas as suitable for males and females. Findings of several studies reveal that both students, male and female, and those responsible for educational provision are locked in conventional beliefs and attitudes.

(2) On instruction, the teaching force as well as the learning materials and supplementary readings are to be held responsible for the reproductive pattern of conventional practices as no attempts have been made to redress the situation and students are not encouraged to recognize their gender roles and their complementary aspects. General observations show that conventional roles are mentioned as examples in the instruction and the textbooks. Consequently women are not aware of their potentials, their contributing roles to the national social and economic development. In addition, the question should be raised as to what extent the introduction of a course on women studies, in certain public and private higher educational institutions, could contribute to building up in learners of both sexes the right understanding of various aspects of women's roles including that of manpower, essential to development.

4.1.5 Contrary to the macro educational policy that opens up educational opportunities without sex discrimination, restrictions on admissions are made against women in some higher education and specific institutions. Among the reasons given are the demand for male workforce and the incompatibility of female physiology, etc. which are linked to androcentric notions that certain professions and vocations suit only men e.g. engineers, governors, agriculturalists, etc.

4.1.6 Though efforts are clearly shown in NESDPs stressing education for women in general and those in special target groups such as those in the rural areas and urban slums, these directives of the NESDPs are often overlooked by respective agencies. The underlying reasons may be attributed to the failure to identify problems by sexes. That is why measures to tackle problems or to promote education for women are rarely specified. The example of the implementation of the literacy campaign project may illustrate the case. On the whole, the project output was evaluated as fairly satisfactory, although female illiterates were twice as many as men.

4.1.7 Projects on women development as carried out by concerning agencies should be continually monitored and evaluated to determine their relevancy to the recipients' needs and to enhance their efficiency.

## **4.2 TRENDS ON DEVELOPMENT NEEDS**

In view of the rapid economic and social changes experienced in the last decade there is a need to provide education for the development of women as full human beings and as part of the human resources of the country so that they can achieve a better quality of life and actively participate, as well as men, in social, economic and political development.

The followings are educational development needs of women:

4.2.1 The female population must be literate and be able to survive and lead a better life in the upcoming information society.

4.2.2 The female population should have access to post-primary education to get prepared for work.

4.2.3 The female population already in workforce should be retrained with specific emphasis on marketing, management, utilization of appropriate technology, etc.

4.2.4 Working women should be prepared to adjust themselves, know their roles and, accordingly, perform effectively.

4.2.5 Social institutions, education included, should act as a socialization process to change women's perception concerning roles of men and women so that they have a wider perspective regarding vocations, in the context of on-going economic structural changes.

4.2.6 Women should recognize the significance of acquiring scientific and technological knowledge as well as be aware of the positive benefits of information. In so doing they must know sources and accessibility of knowledge and information and must be able to distinguish pieces of information that are useful for their community, their careers and the life quality.

## **4.3 POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS**

The recommendations are as follows:

4.3.1 Resolve illiteracy among women within the period of this perspective plan.

4.3.2 Provide at least 9-year basic education or lower secondary education to every female of the school going age group.

4.3.3 Revise curriculum and instruction, teaching methodology, textbooks, supplementary readings in order that 1) learners both boys and girls grasp their roles in this changing society without clinging to traditional stereotyped roles, 2) both male and female learners be able to analyse and perform their roles as well as to supplement each other from the family unit to larger social institutional levels, 3) encourage female learners to recognize their potential for further development, and 4) instill in female learners broader views in pursuing numerous careers keeping abreast of future needs of the society.

4.3.4 Encourage and support women to take courses in or be inquisitive about science and technology, as well as to practice the use of technology as deemed appropriate.

4.3.5 Encourage and support women to have access to learning centres and be able to make use of acquired information for self development and for their careers.

4.3.6 Expand academic services and training, especially in areas concerned with rights and responsibilities of women and relevant laws.

4.3.7 Extensively provide vocational training for women, especially those ranked among top priorities such as rural women in the agricultural sector unskilled female labours, female migrants and slum dwellers.

4.3.8 Lift up restrictions on university admission based on sexes and encourage specific educational institutions to give equal chances to women.

SUMMARY TABLE : PERSPECTIVE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMME FOR WOMEN

Problem Identification	Policy Recommendation	Justification	Measure	Agency
1. Illiteracy rate among women is at 13.6 per cent which is twice as much as that of men	- Promote literacy among women (men as well) and enable them to maintain it.	- For a better quality of life of women as well as that of men. - need to survive and adapt to changes in an information society.	- Nationwide survey on number of illiterate women. - Campaign for literacy adopting special means or devising additional strategies to promote literacy among women. - Continually provide education and training to eradicate illiteracy and to retain literacy attainment - Systematically monitor and follow-up educational programmes combating illiteracy.	- Ministry of Education - Educational institutions and others concerned in the provinces - Non-governmental organizations
2. - Female receive relatively low education. Half reach only lower secondary education. - Transition rate (p6/M1 or grades 6/7) of female students is lower than that of males.	- Increase educational attainment level of every female to 9 years.	- Primary education knowledge is insufficient in a fast changing society. - Educational attainment lays a positive base for further development.	- Raise awareness on the importance and benefits of pursuing secondary education, and change the public's attitudes on women education through campaigns and public relations. - Extensively expand secondary education in the provinces to make it more accessible to the masses and facilitate attendance - Revise curriculum and instruction to achieve flexibility to meet individual learners' differences and needs - Lend support by various means e.g. exemption of fees, granting scholarships and textbooks, etc. to the disadvantaged, women included, so that they gain - Extend several forms of non-formal education services through various delivery systems and	- MOE - Related agencies in the provinces - NGOs
3. Women have relatively low education; only half	- Encourage and support over school-age women and	- The upgrading of women's education leads to higher		- MOE - Related public and private agencies

<b>Problem Identification</b>	<b>Policy Recommendation</b>	<b>Justification</b>	<b>Measure</b>	<b>Agency</b>
<p>of them finish primary education.</p>	<p>those out-to-school to have an opportunity to further their education.</p>	<p>rewarding careers and their well-being.</p>	<p>thus facilitate the learning of out-of-school women.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Raise awareness among out-of-school women on the benefits of education, the acquisition of knowledge and the pursuance of further education.</li> <li>- Revise contents of the curriculum so that they correspond and meet with the public's way of living.</li> <li>- Encourage vocational training institutions to take in more female students.</li> <li>- Encourage public and private institutions providing non-formal vocational training to expand their provisions to women.</li> <li>- Disseminate news and information concerning available vocations to women so that they have broader views on job opportunities.</li> <li>- Develop and effective vocational guidance system to give advice to students.</li> <li>- Extend services on science and technology as their appropriate use to both men and women so that they can work more effectively.</li> <li>- Enterprises, in particular industrial ones, should give equal opportunity to women in the use of technology.</li> <li>- Both public and private organizations should join forces to bring about recognition of science and technology among women.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- MOE</li> <li>- Related public and private agencies</li> <li>- Mass media</li> </ul>
<p>4. Both formal and non-formal vocational education provisions offered to and selected by women reflect ascriptive female roles which is due to attitudes of educational managers and/or women.</p>	<p>- Promote and support women to study or take more diversified vocational training courses.</p>	<p>- Socio-economic changes bring about diversified vocations. The development of dynamism in women will open up their opportunity to take more active roles in national development.</p>	<p>- Science and technology have been making much progress. Women should recognize the benefits of having the relevant knowledge as it constitutes a sound base in both agricultural and industrial occupations.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Public and private agencies</li> <li>- Enterprises</li> </ul>
<p>5. Women either have little opportunity or interest in taking up scientific and technological studies and making use of appropriate technology in their career performance.</p>	<p>- Spur up interest in science and technology among women and provide them equal opportunity of access to knowledge and training on the use of appropriate technology for work and daily living.</p>	<p>- Science and technology have been making much progress. Women should recognize the benefits of having the relevant knowledge as it constitutes a sound base in both agricultural and industrial occupations.</p>	<p>- Science and technology have been making much progress. Women should recognize the benefits of having the relevant knowledge as it constitutes a sound base in both agricultural and industrial occupations.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Public and private agencies</li> <li>- Enterprises</li> </ul>

Problem Identification	Policy Recommendation	Justification	Measure	Agency
<p>6. Most women, especially those with low education, residing in rural areas, and those working in enterprises lack basic knowledge about their rights, duties and the law.</p>	<p>- Extend educational services and disseminate knowledge about basic laws and duties of Thai citizens to women.</p>	<p>- The lack of basic knowledge puts women in a disadvantaged position.</p>	<p>- Publicize in easily understood words law, citizens' rights and duties as well as disseminate them to women and educate them through various means.            - Render training on law, citizens' rights and duties to female target groups in various forms and modes.            - Disseminate information on obligatory law and duties through women's groups especially those in the rural areas and in labour unions.</p>	<p>- Committee on the Promotion and Development of women (CPDW)            - Public and private organizations            - Mass media</p>
<p>7. Women tend to have low interest in acquiring information and they under-utilize information centers.</p>	<p>- Encourage women to search for relevant knowledge and information and to be prepared to make use of it in their work and self-development.</p>	<p>- Continuing education could enable women to make use of information for self-development, the betterment of themselves and their families' quality of life, as well as to adapt themselves favourably in this information age.</p>	<p>- Public and private organizations should distribute relevant information to women by various means, e.g. radio, television, newspapers, publications and distance learning modes.            - Encourage the acquisition of information among women through women groups or learning from experiences of other communities.</p>	<p>- CPDW            - NGOs            - Public organizations</p>
<p>8. - Textbooks and supplementary reading materials reiterate prevailing attitudes of ascriptive male-female roles.            - School instruction does not attempt to promote in men and women analytical thinking towards their own roles</p>	<p>- Retrain teachers and revise curriculum and instruction (textbooks, supplementary readings and teaching/learning methods) in order that            1) both male and female students recognize their roles and potential in the changing society.</p>	<p>- To build up a right understanding of male and female potential roles in a dynamic society.            - To enable men and women to analyze their complementary roles both at the family and national levels.</p>	<p>- Study values and attitudes of men and women in the curriculum, textbooks, supplementary readings and instruction to determine present conditions of women education and to work out solutions.            - Support the production and publication of supplementary readings that help the public and learners to form the right concept towards roles of men and women.            - Develop teaching manuals and train teachers so</p>	<p>- MOE            - CPDW</p>

Problem Identification	Policy Recommendation	Justification	Measure	Agency
<p>that can mutually complement each other.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- School instruction does not bring about women's awareness of their own potential for development.</li> </ul> <p>9. Women have limited access to certain fields of study ; faculties and specific institutions which aim at recruiting their own workforce.</p>	<p>2) they are able to rightly analyze their future roles and</p> <p>3) female students recognize the significance of self - development.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Lift up restrictions on female admission in public higher education institutions and encourage specific institutions that take in entrants according to their manpower requirements to open up access to women.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- To wipe out sex discrimination in admission so that men and women have equal opportunity of access to higher education and specialized institutions.</li> </ul>	<p>that they have the right understanding about male and female roles and are able to transmit them well in the teaching/learning process.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Campaign by various means and forms to change attitudes of personnel involved in educational provision, men in particular, so that they recognize the potential of women and that roles of women should change in correspondence with socio-economic changes.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- MOU and universities</li> <li>- Organizations and departments charged with specialized vocational education.</li> </ul>

CHAPTER 6  
**WOMEN AND EMPLOYMENT**

## CHAPTER 6

### WOMEN AND EMPLOYMENT

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

##### 1.1 SIGNIFICANCE OF WOMEN EMPLOYMENT

Almost 70 per cent of the Thai women of working age are now in the labour market. They represent 40 per cent of the total work force. This percentage is considerably high when compared to that of many other countries. Such notable statistics are attributed to economic necessity, needs for independence as well as motives to make use of knowledge and education, where women, no less than men enjoy equal rights and competence. Moreover there is also the fact that they are able to find caretakers for children and household. Therefore, considering economic and social costs and benefits, a large number of Thai women opt for outside work while some others are obliged to help out with the family business without being paid.

The ever changing economic and social environment forces women to earn income to support their family. Statistics indicate decreases in number and ratios of women working at home. Migrating women workers tend to increase in the wake of the country's impressive record in industrial development. There is today the highest ever expansion in manufacturing and promotion of investment. Industries that basically employ women workers are, for instance, weaving, textiles, gems and electronic component industries, all of which earn the country a tremendous income. Women workers are also found in the commerce and service sector. One can predict that women workers will continue to increase in numbers while women as employer status and self-employed will remain relatively low.

True, women work more than ever and they are capable of earning some income to benefit the family and the nation's economy. However of there are several consequences that must be considered. Women's occupations should be carefully examined in order to promote them to full potential and to strengthen their opportunity to participate in economic and social development in a meaningful way.

##### 1.2 RELATED PROBLEMS AND CONSEQUENCES

A high increase of population and of the labour force, along with the lack of direction in the education administration and development of human resources, as well as an inadequacy of information and knowledge, have resulted in unplanned entry into the labour market of women workers. Many women workers are found to engage in a hazardous type of work or in work that tarnish their pride, reputation and morality. Some women end up in kinds of jobs that provide neither security nor future such as household maid, door-to-door salesperson and bus conductor, or even public cleaner, to name just a few.

Women entrepreneurs, civil servants and public enterprise employees seem to encounter less problems than those employed in industry who suffer from work-related problems on the basis of their womanhood. For instance, the latter receive lower pay than men for the same type of work or for work with equal value, enjoy less opportunity for advancement, are more likely to be laid off during economic slowdowns not to mention working conditions and safety problems. And, above all, they have the dual responsibility of working and of domestic chores.

Those directly affected by working are girls or women at a younger age. Some times they have to start working to earn income at such an early age of less 13 years, or between 13 to 15 years. There seems to be little

choice for the girls but to accept low-paid job which, more often than not, are accompanied by hazardous working conditions and exploitation. These working girls are not growing properly, in terms of physical, social, emotional and psychological development. How can we expect girls of improper development to be the nation's valuable resources in the future ?

By the same token, at the other end, older women workers reach mandatory retirement at a younger age, with the exception of government's civil servants who enjoy the same retirement age as men. Some public enterprises are well-known for such discrimination regarding age which is contradictory to the fact that women tend to live longer than men.

Such problems and issues, needs to be considered from the human rights and social justice point of view and adequate solutions must be carefully worked out.

### **1.3 OBJECTIVES AND SCOPE OF THE STUDY**

This study of women and employment aims to propose possible policies and measures to promote women's employment by seeking to provide opportunities to develop potential, alleviate and eliminate discrimination of all types and promote better understanding in the society towards working women. The study begins with a profile of working women in various occupations. Problems and factors affecting women employment will also be discussed, followed by identification of future trends of women's occupation. The study ends with recommendations on policies and measures in order of priority of significance.

## **2. WOMEN AND EMPLOYMENT**

### **2.1 PROFILE OF WOMEN IN LABOUR FORCE**

The women population increases by approximately 0.5 million per year. In 1989 13.39 million women or 48.69 per cent of the total women population of 27.50 million were in the labour force. According to the 1989 statistics, 85.33 per cent or 11.43 million women were reportedly working while 7.06 per cent or 0.95 million women were unemployed. The number of working women is increasing at 5.37 per cent annually. Changes in the number of jobless women depends on economic and social situations and other related factors. Compared to their male counterparts in the labour market, the percentage of jobless women is relatively higher (7.06: 4.96). The number of women not in the labour market due to their involvement in household work was also much higher. (46.91: 2.59). (Table 6-11)

The majority of the women in the labour force (31.31 per cent) are in the 15-24 years age group. This figure is slightly different from that for their male counterparts: 31.94 per cent of the labour force is in the 20-29 age group. The number of people in the labour force for both sexes is highest in the 20-24 age group. However the labour force in the 15-19 age group comprises more women than men, 15.13 per cent of women as compared to 13.77 per cent of men is in this age group. Women over 60 years of age constitute 3.51 per cent of the total female labour force. This figure is lower than that for male workers, the ratio being 0.6: 1 (Table 6-2) More than half of women labour force (52.04 per cent) have completed only primary education. (Table 6-3)

The agricultural sector absorbs more than half of the women in the labour force (56.66 per cent), while 14.66 per cent work in trade and commerce. Women workers who are in technical, unskilled jobs and in manufacturing constitute 14.57 per cent of the total. Men job holders are also mostly found in the agricultural sector (57.26 per cent) and 18.13 per cent are in manufacturing while only 7.7 per cent are in trade and commerce. A small number of men perform clerical work : statistics also indicate that a small number of women in transport and communications.

Table 6-5 indicates that job holders of both sexes in the agricultural sector and unskilled work in the manufacturing industry earn a small income of 750-2,500 baht per month. In general men tend to earn more income than women for the same type of work. Women in administrative, executive and managerial work earn the highest income of 4,001-8,000 bath per month. Women constitute the only 25.63 per cent of job holders in high the income range of more than 20,001 baht per month. It is also clear that there are fewer women in the higher income group.

As to job status, 74.69 per cent of women in professional and academic fields are government employees. Those in agriculture, transport and communications are more likely to be unpaid family workers, self-employed and private employees. More men enjoy employer status, roughly 3.6 times about 1.9 times more than men.

The number of women in the government sector is almost twice that of men (1.8: 1), of which 58.4 per cent are in professional and academic fields and 24.76 per cent in clerical work. The number of women who are self-employed is 2.3 times less than that of men. Self-employed women are found in agriculture, fishery, hunting and mining and quarrying, which all of which except agriculture are considered to be predominantly men's occupations.

There is not much change in women's occupations by industry during the five-year period of 1985-2989. The highest percentage of women (56.70) is in the agricultural sector, followed by 14.14 per cent and 13.65 per cent in commerce and the services respectively. 13.44 per cent of women are employed in handicraft industries while 13.64 per cent of them are in services. Men are also following the same pattern, except that only 9.84 per cent are in the services

The majority of women job-holders are of Northeastern origin although there are some from the Central, Northern, Southern regions and the Bangkok Metropolis. Women employers account for 11.50 per cent of all working women and are mostly in Bangkok Metropolis. Still, this number accounts for only a quarter of the men in the same area and adds up to nearly one-third (1: 2.8) in all regions. The percentage of women helping out in family businesses also differs significantly for the Northeastern region and the Bangkok Metropolis: 53.99 and 13.52 per cent respectively. Self-employed women are in the Northeast rather than in the Bangkok Metropolis. Self-employed men, on the contrary, are more likely to be in the Northern and Northeastern regions. (Table 6-8)

The 1989 statistics indicate that 27.62 per cent of women work 40-49 hours per week, a figure which is according to the number of working hours stated in the labour law. Around 26.90 per cent work 50-59 hours per week. It is obvious that as many as 12.37 per cent of women are working up to 70-79 hours, presumably in agricultural work for which there is no stated specific working time.

To sum up, the Thai women's participation in the labour force is real. The degree of participation would be higher if women engaged in household work were accounted for, a type of work, which, in fact, has an economic value. Unemployment among women, as well as working for family without being paid, is apparently more common.

Women worker's income is considerably lower than men's and the number of women receiving high incomes is lower. There are also not many women of employer status. Generally speaking, without taking into consideration many other data related to planning and promotion of women's employment, women are far more inferior to men in all aspects of employment opportunities, income and work status.

## **2.2 WORKING WOMEN BY ECONOMIC SECTORS**

This Section examines women in public, private and informal sectors in terms of relative numbers, nature of work, income and background so as to serve as a basis to identify problem issues in the forthcoming section. "Women in the public sector" in this context refers to working women in government services and public enterprises while those who are in "private sector" refers to working women in agriculture, industry, commerce and services as well as those in the informal sector where undertakings are rather small or not protected by labour laws. This may

also refer to women who are self-employed, having small amounts of income such as street vendors, peddlers. Household maids or domestic servants are also accounted as workers in the informal sector.

### 2.2.1 Women in the Public Sector

According to the 1985 statistics, there are some 1,780,385 government employees of both permanent and temporary types of employment. Out of 716,181 government officers, women number 390,019. (Table 6-10). The Latest statistics of 1985 also reveal a number of 214,373 employees in public enterprises, 30 per cent of whom are women.

The number of female government officers increases annually and in higher percentages as compared to men's. This may be due to the fact that the government allows all ministries to select suitable candidates without regard to sex and women are more capable than men in according to specified criteria. Also the chances of women being discharged from the service for misconduct are lower. In addition, men are more likely to seek positions in the private sector.

Ministry of Public Health ranks first as for the highest number of women employed, the ratio being 100 women per 38 men or 100 : 38, followed by the Ministry of Universities the Ministry of Justice and the Ministry of Education with the ratio of 100: 54, 100: 67 and 100: 73 respectively. The average ratio of female government officers to their male counterparts is 100: 84. (Table 6-11)

The three government agencies at the department level with the highest number of women officers are Mahidol University, where the ratio of women to men is 100 : 24, the Department of Medical Services, and the office of the Permanent Secretary for Public Health with a ratio of 100 : 26 and 100 : 34 respectively. At the other end, the three agencies with the lowest number of women officers are the Department of Agriculture Extension, the Department of Local Administration and the Department of Lands, with ratios of 100 : 300, 100 : 217 and 100 : 204 respectively. Table 6-11 also shows that most women government officers engage in academic and professional types of jobs, for instance, elementary and secondary school teachers, university lecturers, nurses, sanitary officers, finance and accounting officers, researchers and other supporting services or facilitating services positions.

In 1985 there were 15,233 government officers at the C.7 level upward, and 4,632 or 30.6 per cent were female. The ministry with the highest number of C.7 or higher is the Ministry of Universities (45 per cent), followed by the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Science and Technology with equal percentages of 35 per cent. At the opposite end, the Ministry of Interior has only 5 per cent of female officers at that level, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Ministry of Transportation and Communications are also among the government agencies with the least number of high level female officers with a percentage of 6 and 7 per cent respectively. Therefore, women's opportunities for advancement seem to be limited to professional and academic fields rather than administration (Table 6-12)

Female officers at the administrative level account for only 30.6 per cent out of 15,233 positions. The office of the Civil Service Commission reports a ratio of 1 to 26 between female and male government officers at the administrative level (high level academics not included). The 1985 report of the National Statistical Office also reveals a declining ratio between male and female officers at the administrative level in the decade of 1974-1985. The ratio was found to be gradually declining from 7.5: 1 to 2.4: 1 which implies more opportunities for advancement for female officers, though numbers are still far behind that of their male counterparts. (Table 6-13)

Most female officers receive moderate to high education. In terms of family background, their parents are civil servants and willing to have their children follow suit out of the belief that to be a civil servant is prestigious. In addition, female government officers are from well-to-do backgrounds, therefore they do not seem to worry about small incomes from government service. However, for those from the lower income group, working for government means job security, and good fringe benefits. The brain drain phenomenon is more prevalent among male civil servants.

Limited information on female public enterprise employees makes it difficult to draw a profile of an analysis. Additional data for this study were derived from questionnaires specifically designed for this purpose, and mailed to 63 public enterprises, of which 52 were returned. Out of 251,585 public enterprise employees, 59,776 or 23.76 per cent are women. The number of women in public enterprises contrasts sharply with that of those in the government service. This may be caused by the selection system where applications for government service positions are opened to the public of both sexes. In the case of public enterprises, the recruiting process much more on the management of individual enterprises. Management in some public enterprises may still adheres to outdated values that men are more capable than women.

Women in public enterprises are from backgrounds similar to those of the women in the government service. They are from well-to-do families with moderate to high education. The motives to join public enterprises rather than the government service are better salaries and fringe benefits as well as some privileges which are not available in the government service.

## **2.2.2 Women in the Private Sector**

### **2.2.2.1 Women in Agriculture**

A survey of female and male job holders in 1989 shows a total number of 10,296,800 males or 52.61 per cent and 9,279,700 females or 47.33 per cent in the agricultural sector. Agricultural workers, 38.20 per cent, are found in the Northeastern area more than in the Northern and Central regions. The declining in the percentage of women in agriculture from 87.16 per cent in 1960 to 57.5 per cent in 1989 indicates that a notable portion of female rural workers had migrated into urban areas and enrolled in the industrial sector.

The agricultural sector in Thailand is the largest labour market for women workers. These workers participate in the family's agricultural activities, working on the farm, through which they are the principal contributors to the family's subsistence level of production while not being paid.

Women in rural areas receive less education than men. There is no reliable data on women's income. Many government agencies attempted to help upgrade rural women's income by offering various skill training. In the past years, there has been efforts to persuade rural women workers engage into industry or handicraft works, this has not been quite successful because it is so time consuming and it appears to depend much on markets as well as provide low profit margins.

Women in the agricultural sector are from low income groups with little education and are strongly bound to their origin of family, parents, children and relatives as well as to their owned land and other physical environments. Therefore migration in seeking work elsewhere is unlikely to occur.

### **2.2.2.2 Women in Industry**

"Industry" in this context means non-agricultural activities which do not belong to the public sector of the government service or to public enterprises. Industry here includes handicraft industries commerce, construction, transport and services. The manufacturing industry absorbs approximately 40 per cent of the total women workforce while commerce and the service sector employ more women than men. Women in commerce and service sectors are, more often than not, young migrants from rural areas who are single and are in the 15-24 age range.

Nearly 60 per cent of women migrants in Bangkok are below 25 years of age. If not enrolled in the informal sector as domestic helpers or street vendors, these women workers enter various types of industries, such as textiles, fabrics, shoes-manufacturing and processed foods. In the service sector, women are typically found in food outlets as restaurants, in golf courses, sports fields, gas stations, and as bus conductors, not to mention another group of these workers who end up in the sex business, be it voluntarily or not.

Women in the manufacturing industry are typically young migrants from other provinces. Studies on migration indicate that 11.71 per cent of women of 13 years of age upward migrate. Women in the

Northeastern region are most likely to migrate, with the highest percentage of 28.09. Migration is also prevalent among women in the Central and Northern regions with percentages of 23.74 and 21.04 respectively (Table 6-16). In addition, most migrants formerly lived in non-municipal areas.

Women workers employed in the industrial sector are most likely to suffer from work-related problems. Problems range from insufficient income, poor working conditions, health and hygiene and many others to be elaborated in topics related to women's problems in the industrial sector.

### **2.2.3 Women in the Informal Sector**

The informal sector applies to work-settings that are not covered by the labour law, offer less income, or settings which employ less than 10 workers, with irregular working hours and temporary employment. The informal sector usually includes settings with small investment, of family-type management and not using high technology or expensive machinery. Self-employed people and home workers are also included in the informal sector.

Typical workers in the informal sector are from underprivileged classes who live in congested areas with little education and no work skills. They are poor urban people or rural migrants who are not able to seek better employment but end up working in the informal sector enduring temporary employment and uncertain work hours. The number of workers in the informal sector cannot be determined.

Research by Dr. Chirayu and staff in 1982 shows that 91.9 per cent of the labour force living in congested areas in Bangkok work in the informal sector. Nearly half of these (49.2 per cent) are women who earn a living by street vending, peddling or working in smaller factories and other services. Men go for unskilled jobs or manual works, door-to-door selling and private sector employment.

In Bangkok Metropolis, as reported by Dr. Prachum and Staff in 1980 there were approximately 16,000 vendors (which may be doubled by now). Sixty-six per cent of vendors are women of 16-40 years of age of whom 60 per cent are married. Vendors always encounter problems related to location, investment and safety. The Thai Farmers Bank estimated in 1989 that there were approximately 340,000 female street vendors, stalls and peddlars. Male street vendors numbered 86,000.

Another kind of job in the informal sector that should be mentioned is domestic helper, maids or caretakers of which 90 per cent are women and may add up to millions. Women in the informal sector also engage in tourist related trades such as selling souvenirs, and also sex services. There are as many as 22.50 20.59 and 52.29 per cent of the women in the agricultural sector, production processes or crafts, and commerce respectively who are self-employed.

That workers in the informal sectors prove to be a cause for concern is shown by the recent human resource development plans at the national level that give more importance than before to workers in the informal sector. This is a reflection of the government's understanding and appreciation to the informal sector which absorbs a large number of workers, most of whom are women. In fact, it is regrettable that, while this sector produces substantial annual income for the nation, workers in this sector have long been deprived of concern and protection.

## **2.3 PROBLEM ENCOUNTERED BY WORKING WOMEN**

### **2.3.1 Women in the Public Sector**

Women in the public sector, either in government service or public enterprises are in far more advantageous positions concerning discrimination, since the same criteria for salary scales are applied to them as those used for men. On the average, public enterprise employees enjoy an approximately 20 per cent higher level of salary than government officers, not to mention annual bonuses and other extra cash benefits which vary according to each individual public enterprise. For instance, employees of the Electricity Generating Authority of Thailand receive

special waive of electricity bills. Most female government officers rely solely on their basic salary so that many of them have to seek supplementary income from extra work in various forms. Some government officers have to borrow from financial institutions such as commercial banks or cooperatives or have to resort to borrowing from their colleagues. High debts tend to be one of the prominent problems among female government officers.

Government officers receive up to 58 types of benefits both in cash and in kind. Out of these 58 types of benefits, the four most common are children allowances, children's tuition fees, medical expenses and cost of living allowances. Fringe benefits that are pertinent to government officers' needs are rent, medical expenses, children's tuition fees, housing arrangement, loans, reward for outstanding performance and life insurance in case of hazardous work. In general, female officers seek reimbursements for medical expenses, savings and children's tuition. About 30 per cent of female officers report to be satisfied with fringe benefits provided. Public enterprise employees enjoy far better salaries and fringe benefits.

Although the women in this group have the least problems due to their womanhood they experience the following problems:-

### **1. Employment Opportunity**

The Civil Servant Code of 1975 states that to be eligible to apply for a government position, a person must be of Thai nationality with at least 18 years of age and hold democratic. The principle selection of government officers is carried out by written examination for which, during the past 5 years, more women have passed. Practically, there has been some regulations prohibiting women from some certain positions such as governor, chief district officer, deputy chief district officer which is not the case in other local administration positions where discrimination against women does not occur such as district revenue officers, district excise officer, provincial revenue officer, provincial excise officer, provincial commerce officer, provincial labour officer, and provincial public welfare officer, to name just a few. So far, there has been no report of difficulty out of being a woman in carrying out such duty.

In public enterprises, women seem to receive less employment opportunities because of the nature of the work, For instance, at Electricity Authority, Water works, State Railways of Thailand and Off-Shore Mining Authority, there are types of jobs requiring technical and engineering backgrounds for which a limited number of women are available. For types of work which are not appropriate for women's physical attributes, there are notifications of the Ministry of Interior prohibiting women from works such as working on a higher than 10 meters scaffold, producing or transporting explosive or inflammable materials, underground mining, working with a circular saw, pulling, carrying or supporting objects heavier than stipulated weights, etc. In this case women's opportunities for employment are more limited than men's. Especially up till now there has been no kind of works that men are not allowed to perform.

### **2. Opportunity for Advancement**

Although there are more women in government service, it is apparent that administrators in these agencies are mostly men. Actually, there are criteria for promotion such as education level, work experience and performance are standardized. Higher level officers who make decisions regarding promotion always defend their so called indiscriminatory practices claiming that they have given equal opportunities for advancement. But it is possible that high ranking officers are still giving importance to outmoded factors such as physical ability, psychological disposition, marital status, family situation, and personal attributes, as criteria for advancement, with the result that there are limited opportunities for advancement for women.

The fact is that 70 per cent of high level government officers of level 7 upward are male. Only 22 per cent of chiefs of division are women, with even smaller percentages for deputy secretary general or equivalent, (3.7%) and secretary general or equivalent position (2%). All thirty C.11 level government officers are men. The

ministry that has the highest percentage of women in a directorship position or equivalent is the Ministry of Science and Technology, and the percentage is 38%. The lowest percentage of 7 and 9 per cent belong to the Ministry of Industry and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs respectively.

One could conclude that high level government officers, who are dominantly male, are prejudiced against women. These groups of officers are men of at least 50 years of age and still adhere to old values and beliefs that married women do not fully contribute to work, or that women are not suitable for working in upcountry and remote areas, that women cannot live up to high responsibility and are not trustworthy in confidential matters. Some other causes originate from womanhood. For instance married women will eventually take maternity leave. Some women may have to abandon work to accompany their husbands promoted to high positions. Some women are said to decline promotion opportunities involving relocation because of family concerns.

Women in public enterprises are also facing the same kinds of problems. They are less likely to be promoted to higher positions. At present, the only women in highest position in public enterprises is the Governor of The National Housing Authority.

### **2.3.2 Women in the Private Sector**

#### **2.3.2.1 Women in the Agricultural Sector**

Women in the agricultural sector enjoy fewer employment opportunities since they have been long working in family activities without pay. Moreover, in recent years, the use of machinery in types of work formerly performed by women now leaves them unemployed. Little education among rural women brings about less opportunities to acquire skills and knowledge. Though women play an important role in the agricultural production, they are always overlooked by development planners. Government agencies in charge of rural agriculture do not seem to acknowledge women's role in agricultural production. It is apparent that women in agriculture do not receive information or training in new technologies. Modernization in agriculture seems to be a setback for women in rural areas for they are deprived of their sources of income. In fact women are also capable of using agricultural machinery had it been adjusted to women abilities. On the contrary, women are predominantly trained in feminine skills such as food preservation, food processing, weaving, handicrafts and nutrition, which, in one sense, is a confirmation of old beliefs that women should be specialized only in some certain types of work. There is not much opportunity left for women to extend their scope of job or interest.

Many women engage in some kinds of farm work such as spraying fertilizer or pesticide which in the long run is hazardous to health. For married women, it may cause complications for pregnancy as well as health problems in infants during the breast-feeding period.

In recent years, women in agriculture seem to have access to better alternatives rather than working without pay or sometimes being underpaid when the government began promoting export industries such as food and textile which employ a large number of women. Rural women, therefore, are more than willing to migrate to urban areas. This eventually creates migration problems in large cities. Statistics show that 60 per cent of women migrants in Bangkok Metropolis are less than 25 years of age. It is also obvious that the percentage of women migrants of working age is as high as 67.5% involving as many as 6.65 million women who were formerly in the agricultural sector.

The consequence of such a phenomena can be readily imagined. Moving from the agricultural to the industrial sector, in totally different work circumstances, involve numerous problems related to housing, family, working conditions, health and hygiene as well as labour exploitation to be discussed later on.

#### **2.3.2.2 Women in Industry**

In order to protect women in industry, there have been government regulations regarding women employees. Women are prohibited from some types of work which are considered hazardous to health and hygiene. Women are also not allowed to work at some specific time of the day. Single women of under 18 years

of age are not allowed to work in places that may tarnish their reputation. Women are entitled to paid maternity leave. They are also permitted to ask for transfer if post-natal health requires it. Wage discrimination is also illegal. Women are entitled to receive equal pay for the same type of job. Basic minimum wages are by law equal for women and men.

However, women in industry appear to live with more problems than those in the agricultural sector, due to deficiencies in law enforcement. Numerous research studies on women workers show that they receive lower wages than men for the same type of work, even in the same workplace. Wages for piece-rate type of work are inconsistent. Some types of service jobs depend solely on the number of clients. Welfare, though provided, is minimal and on a compulsory basis, as regulated by law. Additional welfare is a matter of size, financial status and policy of the establishments, such welfare provisions vary and are not necessarily standardized. The most commonly offered fringe benefits are, for instance, free meals, uniforms, housing, bonus and transportation. Workers in smaller undertakings are believed to face more problems than those in larger ones.

The most prominent problems are likely to be those related to working conditions, health and safety. Kusol (2532) reported health and hygiene problems together with illness found in female workers in the textile industry. In fact, the textile industry is believed to be the one area which employs the highest percentage of women workers, most of whom are migrants from other regions, particularly the Northeast. Some women find it hard to adjust to such work circumstances which are hazardous to health, namely high pitch of noise, excessive dust, heat, insufficient light, high repetitive and strenuous jobs, and unnatural work positions, all of which affects women's health in the long run. Work-related illnesses which are common among these groups of women are hearing impairment, respiratory diseases, dermatitis and cancer. The degree of symptoms of these diseases depends much on length of time involved in hazardous work. What is most alarming is that women do not seem to be concerned much about their health. Less than half of the workers interviewed are aware of the long-term detrimental effects of their working conditions on their health.

Women working in the chemical industry such as battery, paint, tyre, and plastics are also among high risks groups. These industries are well-known for their hazardous work environment. The women worker's well-being seems to depend much on the employer's conscience as well as on the quality and the coverage to the inspection and protection system of the government. Avoiding these kinds of jobs is not a solution of the problem. Women, as well as men, have to earn for living.

### **2.3.3 Women in the Informal Sector**

The fact that women working in the informal sector are not protected by labour laws, let alone the Social Security Bill has put these workers in a disadvantageous position. Security seems to be a far-away matter. Most of these women are living under the poverty line and have to work long hours in poor working conditions. Some women may be fortunate to receive additional benefits of free meals, housing or transportation. But the one certain thing is that they are paid below standard wages which results in sub-standard living.

Domestic helpers usually stay with employers who will also take care of their meals. Their well-being depend solely on the employer's moral standard. These days domestic helpers seem to have more bargaining power because of the scarcity of workers and the high demand, as workers prefer factory work which gives them more free time and unlimited outside contacts. Some domestic helpers are lucky enough to receive vocational training such as dress-making and hair-dressing or adult education, but that is a matter of the individual employer. Despite the fact that domestic helpers receive wage lower than the basic minimum wage, women in this occupation are well known for being the family's bread winner.

As for street vendors and peddlars, they have to live with unpredictable incomes and uncertain working hours. Life is much insecure because of constant harassment by the city police. Female vendors can easily become crime victim. Fatigue or exhaustion is a major health problem, not to mention street pollution which seems

to be all over, Dr. Prachum (2523) found in his research that more than half of women vendors did not want their children to follow their example and engage in the same type of occupations.

Women in the service sector also face many problems. Some clients are more than ready to take advantage. Infection from terminal diseases and short work tenure result in hardships at a later age.

More after than not, self-employed women in the informal sector engage in small scale businesses and do not have the appropriate business skills, particularly marketing, systematic work and proper evaluation of costs and benefits. Problems also arise from shortage of funds. Female home workers, whose earning is on piece-rate basis—such as artificial flower makers, have to work from dawn-to-dusk in order to earn sufficient income.

In fact, government and non-government agencies are providing support for skills training and loans to promote jobs for rural women. For instance the Department of Agriculture Extension gives loans for cottage industries and livestock raising. The Department of Community Development is carrying projects for some occupations and is helping to find markets for domestic products. Assistance in terms of loans and business advice is also provided. Some non-government organizations allocate foreign aid to become available in the form of revolving funds along with advice on work particularly in silk weaving. The greatest obstacle to such the projects is the lack of genuine interest and lack of continuity on the part of the women resulting in inconsistent income and fund shortages, making it impossible to borrow money for further revolving funds. Another much cited problem is that of women not having clear an understanding of the activities involved. There is no work system. Evaluation is even out of the question. Rural women seem to give priority to housework rather than work that generates income.

In conclusion, women in the private sector are experiencing more problems than women working in the public sector, especially women workers in the manufacturing industry. In addition to the aforementioned problems, it is also evident that some employer are avoiding to employ pregnant women for fear of having to grant maternity leave. Some women reportedly conceal their pregnancy until it is threatening their own life and that of the unborn child. Shift-work and night-work force women to adjust totally to unnatural life patterns. Housing benefits from employers become a irrelevant due to rising land prices. Women are therefore pushed into another kind of risk by having to commute to find affordable shelter. The 700-900 baht per month tent for four occupants cannot possibly provide clean and hygienic living. In almost all workplace, accelerated methods of manufacturing forces women to work at a higher speed. Some women reportedly have to run back and forth in order to be able to operate a certain number of machines. Work-related accidents are likely to occur from fatigue, stress, repetitiveness and strenuous types of work. In addition, work incentives such as bonus, overtime payment, piece-rate system are tempting women into unnecessary long work hours.

Women migrants from the Northeastern provinces, being responsible for the well-being of their parents and family, sacrifice their own comfort for the sake of the family. They are willing to suffer in order to save money.

Industries employing high numbers of women such as electronics and textile tend to push voluntary resignation for women of more than 40 years of age by offering an attractive amount of compensation. Women in the forties are not as efficient as younger ones who are available with only minimum wages. How can a women of middle age, possessing no other skills and knowledge, find a new job, especially a decent one?

## **2.4 PARTICIPATION IN ORGANIZATIONS PROTECTING RIGHTS**

Civil servants are already protected by the Civil Servant Association of Thailand which up to these days has a total membership of 21,197, out of which 29.6 per cent are women. In fact civil servants have no rights to form unions while public enterprise employees, since 2518 B.E., are eligible to form unions to bargain with the employer, which in practice is the government. However such rights were abolished on April 9, 1991. Formerly, women employees in public enterprises could voice their needs through union representatives.

For women in agriculture, out of 3,944 farmer groups, all over the country, only 15 groups or 0.4 per cent have a woman president. The total number of farmer groups is 490,275 with no statistics on classification of members by sex available. In the Regional Co-ordinating Committees for Farmers, all committee members are men. As for the Central Committee for Thai Farmers, only 3 out of 18 committee members are women.

For many years, the Department of Community Development has established women development groups at village level all over the country. In occupational promotion, the Department has organized 2,504 groups of women in agriculture with a total membership of 31,333 and 2,711 groups in industry with 63,254 members. Most of the groups are located in the poverty-stricken areas of the Northeastern region and are facing obstacles related to inconsistency and lack of continuity despite being already trained in role and responsibility, making it impossible in terms of implementation. There was a unification of 1,251 agricultural cooperatives in 1990 with a total number of 895,740 families /members. However there was no report on classification of members by sex.

In the industrial sector, women constitute 46 per cent of the total number of 2 million union members. Of 561 unions registered, there are only 73 unions or 13 per cent presided by women. Moreover in 1990 there were 1,024 women or 13.5 per cent on the board of the union committees which comprise 7,583 committee members. Utumporn (1990), in studying women union members in all 73 unions with women presidents, indicates that most female union members are between 26-40 years of age with 15-25 years of work experience. Single women are more likely to join unions in order to protect personal benefits. In recent years, a number of international and foreign organizations, through giving aid and making efforts toward labour education, emphasized benefits and significance of participation in labour organizations. The results, though not impressive, helped create awareness among women workers.

For women workers who are not interested in joining unions, it is understandable that over 40 per cent of them are from the rural areas where the old values that women are inferior to men still prevail. By nature, women's interests are focused on family's affairs which result in more concerns for income rather than other rights. Women do not want to offend employers for fear of negative consequences. It is also likely that women do not feel restraints and that they pay less attention in this matter.

It is a pity that women with initiative are not well accepted by colleagues of the same sex who would rather rely on men. Therefore, more than 80 per cent of the women workers have a male union president and more than half of the union committee members are men.

In principle, forming an organization is a good course, but it should really benefit its members and their participation should come out of their own convictions rather than from persuasion or force. It seems that any type of unification which involves mostly women tend to be temporary. Women are serious only at the beginning and eventually fade away. It could be that women do not perceive benefit outcomes from such efforts or that already worn out by work, they have no strength left to participate in any after-hours group activities. Married women even find it harder to participate because of household responsibilities.

### **3. FACTORS AFFECTING WOMEN'S EMPLOYMENT**

#### **3.1 LAWS AND REGULATIONS**

Laws and regulations that apparently restrain women's freedom in choosing an occupation are found in the Civil Servant Code of 1975 which forbids women from certain positions as district officer, deputy district officer and forestry officer. Prior to 1975 women were not even permitted to hold position as judges and prosecutors. It was not until 1982 that women were allowed to run for the posts of village headperson and kamnan. In addition there have been laws related to military service which allow women only for duties that do not involve battle. Women

are never promoted to the General rank. Female police officers are experiencing similar discrimination of not being permitted to accede to the police General position, though they are classified in the same ranks with male police officers.

Labour laws forbidding women from particular kinds of work, although seemingly discrimination, in one sense, are aimed at giving protection to women. By the same token, paid maternity leave of 30 days for women having worked at least 180 days as regulated by law is also considered a disadvantage making employers avoid employing married or pregnant women. The compensation law requiring employers to compensate employees for termination of contract without fault is also providing opportunities for employers to engage in unfair practices. Women working in the informal sector have long been deprived of legal protection.

### **3.2 FACTORS RELATED TO WOMANHOOD**

Factors related to womanhood are both biological and cultural. Women are physically inferior to men. Menstruation, child-bearing and less physical strength all have negative effects on work. Women having to commute to work, also face the possibility of sexual harassment from male employers. Culturally, there is the prejudice that women are less efficient, not taking work seriously. More often than not, women are viewed as being fussy, irrational, not able to manage confidentiality. Some good points in the eyes of some employers about women workers are that they are submissive and willing to accept substandard pay.

In fact, women excel in many respects. Women are more precise and perseverant. They prove to be punctual and reliable. The fact that more and more women are promoted into higher level positions in the public and private sectors is an evidence of women's capability. As a result, society is moving towards a more constructive attitude towards women.

### **3.3 WOMEN'S ATTITUDE TOWARDS CAREER**

There has been no research on women's attitude towards career, but it could well be said that most women are concerned with the family's well-being. Many women are obliged to work for the family, although without pay. It is quite common to come across women in the rural areas handling family businesses. Women seeking employment outside the home earn some income to support the family. Work also provides opportunity for social contacts. Women of higher education find it necessary to work both for income and for social purposes. For them, work is not something to be looked down upon.

Women have to overcome a low self-esteem, feeling that they are less capable than men. In fact women are more loyal to organizations than men. Change of work is usually out of necessity rather than casual. An employer is quoted as praising women of their carefulness in handling materials and equipment. They are less likely to be a source of problems for the employer.

In making occupational decisions, women who have more alternatives. They are likely to consider related factors such as work environment, job security, commuting time, and preferred type of work. However in our present affluent and materialistic society, women put more emphasis on income than on other factors. Government service is therefore not likely to be the first choice. Women are found in all occupations, communities and work places that with their work responsibilities do not practice sex discrimination in employment.

### **3.4 FACTORS RELATED TO FAMILY**

Married women working in the household are not likely to have family problems since housework can be managed along. Women who work outside home have to carry dual-responsibilities, regardless of availability of domestic help due to society's expectations that women have to be fully responsible for housework and family's

well-being. Unsurprisingly, single and divorced women are more efficient and hard working than married women—a typical alibi for employers not to promote married women.

Dual-responsibilities, which are heavy on women, often create excessive fatigue and stress. Unless understanding and help are offered by family members, family problems are likely to occur and may eventually lead to divorce. Such factors necessarily affect work efficiency.

For many women, the choice of an occupation depends very much on husbands and parents which, sometimes, constitute an obstacle to career advancement. Career success, in fact, is partly attributed to maturity and confidence. Over-emphasis on family obligations makes some women refuse to take higher positions in the provinces, despite attractive promotion opportunities for fear of separation from family.

### **3.5 FACTORS RELATED TO DEVELOPMENT**

Women in government service are slower in career advancement because they are less enthusiastic to seek development. The fact that marriage and family normally come after 2-3 years of work makes women more concerned with family affairs than with self-development in their careers. For with male government officers marriage is neither a cause nor an obstacle for career development.

Women in agriculture may choose to develop themselves through non-formal education in various forms of short-term training which is related to their work. Unfortunately training offered is usually inconsistent and lacks continuity due to limitations of government budget. However, presently such opportunities are enhanced by cooperation among non-government organizations involved in rural development. Women workers in industry have less opportunity for further education because of long work hours, except for some workers who are fortunate enough to work for an employer who considers that further education is a type of welfare which at the end benefits employers as well. There have been cases of factory schools organized by a limited number of employers which seek cooperation from Ministry of Education to provide courses after work hours. Likewise, many employers encourage suitable employees to receive additional training. Women who are members of active labour unions are more likely to receive training and development as well as useful information through union's training courses.

## **4. TRENDS IN WOMEN'S EMPLOYMENT**

Theoretically, there is no specification of sex as job requirement in all kinds of work. It is a societal value that women engage in typed of work that requires less physical strength. Therefore, women are left with household work or work that relates to handicrafts and consumption such as domestic help, cookery, food service, dress-making, artificial flower making, flower arrangement, cottage industry as well as industries such as weaving, biscuit-making, food-canning, gem cutting.

Women's employment reached a turning point when the government policy on industrial development came to effect, particularly in the Fourth National Economic and Social Development Plan for the 1982-1986 period. The plan significantly recommends the reduction of workers in the agricultural sector and promotes an increase of women working in industry. The industrial sector, therefore, has experienced a flow of migrant women workers.

It is also notable that more women workers are engaging in some certain kinds of work in the service industry such as waitress, masseuse or waitress in night entertainment. There is no available data on actual income but it is estimated that their income is substantial which enables these workers to upgrade their living as well as that of the family members back home. In general, service jobs yield more benefits than working in industry or ordinary trading jobs. Working conditions are better in some way. In addition, some kinds of work in the service industry require only good physical attributes in order to be successful.

Industrial development coupled with technical advancement creates a high demand for technical personnels so that more women with a good education background are entering this type of work. It encouraging to see more female engineers, architects, pilots as well as scientists and geologists.

In addition, our society witnesses more women in occupations previously ruled out for women, such as bus drivers, taxi-drivers, factory truck-drivers, samlor-drivers, and public motorcyclists, military officers, security guards, politic officers and even boxers and corpse collectors. By the same token, we see more men in occupations formerly dominated by women such as dress-making, cookery, stewardess, nursing, midwifery, and street vending. Differences between men's and women's occupations tend to disappear. Employment will depend largely on employer's decisions and personal preferences for careers. Trends on women's employment may be forecasted by looking at the following factors.

#### **4.1 POPULATION STRUCTURE AND LABOUR MARKET**

It is estimated that during the Seventh National Economic and Social Development Plan of 1992-1996 period, there will be 3.6 million new workers entering the labour market. The agricultural sector will absorb approximately 0.7 million workers while the industrial sector will absorb around 1.3 millions and the rest 1.6 millions will go to the service sector which employs mostly women workers. It is therefore anticipated that women will have more choices of occupations and incomes.

Reduction in the population growth will help balance demand and supply for labour. Women are likely to enter more diversified occupations. The shrinkage of family size will result in women playing a greater economic role. Women will be financially more independent by working outside the home. New types of industries will create more jobs for women which will result in fairer treatment of women. Employers will have to exert more efforts to maintain qualified workers which means additional training to ensure career advancement and more bargaining power for qualified women workers.

#### **4.2 OPPORTUNITY FOR EDUCATION**

The expansion of the industry and the labour market will result in higher demands for well-educated and skilled labour. Studies of manpower requirements for BOI-promoted industries indicate a reduction in the demand for primary-level education workers from 45.1 per cent in 1987 to 25.9 per cent in 1990-1992. While the demand for middle-level education workers increases form 54.4 per cent to 72.6 per cent of the same period. Demand for workers with higher than primary level education is more evident in the export industry of Newly Industrialized Countries) textile, Jewellery, and shoe-making, to name just a few. More employment opportunities and higher wages for women workers are also anticipated.

Fortunately, there is no practice of sex discrimination in Thailand's education system. Awareness of such a fact should result in the promotion of education among women. Women will have access to a wilder range of occupations and will not be limited only to export industries. Such development should also prevail in other fields including science and technology.

#### **4.3 CHANGING ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL ENVIRONMENT**

In terms of economy, Thailand is moving towards NIC's status. Women will be more welcome in newly created occupations such as those related to modern electronics, science, innovation, and research for development. There will be an emergence of modern agriculture in which women will fully participate. Migration, though is likely to prevail. However it will be well planned; prearranged and will cause fewer social problems. Women will be more careful in the utilization of information; actually, they have already learned a lot on this point from own experience. More women will enter the nonagricultural sector, especially industries related to electronic component, gem, textile, service, exhibition, show business, finance, investment and security as well as direct-selling.

At the society level, more favourable attitudes towards women will enhance their employment opportunities the awareness of the importance of women's status which has grown since 1975 is another factor that helps promote women's employment and make the women themselves more aware of their own status thus resulting in greater concern for self-development. There have been many organizations providing consultation and help to women workers in solving work related problems. These organizations have helped create positive attitudes as well as psychological security and enthusiasm in self-development among women. On the whole, the changing economic and social environment will help to promote the women's employment situation.

#### **4.4 GOVERNMENT POLICY**

It is fortunate that the government is now more aware of the women's role in the nation's development. Primarily, the government emphasises policies concerning protection and benefits for women workers which result specific laws protecting women workers. There is no wage discrimination against women. Many women, along with men, are receiving shortterm vocational training at the National Institute for Skill Development. The women and Child Labour Division has also been established in the Department of Labour to specifically look after issues related to child and women workers. Considerable efforts are also exercised to create full-scale protection and support for women workers.

At present there has been a movement to abolish rules regarding specification of sex as job requirement in the government sector. Although the issue is still under consideration, we can expect more careful and fair dispositions towards women that would also provide more employment opportunities. Women should also be made to live up to expectations that they have to be no less capable than men.

In summary, women will tend to work outside the home and are likely to increase in numbers in the industrial, commerce and service sectors. Migrant women workers will be twice as many as men. Female child workers will still be found so long as there is no educational and social measures designed specifically for them. Older female workers will also increase as a result of better standards of living and hygiene. Female workers will also be forced to be the family's main bread winner in cases where they become divorce, widowed or remain single.

There will be less differences between sexes in terms of employment. Non-government organizations concentration on women issues will play an increasing role in persuading the government and the public to abolish sex discrimination in employment. There will also be a close cooperation between government and non-government agencies. Development in this regard will be gradual and closely linked with societal attitudes towards the family institution as well as women's education which are also in a transition period.

It is possible that in the future, more women will engage in part-time work. There will be a break in employment due to maternity leave and child care. Such pattern of work is already common in western countries where domestic help or other types of care services are scare. It is likely that, such work patterns will call for necessary adjustments in rules and regulations for working women. There will be some other kinds of arrangement or conditions concerning housework among prenatal agreements.

To sum up, the trend will be for more women to enter the labour market. There will also be some women in the high income group who will choose to be full-time house wife, taking care of family. But small numbers of such cases will not affect the total number of women in the labour market.

### **5. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

The women labour plays a real and important role in the nation's economic development. Employers are likely to employ women besides men for jobs where women have proved to be equally competent. Women are more accepted because of certain outstanding characteristics such as loyalty, punctuality, precision and perseverance as well as carefulness in handling materials.

The high percentage of women in the government sector results from the fact that women are more successful in taking the examination. Women are also less likely to have disciplinary problems in addition to their high sense of responsibility at work.

Women are good at teaching, in professional and academics jobs, in jobs that require precision, concentration and mental skills as well as in domestic activities. It is more or less a societal prejudice that women are not suitable for managerial work, or jobs in remote areas, of field work or kinds of work that require physical strength as masonry, fishery and mining.

Women in the public sector, though receiving equal pay have less opportunities for advancement. Unlike women of wealthy families in large cities who have the opportunity to prove their capability in management, women with an underprivileged background such as unskilled women workers in the manufacturing industry face numerous problems ranging from limited job opportunities, wage discrimination, poor working conditions, sanitary problems and exploitation.

Self-employed women often come up with problems related to investment and loss resulting from lack of management skills. Dual responsibility is also reported as one of the major problems of women who work outside the home and usually causes stress and affects work efficiency. Many women working in the non - formal sector which is not protected by labour law, such as small undertakings with less than 10 employees where the employer does not pay attention to working conditions and welfare. Domestic helpers who work long hours, women vendors whose profits and losses are uncertain, as well as women working by piece-rate at home whose payment depends on quantity of work are examples of women in this group.

Women tend to be more vulnerable to toxic substances. In many cases, pregnancy and child-bearing are also affected. In many industries of eye-strenuous nature such as electronics, jewellery, battery, dyeing and metal coating, women are not well aware of hazards that are detrimental to health, since symptoms of the diseases may not appear immediately.

Rural migration will prevail. Most migrants will enter the service and factory work. A common concern for this group of women includes insecurity, hazards due to work as well as family and housing problems and problems related to adjustment.

Forming unions to protect benefits and rights of women is not so efficient due to lack of support from the women themselves. Women also give priority to housework rather than working for labour organizations. Women workers therefore receive less attention from employers. Women seem to be concerned with pay, bonus, mandatory retirement age that are equal to men's. They also require fair promotions, advancement, and training to upgrade skill levels, as knowledge of their rights and privileges as designated in labour laws. Women are also asking for the freedom from discrimination and the freedom to make decisions for marriage and having children are also among requisites.

The government seems to pay greater attention to the welfare of women workers. Besides protecting women from certain kinds of work and offering special privileges, there are also cabinet decisions that support a wide range of women labour inspection which, actually, cannot be implemented due to limited numbers of officers. In addition, women labour protection should not be only for those covered by laws, but should also extend to those who are not formerly protected by the laws such as women in the informal sector who constitute underprivileged group of workers working hard to create nation's economic stability. They should, by all means, be entitled to receive appropriate protection.

Considering the situation described above and also the basic concept of the United Nation's development of women's occupations which emphasizes equality, development and peace, it is clear that policies and measures to promote women's occupations should stress. Those target groups which immediate development action, measures

should also aim at solving those problems which require prompt remedial action. The following policies and measures are recommended.

#### Policies and Measures

1. Promotion of equal employment opportunities, wages and opportunities for advancement.
  - 1.1 Revision of laws, regulations and orders related to limiting employment opportunities in the public and private sectors.
  - 1.2 Persuading employers to recruit personnel regardless of sex.
  - 1.3 Creating an understanding among high level officers in the public and private sectors not to discriminate against women in the promotion process.
  - 1.4 Appending articles in labour protection laws to guard against termination of employment of pregnant women, women taking maternity leave as well as untimely retirement.
2. Protection of women in the informal sector.
  - 2.1 Assistance in promoting mutual assistance and in promoting the group's benefits.
  - 2.2 Providing knowledge and skills for self-employment starting with knowledge in planning, management, cost-benefit calculation, marketing and improvement of entrepreneurial system
  - 2.3 Providing necessary funds for investment as well as instilling the value of paying back debts.
  - 2.4 Providing legal protection for domestic helpers including minimum wage, benefits, work hours (which may be longer than in the industrial or commercial sectors) and conditions of termination of employment.
3. Provision of assistance and advice for occupations to rural migrants which entails the following measures:
  - 3.1 Assigning district labour offices to function as information centres on the labour market for potential migrants and providing advice in due course.
  - 3.2 Assigning government officers to 24-hours duty in the recruitment offices at railway stations, bus terminals in Bangkok to give advice and assistance to migrants especially women job seekers.
  - 3.3 Distributing printed information to encourage migrant job seeders to use related government as well as reliable non-government services.
  - 3.4 Temporary lodging services should be provided for women and child migrants. Funds should also be allocated to help unsuccessful migrant job-seekers to return to their provinces.
4. Increasing protection and benefits for women in the industrial sector.
  - 4.1 Through inspection of undertakings which employ women workers. Advice should also be given on the use of safety devices, ergonomics to avoid health problems in the long run or to avoid accidents.
  - 4.2 Strict enforcement of health measures in the industries that are health hazard or potentially health hazard.
  - 4.3 Persuading employers with more than 200 women workers to establish day - care for children of workers.
  - 4.4 Recommending employers to hire welfare officers to provide counselling and assistance to problem women workers.
  - 4.5 Labour inspection may well be administered by tri-partite committee to constitute a supplement to routine inspections and to ensure thorough inspections.
5. Promotion of measures to reduce women's responsibilities in housework.
  - 5.1 Promoting social values that housework is not meant only for women.
  - 5.2 Promoting social values that all family members are responsible in housework.
  - 5.3 Encouraging employers to establish cooperatives that offers low - cost consumer products as well as energy-saving machines.

- 5.4 Giving credit to husbands who help in housework and child care.
- 6. Support of employed women through additional training or vocational training.
  - 6.1 Encouraging the establishment of factory schools to offer adult education in compliance with the standards set by the Ministry of Education.
  - 6.2 Encouraging government and non-government agencies to organize skills training for workers according to the market demand.
  - 6.3 Encouraging employers to provide appropriate paid educational leaves.
  - 6.4 Developing managerial skills for women in small undertakings.
  - 6.5 Encouraging re-training in new occupations for women workers who need to change jobs at a later age.
- 7. Promotion of women employment in science and technology.
  - 7.1 Encouraging female youngsters to seek education in science and technology to create employment opportunities
  - 7.2 Encourage higher learning institutions to abolish the quota system in science and technology resulting in smaller female student enrollment.
  - 7.3 Encouraging employers in the private sector to consider qualifications rather than sex in personnel selection.
- 8. Creation of values of work commitment.
  - 8.1 Creating values that women be self-confident and have faith in other women.
  - 8.2 Giving credit to successful women in various occupations.
  - 8.3 Supporting the establishment of women associations or professional associations.
  - 8.4 Creating values that women be proud of hard works and avoid convenient work that put one's own reputation at stake.

Priority should be given to migrant women workers. Women workers in industry and women workers in the informal sector. Supportive societal attitudes and predispositions towards working women should also be created on a continual basis, which could be done either through campaigns or even through legal measures. Above all, women should be aware that the most effective catalysts are, above all, the quality of the women themselves and of their potentials.

**Table 6-1** Population and Labour Force between 1985-1989 (2528-2532 B.E.)

(In Thousands)

Labor Status	1985		1986		1987		1988		1989	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Population	25,598.7	25,323.6	26,019.8	25,740.7	26,644.8	26,560.7	27,099.7	27,033.2	27,557.3	27,498.3
1. Total Labor Force	14,192.4	11,967.9	14,697.8	12,272.2	15,239.2	12,689.1	15,740.7	12,975.0	16,080.5	13,389.1
1.1 Current Labour Force	13,650.0	10,607.5	14,316.2	11,255.4	14,921.6	11,950.2	15,414.4	12,207.1	15,671.2	12,371.3
1.1.1 Employed	12,913.8	9,688.6	13,333.9	10,146.9	14,169.7	11,018.7	14,661.3	11,327.6	14,871.9	11,425.4
- At Work	11,367.5	9,195.6	12,071.9	9,700.5	12,911.1	10,584.5	13,563.9	10,951.1	13,479.9	11,033.0
- With Job but Not at Work	1,537.3	492.9	1,262.0	446.3	1,258.5	434.2	1,097.4	376.4	1,391.9	392.4
1.1.2 Unemployed	736.0	918.7	982.2	1,108.5	731.9	931.5	753.0	879.4	799.2	945.8
- Looking for Work	158.9	158.4	293.8	198.4	266.8	173.3	170.2	171.9	167.4	123.7
- Not Looking but Available for Work	576.9	760.3	688.3	910.1	485.1	758.1	582.7	707.4	631.8	822.1
1.2 Seasonally Inactive Labour Force	542.4	1,360.4	381.5	1,016.7	317.5	738.8	326.3	767.9	409.2	1,017.8
2. Persons Not in Labour Force	4,263.6	6,508.8	4,219.2	6,660.8	4,385.9	7,039.7	4,350.1	7,230.4	3,173.2	6,021.6
2.1 Household Work	65.4	2,326.0	46.4	2,333.3	58.8	2,624.5	80.5	2,821.3	82.1	2,824.8
2.2 Studies	3,167.3	2,766.9	3,133.6	2,785.3	3,151.3	2,689.3	3,064.9	2,699.4	1,808.2	1,482.6
2.3 Too Young, Too Old, or Incapable to Work	788.3	1,122.4	826.2	1,205.6	911.2	1,324.9	1,005.2	1,391.3	970.6	1,330.9
2.4 Others	242.3	293.3	212.8	336.3	264.4	400.8	199.4	318.3	312.2	383.3
3. Persons under 11 Years of Age	7,142.6	6,846.6	7,102.7	6,807.6	7,019.7	6,831.7	7,008.7	6,827.7	8,303.5	8,087.5

**Remarks :** Labor Force in 2528-2531 B.E. are those with 11 years of age or more.

Labour Force in 2532 B.E. are those with 13 years of age or more.

**Source :** Report of the Labour Force Survey, Round 1 (February) 2528-2532 B.E.

National Statistical Office, Office of the Prime Minister.

**Table 6-2** Classification of Labour Force by Age between 1985 - 1989 (2528 - 2532 B.E.)

(In Thousands)

Age	1985		1986		1987		1988		1989	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Labour Force	14,192.4	11,967.9	14,697.8	12,272.2	15,239.2	12,689.1	15,740.7	12,975.0	16,080.5	13,389.1
11 - 12	-	-	34.4	35.3	37.2	36.0	34.8	27.1	-	-
13 - 14	361.9	425.7	402.6	439.7	368.4	436.5	413.7	432.2	373.4	452.8
15 - 19	2,069.5	1,992.0	2,083.9	2,004.8	2,050.4	1,987.1	2,051.9	1,992.1	2,118.8	2,025.5
20 - 24	2,277.9	1,931.0	2,411.1	1,996.0	2,528.7	2,076.9	2,644.0	2,125.7	2,714.7	2,167.1
25 - 29	2,128.0	1,647.8	2,181.1	1,760.6	2,323.2	1,829.5	2,385.4	1,903.8	2,421.7	1,953.7
30 - 34	1,839.9	1,480.4	1,891.5	1,533.5	1,952.1	1,620.3	2,030.6	1,647.1	2,081.0	1,704.2
35 - 39	1,537.1	1,254.3	1,600.6	1,290.5	1,545.8	1,268.1	1,630.1	1,318.1	1,681.7	1,406.8
40 - 49	1,994.8	1,711.8	2,067.3	1,728.3	2,208.9	1,797.1	2,293.3	1,886.8	2,341.8	1,917.5
50 - 59	1,329.4	1,113.7	1,356.2	1,112.5	1,512.2	1,209.2	1,536.6	1,246.9	1,590.7	1,291.7
60 Up	653.2	410.4	668.7	370.7	711.7	427.9	720.0	394.7	756.1	469.5

**Remarks :** Labour Force in 2528-2531 B.E. are those with 11 years of age or more.

Labour Force in 2532 B.E. are those with 13 years of age or more.

**Source :** Report of the Labour Force Survey, Round 1 (February) 2528-2532 B.E.

National Statistical Office, Office of the Prime Minister.

**Table 6-3** Classification of Labour Force by Education between 1985 - 1989 (2528 - 2532 B.E.)

(In Thousands)

Labor Force by Education	1985		1986		1987		1988		1989	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Total	14,192.4	11,968.1	14,697.8	12,272.2	15,239.2	12,689.1	15,740.8	12,975.0	16,080.5	13,389.1
None	641.2	1,177.1	726.5	1,202.0	636.8	1,041.8	673.5	1,065.1	606.7	986.9
Less than Pratom 4	599.1	572.4	587.8	600.8	557.4	575.4	555.1	526.0	544.3	504.7
Lower Elementary	8,662.8	7,200.1	8,455.8	6,914.7	8,341.6	6,924.5	8,415.2	6,931.7	8,263.6	6,967.5
Upper Elementary	2,126.3	1,746.6	2,539.2	2,154.2	2,845.0	2,503.1	3,132.4	2,634.2	3,671.3	3,113.6
Lower Secondary	910.6	372.1	1,004.6	368.2	1,167.0	444.6	1,203.2	521.1	1,217.5	527.7
Upper Secondary	225.1	128.7	294.1	147.1	360.0	183.1	429.3	226.3	481.5	241.7
Vocational	339.2	250.6	350.2	274.7	467.6	282.0	434.6	302.5	439.1	300.0
University	314.3	192.7	383.7	262.2	458.5	349.6	540.8	417.9	546.6	442.2
- Academic	186.9	127.7	228.0	160.6	270.9	202.2	317.0	261.0	342.2	263.2
- Technical-Vocational	127.4	65.0	155.7	101.6	187.6	147.4	223.8	156.9	222.4	179.0
Teacher Training	296.4	276.3	275.0	264.0	299.8	336.5	288.6	308.3	275.5	284.4
Short Course Vocational	2.1	9.4	3.9	28.2	4.4	16.5	6.0	17.8	4.7	11.3
Others	36.9	4.9	29.1	5.5	18.0	1.6	24.6	2.8	27.2	6.3
Unknown	37.1	35.8	57.3	49.9	52.4	29.8	37.0	20.6	1.9	2.2

**Remarks :** Labour Force in 2528-2531 B.E. are those with 11 years of age or more.

Labour Force in 2532 B.E. are those with 13 years of age or more.

**Source :** Report of the Labour Force Survey, Round 1 (February) 2528-2532 B.E.  
National Statistical Office, Office of the Prime Minister.

**Table 6-4** Classification of Employed Persons by Occupation between 1985 - 1989 (2528 - 2532 B.E.)

(In Thousands)

Employed Persons by Occupation	1985		1986		1987		1988		1989	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
	Total	12,913.8	9,688.6	13,333.9	10,146.8	14,169.6	11,018.7	14,661.3	11,327.6	14,871.9
1. Professional, Technical and Related Workers.	449.4	424.1	449.1	412.8	463.5	475.8	481.9	520.9	466.8	501.0
2. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers.	259.8	68.1	312.6	78.7	366.0	93.0	360.9	107.4	362.3	85.3
3. Clerical Workers.	322.6	280.6	272.5	284.9	369.0	334.3	398.2	393.0	402.9	380.2
4. Sales Workers.	985.8	1,509.9	1,070.4	1,555.5	1,220.1	1,840.3	1,222.7	1,729.0	1,156.2	1,675.1
5. Farmers, Fishermen, Hunters, Loggers and Related Workers, Miners, Quarrymen and Related Workers.	7,593.5	5,747.0	7,669.0	5,867.9	8,031.9	6,146.5	8,553.4	6,553.9	8,515.5	6,476.5
6. Workers in Transport and Communication Occupation.	653.6	35.3	694.6	30.7	752.8	38.8	732.3	30.3	767.3	37.7
7. Craftmen, Production Process Workers and Labourers.	2,204.8	1,149.6	2,391.6	1,383.3	2,512.4	1,527.8	2,439.6	1,399.4	2,696.9	1,665.2
8. Services, Sports and Recreation Workers.	442.3	472.9	463.7	530.0	448.8	558.1	466.2	590.9	494.6	592.9
9. Workers not Classified by Occupation.	1.1	0.5		2.2	4.4	3.5	5.24	2.2	8.7	10.7

**Remarks :** Labour Force in 2528-2531 B.E. are those with 11 years of age or more.

Labour Force in 2532 B.E. are those with 13 years of age or more.

**Source :** Report of the Labour Force Survey, Round 1 (February) 2528-2532 B.E.

National Statistical Office, Office of the Prime Minister.

Table 6-5 Employed Persons by Occupation and Income in 1989 (2532 B.E.)

(In Thousands)

Income	Occupation		Total		I		II		III		IV	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Total	14,605.7	11,243.3	465.8	500.4	356.8	84.4	402.9	379.6	1,149.6	1,671.4	230.8	413.7
750	5,819.9	5,021.8	3.4	1.5	25.4	2.6	2.8	3.3	418.0	649.0	123.7	181.9
750 - 1,500	3,564.0	3,217.8	10.1	18.2	32.7	3.2	19.3	23.8	97.2	118.6	92.6	143.2
1,501 - 2,000	1,339.4	957.2	5.6	11.9	14.6	2.9	44.5	36.4	66.2	57.1	66.2	57.1
2,001 - 2,500	909.3	532.7	13.4	28.5	9.8	2.4	51.6	67.5	52.0	49.9	52.0	49.9
2,501 - 3,000	821.3	405.0	24.4	35.2	20.9	6.2	41.4	57.1	14.7	14.8	14.7	14.8
3,001 - 4,000	722.4	365.0	8.1	107.1	38.2	9.4	64.1	77.0	9.9	6.9	9.9	6.9
4,001 - 5,000	448.3	241.2	89.7	102.8	36.6	10.4	66.5	41.3	6.2	6.6	6.2	6.6
5,001 - 6,000	273.7	129.5	70.4	70.8	30.9	9.6	34.4	17.0	2.8	4.2	2.8	4.2
6,001 - 7,000	132.3	74.6	42.5	39.5	17.5	5.9	17.2	9.2	8.1	7.1	8.1	7.1
7,001 - 8,000	107.1	63.5	31.0	24.3	18.5	10.4	12.5	7.4	6.9	4.9	6.9	4.9
8,001 - 9,000	49.1	21.1	17.2	8.4	10.2	2.5	5.3	2.0	4.2	2.1	4.2	2.1
9,001 - 10,000	66.4	32.9	16.9	12.0	20.5	5.6	5.6	2.4	3.7	2.3	3.7	2.3
10,001 - 15,000	95.0	39.6	15.5	8.0	29.7	5.8	10.7	8.0	1.8	8.2	1.8	8.2
15,001 - 20,000	46.6	15.8	5.5	1.1	17.5	1.9	2.0	0.9	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3
20,001 Up	37.9	13.2	3.5	0.9	19.0	2.2	0.7	1.3	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8
Unknown	172.4	111.8	34.3	29.5	14.1	2.8	23.5	24.2	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8

Table 6-5 (Cont'd) Employed Persons by Occupation and Income in 1989 (2532 B.E.)

(In Thousands)

Income	V		VI		VII		VIII		IX	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Total	8,266.0	6,302.8	767.3	37.4	2,693.6	1,663.1	494.7	592.8	8.7	10.8
750	5,241.7	3,997.5	36.7	4.8	254.0	414.9	24.5	181.3	0.1	1.6
750 - 1,500	2,079.4	1,703.6	178.3	9.4	735.7	573.1	90.1	236.0	0.1	1.1
1,501 - 2,000	419.2	281.4	97.0	3.9	573.2	373.7	60.9	64.9	-	-
2,001 - 2,500	191.3	124.3	103.3	6.2	356.7	144.0	85.6	41.0	-	-
2,501 - 3,000	118.8	52.8	139.0	4.1	315.9	74.5	67.6	30.7	0.3	0.8
3,001 - 4,000	101.9	60.5	85.8	5.1	224.7	34.6	58.7	13.3	0.7	0.4
4,001 - 5,000	35.4	20.3	50.5	0.7	67.1	7.7	50.1	7.3	-	0.3
5,001 - 6,000	17.6	8.2	32.0	0.8	51.3	4.3	22.1	3.7	-	-
6,001 - 7,000	7.9	9.0	8.8	-	23.1	2.1	4.9	1.6	0.2	0.2
7,001 - 8,000	13.0	10.9	6.1	0.2	14.6	1.8	4.1	1.5	0.6	-
8,001 - 9,000	1.8	1.0	3.6	0.2	6.2	2.3	1.6	0.1	-	-
9,001 - 10,000	3.0	4.2	2.8	0.3	6.0	0.5	2.8	0.2	0.4	0.4
10,001 - 15,000	8.9	9.2	5.5	0.2	14.3	2.4	2.8	0.6	0.3	-
15,001 - 20,000	12.3	8.3	0.3	-	4.5	0.8	-	0.3	-	-
20,001 Up	6.5	6.2	0.1	-	3.4	-	0.7	-	-	-
Unkonwn	6.5	4.7	16.8	1.3	42.3	25.6	17.5	9.7	5.2	5.5

**Remarks :** I. Professional, Technical and Related Workers.

III. Clerical workers

V. Farmers, Fishermen, Hunter, Loggers, Miners, Quarrymen and Related Workers.

VII. Craftsmen, Production, Process Workers and Labourers.

IX. Workers not Classified by Occupation.

II. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers.

IV. Sales Workers.

VI. Workers in Transport and Communication Occupation.

VIII. Services, Sports and Recreation Workers.

**Source :** Report of the Labour Force Survey, Round 1 (February). 2532 B.E. National Statistical Office, Office of the Prime Minister.

**Table 6-6** Classification of Employed Persons by Occupation and Work Status in 1989 (2532 B.E.)

(In Thousands)

Occupation	Work Status		I		II		III		IV		V	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Total	14,871.9	11,425.4	335.2	93.6	1,126.1	641.0	4,494.3	3,007.1	6,120.3	2,581.7	2,795.9	5,101.9
1. Professional, Technical and Related Workers.	466.8	501.0	2.4	0.1	316.0	374.2	126.5	118.1	20.3	5.8	1.5	2.6
2. Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers.	362.3	85.3	193.1	34.0	123.2	43.0	41.4	5.6	3.8	2.1	0.6	0.5
3. Clerical Workers.	402.9	380.2	-	0.8	148.3	158.7	244.1	199.4	0.6	1.0	9.7	20.2
4. Sales Workers.	1,156.3	1,675.2	8.9	7.7	0.3	1.9	186.6	131.1	706.1	806.1	254.1	728.2
5. Farmers, Fishermen, Hunters, Loggers and Related Workers, Miners, Quarrymen and Related Workers.	8,515.5	6,476.5	99.0	34.3	31.7	7.7	1,365.4	1,012.2	4,640.6	1,377.9	2,378.7	4,044.3
6. Workers in Transport and Communication Occupation.	767.3	37.7	1.2	-	111.7	8.8	327.4	8.7	317.0	7.9	9.8	12.3
7. Craftsmen, Production Process Workers and Labourers.	2,696.9	1,665.3	26.3	7.4	152.3	19.8	2,008.3	1,081.7	376.8	283.5	133.0	272.7
8. Services, Sport and Recreation Workers.	494.7	592.9	3.9	9.2	240.2	25.0	188.1	442.4	54.2	95.3	8.1	20.8
9. Workers not Classified by Occupation.	8.7	10.8	0.2	-	2.0	1.7	5.9	7.4	0.5	1.6	-	-

**Remarks :** I. Employer

II. Government Employee

III. Private Employee

IV. Own Account Worker

V. Unpaid Family Worker

**Source :** Report of the Labour Force Survey, Round 1 (February) 2532 B.E. National Statistical Office. Office of the Prime Minister.

**Table 6-7** Classification of Employed Persons by Industry between 1985-1989 (2528-2532 B.E.)

(In Thousands)

Employed Persons by Industry	1985		1986		1987		1988		1989	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
	Total	12,913.8	9,688.6	13,333.9	10,146.8	14,169.6	11,018.7	14,661.3	11,327.5	14,871.9
1. Agriculture, Forestry, Hunting and Fishery.	7,648.6	5,734.5	7,751.8	5,844.8	8,101.6	6,162.4	8,621.5	6,560.3	8,595.5	6,478.3
2. Mining and Quarrying.	76.8	22.3	51.8	24.8	29.6	12.4	76.2	7.1	44.7	12.1
3. Manufacturing.	1,402.3	1,059.3	1,517.3	1,225.8	1,511.4	1,434.0	1,449.7	1,311.6	1,636.9	1,535.9
4. Construction, Repair and Demolition.	590.2	82.7	655.7	108.6	661.3	101.0	809.1	105.5	897.0	120.9
5. Electricity, Gas, Water, Sanitary Services.	117.3	16.6	90.8	18.4	104.2	19.8	96.8	20.4	95.2	19.4
6. Commerce.	1,229.5	1,430.7	1,325.5	1,482.5	1,497.3	1,699.5	1,521.5	1,642.6	1,486.1	1,615.8
7. Transport, Storage and Communication.	535.4	56.4	559.3	45.1	637.0	61.0	630.4	56.0	645.2	70.1
8. Services.	1,312.1	1,283.4	1,375.3	1,392.1	1,623.3	1,523.7	1,450.9	1,619.9	1,463.1	1,559.2
9. Activities Not Adequately Described.	1.2	2.0	5.5	4.0	3.1	4.2	4.4	3.5	7.6	12.8

**Remarks :** Labour Force in 2528-2531 B.E. are those with 11 years of age or more.

Labour Force in 2532 B.E. are those with 13 years of age or more.

**Source :** Report of the Labour Force Survey, Round 1 (February) 2528 - 2532 B.E.

National Statistical Office, Office of the Prime Minister.

**Table 6-8** Classification of Employed Persons by Work Status and Region in 1989 (2532 B.E.)

(In Thousands)

Work Status	Region		Total		I		II		III		IV		V	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Total	14,871.9	11,425.4	1,609.8	1,313.9	3,268.8	2,683.3	3,112.8	2,398.5	4,948.8	3,364.9	1,931.6	1,664.6	49.6	20.5
Employer	335.2	93.6	106.3	35.1	59.4	12.7	61.9	14.2	57.8	10.9	49.6	20.5		
Government Employee	1,126.1	641.0	255.5	187.5	284.7	158.1	204.2	123.0	245.7	97.3	135.7	74.9		
Private Employee	4,494.3	3,007.1	883.9	717.5	1,241.2	938.0	769.2	503.2	1,108.5	561.5	491.3	286.7		
Own Account Worker	6,120.3	2,581.7	276.8	196.0	1,134.2	542.3	1,492.8	538.5	2,368.6	878.6	847.8	426.2		
Unpaid Family Worker	2,795.9	5,101.9	87.1	177.7	549.0	1,032.0	584.5	1,219.4	1,168.0	1,816.4	407.0	856.2		

**Remarks :** I. Bangkok Metropolis  
 II. Central Region  
 III. Northern Region  
 IV. Northeastern Region  
 V. Southern Region

**Source :** Report of the Labour Force Survey, Round 1 (February) 2532 B.E.  
 National Statistical Office. Office of the Prime Minister.

**Table 6-9** Classification of Employed Persons by Hours Worked between 1985-1989 (2528-2532 B.E.)

(In Thousands)

Employed Persons by Hours Worked	1985		1986		1987		1988		1989	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
	Total	2,913.8	9,688.6	13,333.9	10,146.9	14,169.6	11,018.7	14,661.3	11,327.5	14,871.8
Under 10 Hours	49.9	74.3	28.7	43.3	55.2	54.3	40.4	41.3	30.8	57.7
10 - 19	147.6	260.9	144.9	210.5	179.2	267.5	140.7	193.7	139.6	170.2
20 - 29	416.3	573.3	467.1	561.9	615.6	777.8	521.1	574.4	440.0	623.0
30 - 39	1,476.1	1,259.3	1,531.3	1,467.6	1,833.8	1,666.6	1,759.9	1,811.9	1,515.0	1,574.4
40 - 49	3,305.1	2,593.1	3,367.8	2,813.5	3,653.0	3,121.4	3,631.3	3,180.5	3,618.2	3,155.6
50 - 59	3,857.0	2,686.5	3,971.3	2,554.1	3,909.0	2,646.0	4,544.2	2,963.9	4,622.4	3,073.1
60 - 69	1,490.6	908.6	1,427.5	952.2	1,579.7	919.3	1,510.8	1,028.3	1,917.6	1,036.9
70 - 79	1,923.1	1,140.4	2,026.7	1,302.6	2,035.5	1,318.8	2,103.2	1,303.5	2,203.0	1,412.8
80 - 89	192.6	154.9	300.6	193.8	243.4	186.8	337.4	173.2	308.5	243.4
90 Hours Up	54.7	36.4	67.2	46.4	64.4	59.3	71.4	56.0	75.8	77.4

**Remarks :** Labour Force in 2528-2531 B.E. are those with 11 years of age or more.

Labour Force in 2532 B.E. are those with 13 years of age or more.

**Source :** Report of the Labour Force Survey, Round 1 (February) 2528-2532 B.E.

National Statistical Office, Office of the Prime Minister.

**Table 6-10** Number of Civil Service Officer by Ministry and Sex

Ministry	No. of Government Officers			Percentage of Male to Female
	Total	Male	Female	
Total	716,181	326,162	390,019	84 : 100
1. Office of the Prime Minister	7,719	4,006	3,713	108 : 100
2. Ministry of Finance	18,698	10,730	7,968	135 : 100
3. Ministry of Foreign Affairs	1,186	715	471	152 : 100
4. Minister of Agriculture and Cooperatives	43,979	32,068	11,911	269 : 100
5. Ministry of Transport and Communications	10,354	7,535	2,819	267 : 100
6. Ministry of Commerce	3,216	1,483	1,733	86 : 100
7. Ministry of Interior	52,808	37,054	15,754	235 : 100
8. Ministry of Justice	3,967	1,589	2,378	67 : 100
9. Ministry of Science, Technology and Energy	1,784	920	864	106 : 100
10. Ministry of Education	461,379	194,896	266,483	73 : 100
11. Ministry of Public Health	70,847	19,622	51,225	38 : 100
12. Ministry of Industry	3,758	2,388	1,370	174 : 100
13. Ministry of University Affairs	33,363	11,703	21,660	54 : 100
14. Independent Public Agencies	3,123	1,453	1,670	87 : 100

- Remarks :**
1. Excluding police officers, officers of Bangkok Metropolis Administration, Jurisdical officers, public prosecution officers, political officers and extra-ordinary officers.
  2. Excluding provincial government officers, municipal officers, municipal teachers, Pattaya Municipal officers.
  3. Excluding 6,799 Teacher Education officers.
  4. Independent Public Agencies include The Royal Institute, The Bureau of the Royal Household, The Office of His Majesty's Principal Private Secretary, The Office of the Auditor-General of Thailand, The Secretariat of the National Assembly.

**Source :** Report on Survey of Government Officers 2528, Personnel Policies and Standards Division, Office of the Civil Service Commission.

**Table 6-11** Divisions in Government Agencies ranked by Number of Female Officers

Rank	Agency	No. of Female Officer	Ratio between Male : Female	Percentage of Total No. of Female Officers
1.	Office of the National Primary Education Commission	199,559	69 : 100	51.17
2.	Department of General Education	52,760	74 : 100	13.53
3.	Office of the Permanent Secretary for Public Health	41,765	37 : 100	10.71
4.	Mahidol University	6,966	24 : 100	1.79
5.	Department of Vocational Education	6,042	131 : 100	1.55
6.	Department of Medical Services	4,929	26 : 100	1.26
7.	Department of Local Administration	4,821	217 : 100	1.24
8.	The Revenue Department	4,344	73 : 100	1.11
9.	Department of Lands	2,960	204 : 100	0.76
10.	Department Of Agricultural Extension	2,859	300 : 100	0.73

**Source :** Report on Survey of Government Officers 2528, Personnel Policies and Standards Division, Office of the Civil Service Commission.

Table 6-12 Number of Civil Service officers by Level and Sex

Ministers	Total Number Of Civil Service Officers			Male Civil Service Officers			Female Civil Service Officers		
	Level 7 Up	Under Level 7	Ratio	Level 7 Up	Under Level 7	Ratio	Level 7 Up	Under Level 7	Ratio
	Total	15,133	701,048	1 : 46	10,501	315,661	1 : 30	4,632	385,387
1. Office of the Prime Minister	567	7,152	1 : 13	413	3,593	1 : 9	154	3,559	1 : 23
2. Ministry of Finance	636	18,062	1 : 28	544	10,186	1 : 19	92	7,876	1 : 86
3. Ministry of Foreign Affairs	187	999	1 : 5	176	539	1 : 3	11	460	1 : 42
4. Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives	1,612	42,367	1 : 26	1,416	30,652	1 : 22	196	11,715	1 : 60
5. Ministry of Transport and Communication	396	9,958	1 : 25	368	7,167	1 : 20	28	2,791	1 : 100
6. Ministry of Commerce	263	2,953	1 : 11	200	1,283	1 : 6	63	1,670	1 : 27
7. Ministry of Interior	1,897	50,911	1 : 27	1,799	35,255	1 : 20	98	15,656	1 : 160
8. Ministry of Justice	79	3,888	1 : 49	71	1,518	1 : 21	8	2,370	1 : 296
9. Ministry of Science, Technology and Energy	141	1,643	1 : 12	93	827	1 : 9	48	816	1 : 17
10. Ministry of Education	2,674	458,705	1 : 172	1,558	193,338	1 : 124	1,116	265,367	1 : 238
11. Ministry of Public Health	1,807	69,041	1 : 38	1,161	18,461	1 : 16	646	50,529	1 : 78
12. Ministry of Industry	227	3,531	1 : 16	191	2,197	1 : 12	36	1,334	1 : 37
13. Ministry of University Affairs	4,537	28,826	1 : 6	2,530	9,273	1 : 4	2,107	19,553	1 : 9
14. Independent Public Agencies	110	3,013	1 : 27	81	1,372	1 : 17	29	1,641	1 : 57

**Remarks :** 1. Excluding Police officers, of Bangkok Metropolis Administration, Jurisdictional officers, public prosecution officers, political officers, and extra-ordinary officers.  
2. Excluding provincial government officers, municipal officers, municipal teachers, Pattaya Municipal officers.  
3. Excluding 6,799 Teacher Education officers.  
4. Independent Public Agencies include the Royal Institute, the Bureau of the Royal Household, the Office of His Majesty's Principal Private Secretary, The Office of the Auditor - General of Thailand The Secretariat of the National Assembly.

**Source :** Report on Survey of Government Officers 2528, Personnel Policies and Standards Division, Office of the Civil Service Commission.

**Table 6-13** Government Officers at the Administrative Level by Sex

Year	Number		Ratio Male : Female
	Male	Female	
2517	38,800	5,200	7.5 : 1
2518	47,800	6,400	7.4 : 1
2519	68,400	10,900	6.3 : 1
2520	70,200	7,500	9.4 : 1
2521	78,800	11,500	6.9 : 1
2522	87,200	11,400	7.6 : 1
2523	82,900	11,500	7.2 : 1
2524	141,300	32,500	4.3 : 1
2525	162,900	45,400	3.6 : 1
2526	123,900	34,500	3.6 : 1
2527	149,600	42,800	3.5 : 1
2528	119,400	48,800	2.4 : 1

**Source :** Report of the Labour Force Survey, Round 1 (February) 2528 B.E., National Statistical Office, Office of the Prime Minister.

**Table 6-14** State Enterprises Employees in 1990 (2533 B.E.)

<b>State Enterprises</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>
1. The Tourism Authority of Thailand	726	402	324
2. The Transport Co., Ltd.	3,155	2,373	782
3. Thai Maritime Navigation Co., Ltd.	30	20	10
4. The Office of the Rubber Replanting Aid Fund	2,112	1,452	660
5. The Government Savings Bank	7,573	3,601	3,972
6. The Mass Communications Organization of Thailand	829	557	272
7. The Communications Authority of Thailand	21,964	18,971	2,993
8. The Government Pharmaceutical Organization	1,725	916	809
9. The Metropolitan Electricity Authority	12,391	10,110	2,281
10. The Business Organization of the Teacher's Council of Thailand	2,139	1,154	985
11. The Port Authority of Thailand	6,145	5,243	902
12. War Veterans Aid Organization	1,699	923	776
13. The Government Housing Bank	657	292	365
14. The Metropolitan Waterworks Authority	5,756	4,477	1,279
15. Thailand Tobacco Monopoly	7,095	4,762	2,333
16. The Thai Airways International Ltd.	14,212	9,597	4,615
17. The Battery Organization	419	343	76
18. The Telephone Organization of Thailand	18,181	12,769	5,412
19. The Fish Marketing Organization	328	279	49
20. The Dairy Farming Promotion Organization of Thailand	1,145	802	343
21. The Government Cold Storage Organization	369	314	55
22. The Electricity Generating Authority of Thailand	27,890	22,786	5,104
23. The Port Authority of Thailand	2,536	1,853	683
24. The Provincial Waterworks Authority	5,252	4,233	1,019
25. The Bangkok Mass Transit Authority	22,632	17,286	5,346
26. The Forest Industry	3,223	2,904	319
27. The Bank for Agriculture and Agricultural Cooperatives	7,205	5,432	1,773
28. The Provincial Electricity Authority	26,528	21,085	5,443
29. The Petroleum Authority of Thailand	3,740	2,802	938
30. The National Housing Authority	2,138	1,501	637
31. The Express Transportation Organization of Thailand	2,863	2,298	565
32. The Industrial Estate Authority of Thailand	301	185	116
33. The Thai Plywood Co., Ltd.	1,530	1,310	220
34. The Communications Authority of Thailand	22,399	19,269	3,130
35. The Public Warehouse Organization	429	184	245
36. The State Railway of Thailand	21,678	20,555	1,123
37. Aeronautical Radio of Thailand Ltd.	933	775	158
38. The Offshore Mining Organization	266	237	29
39. The Expressway and Rapid Transit Authority of Thailand	1,110	709	401
40. The Sports Authority of Thailand	937	323	114
41. The Government Lottery Office	731	271	460

**Table 6-14** (Cont'd) : State Enterprises Employees in 1990 (2533 B.E.)

State Enterprises	Total	Male	Female
42. The Bank of Thailand	4,672	2,463	2,209
43. Cholburi Sugar Industry Co., Ltd.	389	351	38
44. The Rubber Estate Organization	2,237	1,352	885
45. The Tanning Organization	845	514	331
46. The Marketing Organization for Farmers	440	187	253
47. Thailand Institute of Scientific and Technological Research	525	327	198
48. The Glass Organization	1,563	1,057	506
49. Sugar Factory Inc., Department of Industrial Works	742	652	90
50. Bang Pa-In Paper Industry Co., Ltd.	439	340	99
51. Northeastern Product Co., Ltd.	2,854	660	2,194
52. The Zoological Park Organization	274	245	29
53. The Marketing Organization	55	43	12

**Table 6-15** Work Status in State Enterprises by Sex in 1990 (2533 B.E.)

Work Status (Level)	Total	Male	Female	
			Number	Percentage by Total Employees
Management	3,942	3,214	728	18.46
Supervisory	14,429	10,939	3,490	24.18
Operations	233,214	177,656	55,558	23.82
Total	251,585	191,809	59,776	23.76

**Source :** Survey on 52 State Enterprises.

**Table 6-16** Female Population Age 13 Years and Older by Migration Status and Labour Status in 1989 (2532 B.E.)

Labour Status	Total	No Migration	Bangkok	Migration Status											
				Central Region		Northern Region		Northeastern Region		Southern Region		Foreign Country	NA		
				Municipal	Non Municipal	Municipal	Non Municipal	Municipal	Non Municipal	Municipal	Non Municipal				
Female Population	19,410.8	17,138.3	333.5	126.2	413.4	81.1	397.0	97.6	540.8	62.9	203.6	9.4	6.4		
Total Labor Force	13,389.1	11,716.8	250.4	75.4	295.7	62.9	307.3	68.9	415.0	43.9	142.2	5.1	5.1		
1. Current Labor Force	12,371.3	10,742.3	243.8	73.9	288.2	62.6	297.0	66.8	399.8	43.9	142.2	5.1	5.1		
1.1 Employed	11,425.4	9,941.2	197.4	63.4	272.4	60.8	282.9	49.5	368.8	41.8	137.1	4.4	5.1		
1.2 Unemployed	945.8	801.0	46.3	10.4	15.8	1.7	14.0	17.2	30.9	2.1	5.1	0.7	-		
2. Seasonally Inactive Labour Force	1,017.8	974.5	6.6	1.4	7.4	0.2	10.2	2.0	15.1	-	-	-	-		
3. Persons Not in Labour Force	6,021.6	5,412.5	83.0	50.8	117.7	18.1	89.7	28.7	125.7	19.0	61.3	4.2	1.2		
3.1 Household Work	2,824.8	2,458.9	47.8	27.6	72.5	10.9	61.5	17.7	77.0	10.1	38.1	1.9	0.4		
3.2 Studies	1,482.6	1,363.3	12.3	15.3	23.8	3.6	13.4	7.8	17.7	5.5	19.0	0.1	0.2		
3.3 Too young, too Old															
Incapable to Work	1,330.9	1,289.5	2.3	3.5	11.8	0.1	8.5	0.5	9.4	0.9	3.3	-	0.6		
3.4 Others	383.3	309.8	20.5	4.3	9.5	3.4	6.2	2.5	21.4	2.4	0.7	2.1	-		

**Source :** Report of the Labour Force Survey, Round 1 (February) 2532 B.E., National Statistical Office, Office of the Prime Minister.

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## CHAPTER 7

# **WOMEN PARTICIPATION IN SOCIETY**

# CHAPTER 7

## WOMEN PARTICIPATION IN SOCIETY

### 1. INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 The Meaning of Participation

Participation involves generating ideas, planning decision-making, monitoring and evaluation. Participation can be both direct and indirect. Participation can be actors or beneficiaries.

This chapter will emphasize participation in decision-making in 1). society at the family level and social values. 2) economics in terms of decision-making in entrepreneurship and community development for self-reliance. 3). politics and administration.

#### THE IMPORTANCE OF PARTICIPATION

Women are an important human resource in social-development, economics and politics. Participation means giving the opportunity, accepting, and supporting women for full self-development for the women themselves, men and society as well.

The status of women in social economics and politics is inferior to that of men in many points of view. So women development means social-development as a whole. Women participation at the decision making level is the most important strategy for development.

#### PARTICIPATION AS EQUALITY, DEVELOPMENT AND PEACE

The international goals for Women Development are Equality, Development and Peace.

There can be no equality if women do not participate in policy making, decision - making, planning and contribution to the society.

Development will not occur if there is no promotion of women in development or if one thinks of women development as welfare which is in the lower priority. This will make women less participating and more beneficiaries in the passive sense.

Women contribute to peace. The promotion of women participation will therefore result in a peaceful society at home and in the whole world.

Equality, Development and Peace are linked together and have a lose relationship among them. These three issues are the goals of women participation.

#### EQUALITY PERSPECTIVE

One of the models for participation is to strictly hold on to the principle of equality. This model will emphasize gender equality with the number of men and women equal at all levels of the society.

Another model of participation is the complementary model. This model emphasizes mutual support between genders.

Working on participation should consider these two models together and also evaluate them both qualitatively and quantitatively.

The promotion of equality in participation means accepting changes of women and men roles, as well as changes of attitudes.

### **DEVELOPMENT OF THE WOMEN STUDIES**

It is most important to have men fully participate in women status development. Men should assume the responsibility of all kinds of work, not thinking that these are the duty of women and not of men. They should take part in household works, look after the children so that women will have more time for other activities, especially in self-development, and prepare themselves for higher positions in their careers.

In the current situation the ratio of men and women at the higher level of occupations shows that women are significantly outnumbered by men. To be able to raise the current women status the women development plan should be included in the mainstream of the development work.

### **PARTICIPATION AS EMPOWERMENT.**

Participation in the development process does not mean only to increase numbers of women. It should also include trails of participation models. Participation in women development means to redistribute duties and increase the decision power of the women.

### **GOALS AND DIRECTIONS.**

The goals of participation promotion is to increase participation in terms of both quality and quantity in all activities, on a long term as well as on a short term.

To emphasize participation of men and women means to involve both genders in making decision of organization, sharing roles and insuring an equal number of men and women at all levels. However, the ratio should not be fixed.

### **DIRECTIONS FOR PARTICIPATION PROMOTION**

1. Set political goals toward a balance of participation.
2. Create a relationship of men and women's roles toward a change of the women status.
3. Reduce men and women prejudices and the old beliefs on men and women roles.
4. Set up the basis and tools to support women participation in administration to benefit nation.
5. Promote communication between women who need help and decision-making authority.

## **2. CURRENT SITUATION AND PROBLEMS**

### **2.1 Participation in Decision-Making in Family Level**

In Thai society women have the same family rights as men to manage the family, its financial control and to look after the assets received during the marriage. These rights are mentioned in the Civil Law and apply in most of the country except in the four Southern provinces which follow the Muslim's Law. This right is also mentioned in the United Nations Conventions on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women, No. 16. Thailand has signed this agreement in 1985.

### **CURRENT SITUATION AND PROBLEMS**

The family in Thai society emphasizes mainly production for marketing instead of for living. Women and men will work in the same capacity for producing and they share the decision - making. If we divide Thai women into 3 groups according to economic status, women in the middle or lower class have equal rights with men; but in

the higher class, their family roles are less than men because women take less part in production.

In the current situation, men who are the family leaders, migrate to work elsewhere outside home, women assuming a greater role in the decision-making process.

### **2.1.1 Roles of Rural Women in Family Decision-Making**

The situation in the rural areas concerning the decision-making process is that the role of women is not different from that of men. Decision includes decision for production, family expenses, children and family planning. But in the Northeast area, women have the major roles in making decisions for agricultural products; men participate less than women. But for decisions that have to do with high technology, men take the major role in decision - making. This includes contacting the outsiders and village meetings. Some activities where women and men participate together are those related to the discipline of their children.

There are some evidence showing a change in decision-making trends that will make women participate more in family decision-making.

- new technology, machines, and tools which take less labour.
- lack of men labour due to men health, and labour migration
- needs of more income for widows, single women who will have to do more work to earn their living
- etc.

### **2.1.2 Family Decision - Making, Roles of Women Administration**

In cases where women are in administration, 62% of them assume decision-making responsibilities. This indicates the degree to which they are self-confident in making decisions.

### **2.1.3 Decision-Making Power Conditions**

There are four conditions for family decision-making: education, income, age, and women family background.

1. If the women have higher education they tend to have more power in family decisions.
2. Those with higher incomes have more power.
3. During early marriage men will have more power. After more than 20 years of marriage the decision power will move to women.
4. Women with a family background in civil service family are more confident in decision-making; this is particularly true in the group of women administrators.

### **2.1.4 Participation in Family Decision-Making and Results**

Women participation in family decision-making will affect to the security of the marriage; women mentality allowing for flexibility in managing the family, will depend largely on the flexibility of the family conditions.

#### **Trends and Expectations for the Future**

Women participation in the family decision-making process is not likely to be a problem. Women tend to participate more in family issues than others. Thai women tend to take the major role in family decisions more and more as compared to the western countries. Thai men seem to need a supportive role on the part of women for their decisions.

However, there is some evidence showing that limitation in the decision-making power of women is related to lack of information. This is especially true in the rural areas where women have less access to information.

Consequently, they seem to be reluctant to make decisions and leave this role and power to men.

There are two issues that need special attention with regards to the role of women in the family decision-making process.

1. Raising and discipline of the children,
2. House chores.

These two issues need to be taken by other members of the family so women will have the opportunity to participate in the other things which men are doing such as politics. These two issues cause a smaller number of women to participate in politics, high ranking positions and leaders.

The house chores and the raising of children can be reduced by the assistance of relatives or house helpers or husband and also through the use of some domestic machines.

## **2.2 WOMEN PARTICIPATION AS ENTREPRENEUR AND IN BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION**

In the past, nobody mentioned the participation of women as entrepreneur and in business administration. The present plan for women development includes the participation of women in this field by emphasizing the change of the structure of the social-economic order. At present the structure has changed rapidly because of changes technology and industrialization resulting in an increasing number of women participating in Business.

### **CURRENT SITUATION**

The private sector supports women labour involvement at all levels but the greater number of women enter the private sector at the labour level instead of the administration one. The number of women in higher positions is still less than that of men. The number of women in clerk positions is 3 times higher than that of men. (see table 7-1)

**Table 7-1** Position in the Business Administration of Women Classified According to Decision - Making Level.

Type	Position	Number of Female	Percent
I. President	1. Chairman	16	4.02
	2. President	14	3.27
	3. Vice - President	10	2.51
II. Director	1. Director	88	22.11
	2. M.D. (Managing Director)	58	14.57
III. Manager	1. Finance Manager	77	19.35
	2. Marketing Manager	16	4.02
	3. Accounting Manager	15	3.77
	4. General Manager	15	3.77
	5. Personnel Manager	14	3.52
	6. Administration Manager	14	3.52
	7. Purchasing Manager	10	2.51
	8. Sales Manager	10	2.51
	9. Factory Manager	6	1.51
	10. Import & Export Manager	4	1.01
	11. Production Manager	4	1.01
	12. Promotion Manager	2	0.05
	13. Q.C. Manager	1	0.25
IV. Chief	1. Data Processing	6	1.51
	2. Human Resources	3	0.75
	3. Technical	3	0.75
	4. Credit	2	0.50
	5. Control	2	0.50
	6. Treasure & Funding	2	0.50
	7. Trading	1	0.25
V. Others		6	1.51
Total		398	100.00

**Source:** International Business Research, Million Baht, Business Information Thailand 1989.

The roles of the Thai women are still bound to family roles more than to business roles. If women participate in entrepreneur activities they tend to participate in the financial section more than in other positions. They are fewer women participating in high rank positions. If women are in high rank positions they tend to be the shareholders, owners rather than employees. Women participate less in electronic or computer type of businesses. Women participate mainly in family businesses.

There are three causes that lead women to participate in business:

- need for success in one's career
- need to have their own income and be well accepted by the society
- economic necessity.

Factors limiting the number of women in high positions:

- Social values;
- Family roles and responsibilities;
- Social discrimination to women;
- Part of the private sector does not mention gender in recruiting employees. Smaller numbers of women employed might be due to:
  - lack of knowledge and experience;
  - family responsibilities;
  - characteristics and personality;
  - physical fitness.

External factors that constitute obstacles for women in business are:

- social values and attitudes towards women in Thai society;
- support of high level administration;
- less opportunity to reach high level positions, gender discrimination, etc.

### **2.3 WOMEN PARTICIPATION IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT**

Women are the important target group for rural development, especially in empowering the community for development and also in stimulating participation in planning and doing activities of the women in the rural areas. It was found that women in the villages tend to know the problems and needs of the villages; they know what the community needs or lack and how to solve problems. So if there were more women participating in rural development, it would progress help.

Women also have other roles in economic matters of the family besides production which is the main occupation of the family. Women can participate in activities that will results in supplemental income for the family such as livestock raising and handicrafts.

#### **CURRENT SITUATION AND PROBLEMS**

At present rural women constitute are important sector in rural development. They are more aware and interested in participation in rural development. They are willing to contribute time toward a better society. Women are well accepted and are given the honour of a high position in the community. There is an increasing tendency of women to become community leaders. There are large numbers of women participating in the family and industrial sector more than in the agricultural sector. This shows that women are aware of income generating opportunities for increasing their income from other occupations besides agriculture. However, results of rural development in the past were both positive and negative. In the past, rural development activities emphasized the rights and needs of women.

Even though the government gave about 80% support in setting up women organizations in the communities and tried to provide means to empower them, increase skills and opportunities for women, there is still a need for greater efforts.

At present women leaders in community organizations receive training for their roles but successes are few due to lack of personnel, too little attention, and lack of support including provision of funds.

## 2.4 WOMEN PARTICIPATION IN NGOs AND PEOPLE ORGANIZATIONS

NGOs are organizations that link groups with less access to opportunities with the service sector and also assist the community to become self-reliant, thereby contributing to the development process.

People organizations are those operating at the baseline level for the purpose of fostering an awareness of their rights and promoting their bargaining power.

These two types of organizations are very important for the social-economic development of the nation. Women can participate with these two kinds of organizations as target groups or as administrators to carry on the activities for the organization.

### CURRENT SITUATION

#### 2.4.1 Non-government Organizations

There are at present about 191 organizations in Thailand with 26.2% of women in high administration positions, 35.6% of them as coordinators. This shows that women participation in the NGOs is greater than in the GOs due to the following reasons:

- Women are more interested in social welfare.
- There are a number of middle and high class women willing to contribute their time to work in the NGOs.
- NGOs works have an approach where power is more decentralized and where there is less competition.

**Table 7-2** Number of Administration Positions in Non-Government Organizations by Sex and Region (N = 191)

Position	Total & Percentage	Central	Northeast	North	South	Bangkok
Male high administrator	132 (69.1)	12 (75)	23 (74.2)	21 (87.5)	10 (76.9)	66 (61.7)
Female high administrator	50 (26.2)	3 (18.8)	4 (12.9)	3 (12.5)	2 (15.4)	38 (35.5)
No information	9 (4.7)	1 (6.2)	4 (12.9)	-	1 (7.7)	3 (2.8)
Male coordinator	116 (60.7)	12 (75)	24 (77.4)	16 (66.7)	11 (84.6)	53 (49.5)
Female coordinator	60 (35.6)	2 (12.5)	6 (19.4)	8 (33.3)	1 (7.7)	51 (47.7)
No information	7 (3.7)	2 (12.5)	1 (3.2)	-	1 (7.7)	3 (2.8)

**Source :** Computer and Information Service, August 1990.

If the number of administrators are classified by types of activities, women will have the highest rank in the field of social welfare, campaigning, stimulation to the children and youth and slum people which reflects the interest of women in the past. (see table 7-3)

**Table 7-3** Number of Administration Positions in Non-Government Organizations by Sex and Activities & Target Groups

Position	Human Rights	Community Development	Academic	Campaign	Fund	Social welfare
Male high administrator	6 (66.7)	59 (80.8)	5 (71.4)	16 (66.7)	4 (100)	9 (40.9)
Female high administrator	2 (22.2)	12 (16.4)	1 (14.3)	7 (29.2)	0	13 (59.1)
No information	1 (11.1)	2 (2.8)	1 (14.3)	1 (4.1)	0	0
Male coordinator	6 (66.7)	52 (71.2)	3 (42.9)	14 (58.3)	2 (50)	9 (40.9)
Female coordinator	3 (33.3)	20 (27.4)	4 (57.1)	9 (37.5)	2 (50)	13 (59.1)
No information	0	1 (1.4)	0	1 (4.2)	0	0

These 191 NGOs are members of the NGO-CORD. NGO-CORD is an organization established to help and support all the NGOs and also to foster collaboration between NGOs and GOs.

The ratio of men and women as administrators in the NGOs is higher in social welfare activities, due to women's interest in this field and their skills. There are 30 women NGOs (1987); among these 30 NGOs, 26 organizations are managed by women.

#### 2.4.2 Cooperatives

There are 2,817 cooperatives with 2,882,128 members (1987) which are the main basic organizations aimed directly at the people.

In the Department of Cooperatives Extension, there are 33.8% of women officers, 20.5% of these women being at the P.C. 7-10 level. The small percentage of women at the high level may be due to the type of work which is mainly field work, a difficult work for women.

#### 2.4.3 Agricultural Group

There are 3,944 agricultural groups; of these only 15 have women as chairpersons and most of them are in the regional and provincial areas. There are only 3 women out of 18 members in the national committee. Even though women contribute much to the agricultural sector there are only few in administration posts.

#### 2.4.4 Labour Union

In 1975 there were 287 unions with 4,200 committee members in Thailand. Only 31 of these were women labour unions. Among the total of 287 unions only 10.8% were women committee members. In the mixed unions there are 9 unions who selected women as chairperson. Even though the major part, about half of the labour contribution in the industrial sector, are women, women participation in the protection of their rights and benefits is still very low.

## **2.5 WOMEN PARTICIPATION IN LOCAL ADMINISTRATION**

Village and Tambon are the basic communities for villages. Most of the villages at present are very poor, underdeveloped, lack of both natural resources and human resources. Villages and Tambon are also the basis for politics and administration. In the democratic development process this implies the development of local administration according to the principle of self administration. At present, local administration is still under the supervision of the central administration.

Local administration means the combination of many sectors in the local areas such as provincial council, Municipality council, tambon council, which all need development and women participation. The participation of women in politics needs to start from the village level up to the country level.

### **PARTICIPATION IN VILLAGE AND TAMBON ADMINISTRATION**

There are about 520,810 village committees which include 20,214 women (4%) Also there are only 948 women (0.84%) out of 112,992 Tambon council members. Local leaders at Present include 31 women Kamnan, 219 women, out fo 20,019, Kamnan assistants, and inspectors of village doctors. The smaller number of these woman local administrators might due to:-

1. Less opportunity for women to participate because women have been allowed to participate only 8 years ago.
2. Less leading power for women to enter the local administration position. Such power sources are:-
  - relationship with the persons who were the position before;
  - interest in participating;
  - challenging work.
3. Women are not well accepted by the community; nor is it convenient for them to be on duty at night. There are also family responsibilities.
4. Local leader impression:-
  - satisfied with the work
  - many women who participate at the local level are also interested to participate at the provincial and national level.

From interviews with local government officers it was found that women local leaders can perform their duties as well as men. They have also more advantages over men for public relations and cooperation. Villagers want to have more women local leaders than men. The disadvantage of women local leaders is that they cannot do risky jobs.

### **PROVINCIAL COUNCIL**

The participation of women at the provincial level is as follow:

- the ratio of voting women is the same as that of men but is higher than the ratio for voting for MP.
- apply for provincial council or receive vote and become P.C. was in the low percentage.

However, the number of women elected is increasing.

### **MUNICIPALITY COUNCIL**

The information on the women participation in the Municipality Council is not complete. The data received among the 356 members indicate that these are only 17 women. The number of men working in municipality offices all oves the country is 3 times higher than that of women.

## **PATTAYA CITY AND BANGKOK METROPOLITAN**

The only information collected on Pattaya city shows the number of officers. The number of men officials is higher than that of women just as in Metropolitan Bangkok.

The number of the Bangkok Metropolitan officers include more men than women.

Participation of women as local leaders on the basis of the information received is lower than that of men.

## **RECOMMENDATIONS**

1. Give women more opportunity and also support.
2. Stimulate and raise awareness and interest for greater participation in local administration.

## **2.6 PARTICIPATION IN THE CIVIL SERVICE AND PUBLIC ENTERPRISES**

Formerly, it was considered honorable to enter the civil service. This was an occupation which carried prestige and it was usually a domain reserved to educated men. Later, as women began to have access to higher education they were also able to join the civil service.

Factors that encourage women to go into the civil service are as follows:

1. No gender discrimination in most of the civil service departments and agencies except for certain positions only.
2. Economical necessity.
3. Women have access to various occupations according to their educational field.
4. Attitudes towards the gender issue and socio-economic changes.

## **CURRENT SITUATION**

According to the 1985 statistics, there were about 1.78 million civil servants and temporary supporting staff, of whom 50% were women (see table 7-4 and 7-5) Public enterprises employed about 214,373 persons of whom 30% were women. The increase rate of women in the civil service is about 47% whereas for men the rate of increase is only 19%. The reason for this situation is that men in the civil service change jobs or are dismissed more often than women. Also, the private sector attracts men because of better wages. There is a great need for men in administrative positions in the private sector, thus providing greater opportunities for advancement.

**Table 7-4** Number of Civil Servants in 1985

<b>Agencies</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>Officers</b>	<b>Supporting staff</b>	<b>Temporary staff</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>1,780,385</b>	<b>909,678</b>	<b>233,913</b>	<b>636,794</b>
Prime Minister Office	10,192	7,720	1,599	873
Ministry of Finance	25,300	18,700	3,967	2,633
Ministry of Foreign Affairs	2,202	1,186	150	866
Ministry of Agriculture & Cooperatives	662,260	43,981	64,675	553,604
Ministry of Transport Communication	62,162	10,364	17,653	34,145
Ministry of Commerce	4,234	3,216	676	342
Ministry of Interior	221,499	189,589	14,031	7,879
Ministry of Justice	6,490	5,014	1,405	71
Ministry of Science, Technology and Energy	4,356	1,784	1,794	778
Ministry of Education	520,699	468,182	46,019	6,498
Ministry of Public Health	120,782	70,870	41,625	8,287
Ministry of Industry	7,526	3,758	2,500	1,268
Ministry of University Affairs	53,188	33,363	15,220	4,605
Independent Public Agencies	4,627	3,123	1,467	37
Others	85,868	48,828	21,132	14,908

**Source :** The Office of the Civil Service Commission

**Table 7-5** Number of Civil Servants by Sex and Ministries in 1985

Agencies	Total	Male	Female	Percentage of Female
<b>Total</b>	<b>716,781</b>	<b>326,162</b>	<b>393,019</b>	<b>54.8</b>
Prime Minister Office	7,719	4,006	3,713	48.10
Ministry of Finance	18,698	10,730	7,968	42.61
Ministry of Foreign Affairs	1,186	715	471	39.71
Ministry of Agriculture & Cooperatives	43,979	32,068	11,911	27.08
Ministry of Transport Communication	10,354	7,535	2,819	27.23
Ministry of Commerce	3,216	1,483	1,733	53.89
Ministry of Interior	52,808	37,054	15,754	29.83
Ministry of Justice	3,967	1,589	2,378	59.94
Ministry of Science, Technology and Energy	1,784	920	864	48.43
Ministry of Education	461,379	194,896	266,483	57.76
Ministry of Public Health	70,847	19,622	54,225	76.54
Ministry of Industry	3,758	2,388	1,370	36.46
Ministry of University Affairs	33,363	11,703	21,660	84.92
Independent Public Agencies	3,123	1,453	1,670	53.47

**Source :** The Office of the Civil Service Commission

Table 7-5 shows the number of civil servants by sex. This table shows that the Ministry of Health and University Affairs have more female civil servants than male ones while the Ministry of Agriculture, Transportation and Interior have fewer female civil servants.

The quantity of female civil servants is not the problem. The problem is the quality of female civil servants which shows fewer female civil servants in higher positions. The number of female civil servants in the P.C. 7 category and up is lower than that of males. (see table 7-6)

**Table 7-6** Female Civil Servants in High Positions

P.C. 9 - 11				
	Total	Male	Female	Percentage
P.C. 11	22	22	-	0
P.C. 10	143	136	7	4.9
P.C. 9	177	163	14	7.9
Total	342	321	21	6

**Source :** The Office of the Civil Service Commission

## **PROBLEMS AND LIMITATIONS**

Even though the civil service is open to women, but there are still many limitations and problems such as:

- discrimination;
- less opportunity for promotion, further education overseas including study tours;
- family responsibilities and social values whereby women are expected to look after the welfare of family members.
- nature of work in the civil service and public enterprises: women engage in individual work more than group work;
- present civil service favours for human resources development;
- no real policy and support for women development.

## **FUTURE TRENDS**

In the next decade the situation of women participation will be as follow:

- numbers of female civil servants will higher than that of male;
- high number of female in the lower levels;
- high potential of male and female civil servants, more migration to higher pay jobs in the private sector.

## **2.7 PARTICIPATION IN POLITICS**

At present there are less women participating in politics because it is believed that politics is a man's world. In some countries women have no equal right in politics. In the Thai society, by law, women have equal rights to participate in politics. Participation in politics can be at many levels both local and national levels.

### **CURRENT SITUATION AND PROBLEMS ACCESS TO MINISTERIAL POSTS IN CABINET**

Since Thailand changed from an absolute monarchy to a democracy, women have had the opportunity to be ministers in many governments but very few of them were appointed.

During the 40th Government with Mr. Thanin Kraivichien as Prime Minister there were two lady ministers Khunying Lersak Sombatsiri as Minister of Transport and Assoc. Prof. Wimolsiri Chamnanvej as Minister of University Affairs.

In the 42th Government with General Kriangsak Chamanan as Prime Minister, Dr. Yupa Udomsak was Minister of Education.

In the 46th Government with General Chartchai Chunhavean as Prime Minister, Khunying Supatra Masdit was Minister of the Prime Minister's Office.

In the 47th Government with Mr. Anant Punyarachun as Prime Minister, Dr. Saisuree Chutikul was Minister of the Prime Minister's Office.

In the 48th Government with General Suchinda Kraprayoon as Prime Minister, Mrs. Puanglek Boonchiang was Deputy Ministry of Commerce.

In the 49th Government with Mr. Anant Punyarachun as Prime Minister, Dr. Saisuree Chutikul was again Minister of the Prime Minister's Office.

In the Present Government, the 50th one, Mrs. Tuanjai Nuuppala is Deputy Minister of Public Health.

During the past 56 years there have been only 7 lady ministers in the Thai Government.

### **COMMISSIONS OF THE PARLIAMENT**

There are 17 Commissions in the present Parliament where there are very few women found in these sections: Women and Social Welfare, Culture, Tourism, Environment and Finance.

### **MEMBERS OF PARLIAMENT**

Some women have participated as members of parliament since 1948 but very few of them. In the year 1993 there were 13 women as MPs.

In the Senate there has been only a few women appointed; out of 267 seats, there are 6 women senators.

### **PARTICIPATION IN VOTING**

From the survey it appears that only 43% of the electoral vote comes from women.

### **TRENDS AND EXPECTATIONS**

The need for women participation in politics is not only for higher numbers but also for quality and efficiency of participation. The participation of women MPs is still a passive one more than a true democratic participation. Women MPs should play a role in decision-making, particularly decisions on important policies. The women who have high potential in participating in politics usually have a family back-up. Women in general have less opportunities to be MPs.

In raising the women awareness in participating in politics, there is a need to study the attitude toward politics and women leaders, the attitude of women toward women MPs and women interest in becoming women politicians. There is need to encourage women to vote for women since most women tend to vote for men.

## **2.8 PARTICIPATION IN INTERNATIONAL PEACE**

Peace does not mean a non-warlike situation but it also means equality of conditions in the social and economic order by means of peace.

Social peace can hardly exist if there is no promotion of equality for women. Such equality will lead to social peace.

In situations of poverty and underdevelopment those immediately affected are usually women. They suffer most in societies where there are violence and fights such as in times of war. It is believed that if women increase their participation to create peace, there will be new dimensions in the society.

### **CURRENT SITUATION**

Among the 800 world leaders involved in peace there are only 4 women. Women participate still less in decision-making about peace. There are still fewer women leaders who are able to devote themselves to society:

- there are no data about women participation at the international level;
- participation in the promotion of peace can be achieved through such role as ambassador, and officer in the United Nations Organizations. There are about 15 women out of 42 in WHO.

### **3. ANALYZING OF THE SITUATION**

Data on women participation in society are not up-to-date and very scattered. This chapter will present a synthesis of this participation and try to point out the reasons why there is less participation by women in this field.

#### **3.1 GENDER EQUITY**

##### **CULTURAL ASPECT**

A review of the current situation and problems shows that there are still gender inequity concerning women participation in society. The small numbers of women found in positions of leadership or involved at the decision-making level is a clear indicator of this situation. The areas where women have little to say and where they are outnumbered by men are business, politics and administration in general. There is an organization culture which is most evident in the world of politics which is typically a male culture.

##### **GROUP DYNAMICS AND PARTICIPATION**

In groups that have more male members, women participation tends to be less. If women participate, it appears as interference in the works of the majority of the group members (the men) and it will create pressures resulting in discrimination.

Group dynamics seem to contribute to preserve the old culture without interference from the minority group.

##### **PARTICIPATION RATIO**

Types of dynamics can be classified according to the percentages of the minority:

- homogeneous group with less than 1% minority is classified as "Closed Group".
- groups with non-major members between 1-15% show clear discrimination and can be called "Beginner Group"
- groups with non-major members between 16-35% appears as "Growing groups".
- groups with non-major members more than 35% are "Balanced Group".

The ratio of women participation should be increased in all activities and at all levels. Any activity not providing the opportunity for participation should set up the goal of reaching the level of a "Balanced Group".

Women Participation at the level of "Balanced Group" will help changing men's attitude and will lead to a new organization's culture.

Women and men are different but this difference is not against equity. In addition to human rights of all, and duty rights and opportunity rights there has to be participation rights.

##### **PROBLEMS AT THE ROOT OF THE "OLD-SYSTEM"**

Today, there is greater women participation but the gender issue still remains. Women leaders have distinctive characteristics ; they are honest, sensitive, tolerant, soft hearted and less decision-making oriented. Although these are good characteristics, sometimes they may cause delays of action, not to mention the family worries that women have to cope with. Therefore, greater participation is not only a gender issue. It is a complex problem involving all the factors already mentioned.

The one role that result in participation problems is the family role of women involving tasks such as domestic chores, care of children, etc.

There is the socio-economic problem which obliges women to work for supplemental income for the family. Any work that limit time for women to improve their skills for their careers will result in less opportunity for promotion. Women who are very successful in entering high ranking positions or becoming leaders must overcome all kinds of obstacles including the trust in their own work. Even though they are very successful they still have to face this suspicion because of prejudices on women efficiency and ability.

Discrimination is the old issue for women entering business. Business is not for women in the mind of many. "Discrimination is also a Culture". Women have to fight with such prejudices for a long period of time before they are able to participate more in other activities, and still do so with less support.

The progress of women's work needs not only the support of male bosses but also the support from colleagues at work. Women still do not trust female leaders, not to mention envy which is often a problem with women.

But inspite of all forms of discrimination, many women with a high potential and energy are able to overcome these obstacles and play a significant role in the development of society.

In the mist of changes, development opportunities are widely open. Progress in science and technology is an important factor change in our society. Accesss to information gives opportunities to both men and women. To the extent that such opportunities increase, the gap between men and women narrows down. However, it seems that men tend to develop better and faster than women. However, when less importance is given to the role of men and equal opportunity is given to both men and women there is hope for greater equity.

Both men and women should be aware of this change and willing to offer the opportunity to each other. Men and women have to improve their potentials together and decrease the gap.

### **PARTICIPATION DETERMINATION**

The promotion of women participation presupposes a clear intention and a strong will on the part of those responsible for it. To increase this participation, especially for women at the leadership level, there is a need for training. Here the involment of competent men will be a sure sign of the determination to achieve this goal. Given the fact that all human beings are equal regardless of sex, race, religion and social class, it follows that the promotion of one segment of the society such as women will eventually result in the advancement of the whole society and humankind.

Participation by all is an ideal. In a world where competition is a fact of life, one country will not survive if it does not exploit all its human potential and talent fully for both men and women. Competition is not in the field of trade only. It also include the psycho-social aspect of human behaviour. In this regard, policy makers and planners must understand this aspects of women development and participation. This also involves the political sphere. Political determination for socio-economic development should be translated at least in setting up a Women Development Institute as a centre for research and action.

## **4. RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **4.1 Recommendation on policies**

- 1) The Government should have a clear policy to encourage women participation at all levels, especially at the decision-making level.
- 2) The Government, by a resolution of the Council of Ministers, should see that all ministerial, departmental and divisional agencies increase their proportion of women administrators, senior women judges, and make progress report periodically on this matter.
- 3) The government should provide educational opportunities for women, particularly in the non-traditional sector. Education is the most essential factor to support social status.
- 4) The public and private sectors should encourage women to participate in development projects where both men and women are involve to foster integration which is an essential part of this process.
- 5) The public and private sectors should encourage and also cooperate in collecting data about women participation at all levels especially the decision-making level and also support research on measures to overcome these problems.
- 6) The public and the private sectors should disseminate information and data concerning women for their benefit.
- 7) The public and the private sectors should cooperate in promoting awareness of the problems and new values. The worth of persons based on their knowledge and work ability, self-confidence, job devotion and other common characteristics that are common to all, and not related to gender issues.
- 8) The public and the private sectors should provide preschool child care services for government officers and employees. Maternal leave should be extended longer for raising new born babies. They should be allowed to go back to work only after being freed from family duties. This should apply to both men and women.
- 9) The public and the private sectors should encourage setting up courses on "Women Studies and Gender Roles" and also include such courses in the general curriculum at the secondary level and tertiary level.
- 10) The Government should formulate laws for the protection of women to avoid discrimination, especially in job application, remuneration, job advancement. Independent organizations or ombudsman, should be established to deal with complaints, and have the power to conduct inquiries when there is an appeal about discrimination in both the public and private sectors.
- 11) The government should withdraw its reservation on CEDAW and the parliament should ratify declarations accordingly. The present constitution should be amended to include provisions towards the equity of women rights.
- 12) The government should encourage the NGOs and people organizations both domestic and international to assist women development.

### **4.2 MEASURES TO BE TAKEN**

1. Participation at family level (promotion measures)
  - More efficient measures to prevent double marriage registrations.
  - The public and the private sectors should provide consultative services concerning sex education, marriagelife, occupational planning and roles of family members.
  - Develop and produce documentation to inform women groups e.g. in the form of newsletters which should include useful information, the content being directed to the target group.
  - Research on the cause of divorce should be conducted.

2. Measures to promote participation in entrepreneurship and business development.
- The present women development plans would like to see women succeed in business as well as in other areas. We should pay more attention to the physiological aspect of women, especially those who are mothers, who want to start their own business. Physiological considerations certainly affect these women and the way they raise up their children, including their relationship with their husband and family. Various factors affect women and their decisions to enter business ; i.e. size of family, number of children, support from husband, division of household responsibilities.
  - Trends on women participation in business, show that they take up more roles in financial and managerial sides ; however, in other aspects, especially at the level of day workers and labourers. Thus, there should be measures to upgrade the status of women, whether it be in the form of interest groups to foster legal equality, equal pay, and to abolish harassment and discrimination against women.
  - To promote women to enter business; it is not enough to look at the conventional professions where women are in a high proportion already, but other occupations where women have the ability to perform should also be promoted. This should include large organizations since women at present only have managing roles in small and medium size businesses. The types of business to be promoted, in general, should consider matters of future subsistence by looking at new materials, marketing, opportunity to grow and government support.
  - Career path development of women should be studied by both the public and the private sectors in order to understand supportive factors and identify appropriate measures to promote professional advancement of both men and women.
  - The private sector should provide welfare and set up working procedures that encourage their employees, both men and women to raise their own child and take care of their own homes.
  - The public and private sectors should conduct studies concerning participation of women in art, innovation work and mass media.
  - The government and the private sectors, should collect statistics and information concerning managers and major businesses such as banks, financial institutes, export activities etc. in order to make comparative studies concerning women in business.
  - Private businesses that have more than 100 employees, should have a human-resource development plan that includes plans to develop women abilities to enable them to reach the management level in appropriate proportions. The NCWA might play the role of asking for progress reports every two years on this matter.

#### **4.3 MEASURES TO PROMOTE PARTICIPATION IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT**

- Restructure and reorganize women's groups at the community level in order to encourage them to work effectively.
- Promote and encourage women to participate in rural development activities at all levels, starting from leadership according to their personal intention and ability, without any discrimination against sexes.
- Promote women in rural areas, at early ages, to be aware of their rights and their roles in rural development.
- Support studies and research on women participation in rural development in order to find new approaches to solve obstacles, and determine appropriate and balanced methods for development, to be used as guidelines to prepare programmes and projects to promote roles of women in the following decade, keeping up with future changes in the economy, society and the political environments.
- The government should provide manuals, documents, learning curricula for training of women's organizations at all levels, to strengthen the access to modern technology to increase productivity in

agriculture and cottage industries.

- The government should allocate an appropriate proportion of government budget allocations and/or funds from NGOs abroad to be used in women development projects in rural areas which are essential target groups.
- The government should support private women's associations that aim at supporting themselves by using natural methods according to their needs and condition in terms of social and economic situations.
- The government should monitor community development work, agricultural promotion, industrial promotion, credit and loan services activities, etc. to see whether they were adequately provided to both men and women in the rural areas.
- The government should emphasize training courses on appropriate technology, marketing and management for women target groups.
- The government should study land ownership and land reform issues to decide whether women lose their advantages or not.

#### **4.4 MEASURES TO PROMOTE PARTICIPATION BY NGOs**

- The government and the private sectors should promote basic participation in order to increase women's ability.
- The government should cooperate with the NGOs and also support the NGOs to work effectively, especially those which have women as their target groups.
- The government should encourage women participation in family groups, cooperatives and trade unions by provide educational and other services to educate and upgrade women's abilities in managing those groups.
- The government, the NGOs and people organizations should compile statistics and conduct studies, as well as promote women participation in the NGOs and people's organizations, especially at the management level.

#### **4.5 MEASURES TO PROMOTE WOMEN PARTICIPATION IN LOCAL ADMINISTRATION**

- The government should train women leaders with regard to local government and local administration. Training courses for kamnan and villages headmen should be arranged to promote them to run for higher position.
- Term of office of kamnan and villages headman should be limited. Also, women should be encouraged to hold those positions.
- The government should collect statistics and study women participation in local administration.

#### **4.6 MEASURES TO PROMOTE WOMEN PARTICIPATION IN THE CIVIL SERVICE AND PUBLIC ENTERPRISES**

- Rules, arts and regulations that limit equality of opportunities among sexes should be amended as follows :-
  - Job descriptions of any department that specify for a position "for men only" should be abolished.
  - Recruitment and selection of employees must conducted by holding principles of equity and avoid any bias against women.
  - Delegation of responsibilities should not be based on gender matters, since women need opportunities to perform according to their abilities.

- Promoting or transfer of positions must be strictly based on the ability of employees.
- Promote women to take up position which they have never been doing.
- Social attitudes against working women should be altered by :-
  - creating common understanding that women are not an obstacle for work, and change myths (and other negative beliefs) that women are weak, sensitive, lack achievement mind and decisiveness.
  - providing basic education starting at the primary level about human nature, "Gender Based Analysis" as well as equality among sexes and marriage life.
  - setting up measures to encourage society to accept and support successful women.
- Women should use their initiative qualities i.e. human relationship, frankness, to support job advancement instead of arguing about rights using unreasonable causes.
- Organizations for women development may take following roles and activities :
  - Encourage civil service officers and public enterprises employees to be members of professional associations, civil service associations, and trade unions, as well as encourage women members to assume management posts in those organizations.
  - Encourage women to become executive members of trade unions.
  - Encourage women to enter women's groups and perform activities relevant to the development of their abilities.
- Control agencies in personnel management of the Government should have follow the Perspective Women Development Plan in order to increase women abilities and efficiency, starting by collecting essential data and information concerning women and analyzing their gender roles, since there are different backgrounds, problems, and needs among men and women workers.
- Women should have opportunities to participate in policy making in relation to personnel development at all levels.
- The government should study causes for fewer female civil servants in high positions in some certain ministries, and identify appropriate solutions.
- In appointing members of various government boards such as NESPB Board, Consumer Protection Board, Environment Management Board, National Education Board, etc., women participation should be taken into account Suggestions from the NCWA should be sought.
- For appointments or promotions, in cases of the many persons having equal ability, the government give priority to women.

#### **4.7 MEASURES TO PROMOTE POLITICAL PARTICIPATION**

- Women's organizations and also parliamentary organizations should make to promote more local women to participate in politics in the parliamentary process. Supporting funds may be set up to assist women who run for elections, including recruiting local women leaders to contest seats in the House of Representatives.
- In appointing House Standing-Committees, the women representatives should be considered.
- The government and the private sectors should promote the establishment of women's organizations, and should provide political education for their members.
- Political parties should encourage women members for more political participation both at the internal and external levels.
- The NCWA should give special attention for more political participation of women groups. The programme to promote political participation should be sent to agencies concerned and the NCWA should monitor, collect data, generate information and ideas as well as raise funds to support activities in promote political participation of women.
- Networking of academicians, politicians and those who are interested in the political participation of

- women; both men and women should be encouraged to assist each other to study common issues.
- The study women attitudes towards women politicians should be conducted according to item 5.2.7.
  - The government should support more women in the Senate.
  - The Ministry of Interior should collect statistics on voters at all levels, by sex and constituencies.
  - Education institutions, together with political parties, should provide training courses on politics, both theoretical and practical aspects in order to increase the knowledge and skills of women to enter politics and become good politicians.
  - The mass media and the political parties should cooperate in conducting public relations of successful women in politics, as well as inform the public about women who were world leaders to encourage younger women to increase their concern for politics.
  - Political parties should have a policy to set up an appropriate proportion of women who will run for MPs seats under their name also, they should have clear a policy in promoting the status of women.
  - Women development organizations should propose their recommendations concerning women issues for political parties for consideration and use as their policy in running for elections.

#### **4.8 MEASURES TO PROMOTE, PARTICIPATION IN INTERNATIONAL ROLES AND IN THE PROMOTION OF PEACE.**

- The Ministry of Foreign Affairs should increase the proportion of women in the positions of Ambassador and national representatives in the international bodies.
- Women development organizations should participate in international networking in order to exchange knowledge and experiences as well as promote better international understanding.
- Women development organizations should participate in campaigns for peace.
- The government should provide support for the NGOs that have roles in assisting women who face harassment or violence by their husband or other persons in the families.
- Studies should be conducted to identify the causes of violence against women in the society, as well as set up measures to prevent or reduced such violence.

CHAPTER 8

**WOMEN AND ENVIRONMENT**

## CHAPTER 8

### WOMEN AND ENVIRONMENT

#### 1. BACKGROUND INFORMATION

While the depletion of natural resources and the degradation of the quality of the environment have been widely discussed it remains obscure how their intricate interactions on a global scale are publicly perceived. However, population growth and its demand on natural resources are believed to create a critical stress on natural assets and lead to the disruption of the ecological balance. This leads to even more conflicts in sharing limited resources; as a consequence, national security and stability are threatened.

Unwise management of natural resources can be witnessed when technology developments take place without provision for adequate preventive measures. Often the use of resources is geared not only to meet basic needs but it also serves redundant commercial purposes. This sort of extravagance reflects ever more sophisticated consumer demands. Therefore, a study of such demands may offer a clue as to the most effective measures to curve down such unjustified demands.

In the past decades physical stress on the environment and especially on mankind has become more evident. Unwittingly, it is those who were to be beneficiaries of national development who now face the adverse consequences. Women's health is relatively more threatened resulting in scars that will be carried over to the next generations, given the fact that teratogenic and mutagenic effects inevitably emerge along side other threats. Moreover, social changes or disruptions can be observed in many areas where job opportunities induce large scale migrations. Mental stress is then another expected consequence, in addition to the above mentioned physical effects.

#### 2. PRESENT SITUATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES, ENVIRONMENT AND ENERGY

The Kingdom of Thailand covers an area of over 320 million rai (514 thousands square kilometers). In 1961, 53 per cent of the area (171 million rai) was covered with forests. Twenty-five years later, the woodland dwindled to a mere 29 per cent of the country. Combined efforts for reforestation during that period yielded about 341,144 rai annually but failed to catch up with the massive deforestation estimated at the rate of about 3.4 million rai per year. Such tragic failure is exemplified in the case of mangroves where 47 per cent of 2.3 million rai was destroyed during the same era.

Recent double digit rate of annual economic growth in Thailand appears to be very impressive. This corresponds with an annual increase of 14 per cent of energy. However, it should be observed that 42 per cent of the energy was imported and almost all of it was crude oil and gasoline.

In 1989 over sixty per cent of this kind of fuel was consumed for transportation. Cooking generally relied on wood charcoal which constitutes about 7 per cent of the total energy. This underlines the urgent need to conserve energy. The roles of women normally begin at home where 40 per cent of households in the rural areas are classified as unsanitary. Yet, facing other serious environmental threats on a larger scale, their roles will have to be defined further. At close scrutiny many complications have arisen for most water resources. For example, communities have contributed to a significant increase of organic matters and bacteria in natural water bodies. Other activities, including industry, agriculture and mining, have adversely affected the quality of water resources. At times, levels of heavy

metals exceeded those specified in recommended national guidelines. Reportedly 95 per cent of the total hazardous wastes are generated by industries, resulting in various water resources being contaminated. The quality of the Chao Phraya River has reached levels of pollution below official norms. At the very end of this major artery the quality inevitably reaches its lowest level. This condition strongly implies that this major water resource can no longer be channeled into any water supply system and can be used only for communications.

Even though 76 per cent of the population is now provided water either through water supply or rain fall, only 26 per cent of such water is safe bacteriologically. Such problem is clearly related to human behavior, a domain which always particularly concerns women. Lack of social awareness usually leads to a high morbidity rate in rural areas especially diarrheal diseases.

The burden of extensive consumer demands affect not only natural resources but also produces wastes which contaminate the environment. Solid wastes in urban areas become so conspicuous that they frequently result in public outcries. However the collection, transport and disposal of voluminous wastes remain a hazard and the whole system urgently needs urgent consideration and new management.

The rapid economic growth has also seriously affected food chains. More toxic substances are manufactured, used, or disposed, by industries, mining and agricultural activities. Their residues are found in food and the environment resulting in many unfortunate incidents. For example, outbreaks of arsenic poisoning have been reported on and off in the South. Food products have been found to be widely contaminated by pesticides and heavy metals. In 1987 alone, 116 tons of frozen squids exported from Thailand were rejected in Italy on the ground that the levels of cadmium exceeded 2 ppm. In the long run, it seems that the benefits of economic growth cannot compensate for losses in terms of unusual ailments in general population and, in particular, women and foetuses. Eventually the whole process jeopardizes development itself since the quality of life of its beneficiaries is affected and the quality of goods is diminished.

In urban areas, public outcries concerning air pollution have focused mainly on industrial activities overlooking other environmental problems. In 1989, of the 6.5 millions registered motor vehicles nation wide, 1.8 millions were found in the capital. The annual rate of increase of number of sedans was about 13.1 per cent in Bangkok at a time where a double-digit economic growth was taking place. Inevitably, the traffic became extremely congested and the speed was significantly reduced to 4 km per hour in the inner city during rush hours. This has lead to greater air pollution by automobile exhausts. Exceedances of the levels of particulates were annually reported in over 20 per cent of the total number of air samples. To a lesser extent, short-term levels of carbon monoxide were problematic during rush hours. Upward trends were common for all air pollutants including lead, ozone, nitrogen dioxide, sulfur dioxide and hydrocarbons.

### **3. NATIONAL POLICY AND DEVELOPMENT PLAN**

The sixth national economic and social development plan has defined roles to be played by GOs and NGOs. Reforestation, water resources management and conservation of national treasures were to be carried out mostly by GOs. One of the most important strategies was to increase public awareness in natural resources, conservation, particularly of forests, soil, and water resources. The NGOs were to play significant roles in raising public awareness, focusing on the environment.

In the seventh national economic and social development plan, the above mandates and extended with additional measures to foster rational control and management in order to keep environmental quality in check. Energy conservation is another policy from the sixth plan to be continued.

### **3.1 Recommended policy and measures on interactions between women and environment**

In the past, women's roles regarding natural resources and the quality of the environment have never been spelled out clearly in any national development plan. As the environmental quality reaches a critical stage the urgency of the matter calls for close collaboration among various groups including women. At this preliminary stage, the roles of women is to focus on environmental sanitation in the households and their vicinities with special emphasis on disposal of domestic wastes. Often, women also face directly the dilemma of toxic chemical residues in food and agricultural produces. This, naturally, becomes an area of grave concern for women. In addition, as energy conservation has been stressed as a prime national strategy, women can effectively contribute to this goal. Their areas of influence should then include conservation practices with particular attention to electricity and gasoline in households and family's businesses. Nevertheless, it seems that without a tight control on population growth and technology development, chances of success diminish.

### **3.2 Recommended objectives of the national development plan on interactions between women and environment**

#### **Short-Term Objectives**

Focusing on the quality of life in rural areas, the objectives of the 5 year women development plan are as follow:

1. Women should be sensitized as to their roles and influence upon the invironment of their households and the quality of life of the family members, emphasizing the families' well-being, general sanitation and other health promotion measures.
2. Women should be aware of the severity of the problems of domestic solid wastes, waste waters and their impact on the environment; their role in fostering prevention should be maximized.
3. Women should be aware of the health hazards due to residues of toxic chemicals in food and agricultural produce and make special efforts to prevent and minimize such problems.
4. Women should recognize the national trends to conserve energy and natural resources and understand how this relates to proper use of gasoline, electricity and water.

#### **Long-Term Objectives**

1. Introduce and increase women's skills and basic knowledge of modern agricultural techniques, for instance, soil conservation, use of agricultural chemicals etc.
2. Women should be able to recognize environmental hazards stemming from industrial activities and rationally participate in the control and preventive processes.
3. Women should enhance national survival based upon natural resources conservation and consequently play an active role in campaigning against deforestation, participation in reforestation, and minimizing water pollution problems etc.
4. Women should make an effort to learn about energy demand and supply of the nation and minimize the exploitation of energy sources.

#### **4. RECOMMENDED MEASURES FOR WOMEN DEVELOPMENT IN ENVIRONMENT AND ENERGY FOR THE SEVENTH NATIONAL ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN**

##### **Short-Term Measures**

Within the 5 year period of 1992-1996, public awareness of women should be heightened with full comprehension of basic principles and practices for critical areas as spelled out in the Seventh Economic and Social Development Plan.

1. Disseminate information and promote the roles of women in rural areas regarding:
  - improvement of the environment in households and working places,
  - conservation of folk arts.
2. Reinforce women's awareness and promote skills for the management of domestic solid and liquid wastes and contamination of food and agricultural produce by toxic chemicals.
3. Intensify women's awareness of the need for conservation of natural resources and energy by contributing to a reduction of the domestic use and consumption of water and energy.
4. Encourage women to form pressure groups and collectively spearhead and enact environmental protection and energy conservation programmed.

##### **Long-Term Measures**

1. Increase women's awareness particularly in rural areas to enable them to share responsibilities and participate in the implementation of environmental control and energy conservation through a well established information network.
2. Initiate effective conservation of natural resources and energy measures.
3. Campaign for prevention of environmental pollution focusing upon occupational health and safety in industries and application of chemicals in agricultural activities.
4. Organize pressure groups representing women from all walks of life including particularly those in rural communities to prevent environmental pollution and protect related consumers interests.
5. Set up comprehensive reporting and public relations systems on environmental problems and related impacts on consumers.
6. Set up extensive information systems enhancing data collection, analysis and interpretation and dissemination of information regarding community environmental problems, energy and occupational health and safety to facilitate research and development.
7. Systematically disseminate relevant information on environment to women and children emphasizing housewives and youth through intensive human resources development programme.
8. Strengthen co-ordinating efforts between government organizations and non-government organizations.
9. Provide necessary technical amenities to relevant women's groups playing active roles in conservations.
10. Incorporate the element of related environmental quality control into any income-generating training programme.

CHAPTER 9

**WOMEN AND THE MASS MEDIA**

## CHAPTER 9

### WOMEN AND THE MASS MEDIA

During the past decade, the media in Thailand have matured and exerted as much more profound influence than previously in Thai society. As the coverage and the range of media forms have developed, the media have undoubtedly begun to shape - - as well as reflect and report on - - Thai attitudes and cultural norms. Relationships between two genders in all forms of media presentations are unconsciously absorbed by the audience.

Although the media are used in Thailand for several development objectives 'e.g., democracy awareness campaigns', the Thai government has not adopted a policy on the use of media to develop women's potential. At present, there is a lack of baseline data necessary to develop a constructive policy. Therefore, research and study are urgently required to provide the baseline for a constructive plan to develop women's potential in Thailand.

The media are influenced by two primary actors: government agencies and business media companies. Government agencies oversee and regulate many aspects of the media. These agencies can plan and implement a mass media policy aimed at women's development. In the first phase of the policy, the governmental agencies must come up with a set of practical measures to encourage the business groups that control media organizations to carry out the policy over a longer term. These organizations must see the long-term benefits of a policy that enhances the qualities and capabilities of women.

#### **STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEMS**

1. There is a lack of information and baseline data on women and the mass media. Data that have been collected have not been organized for convenient access and use.
2. Women face discrimination in the mass media and communications professions.
3. The mass media continue to foster the stereotype of male superiority and justify the submissive role of women toward men.
4. Women have less opportunity to rise to the top in mass media organizations. Their ability to strongly influence the future direction of the mass media is therefore limited.

#### **GENERAL OBJECTIVES**

1. An information centre for women and the mass media should be established. This centre will be a repository of information and coordinate much-needed research efforts.
2. Women professionals must have similar job rights and opportunities as those enjoyed by their male counterparts.
3. Mass media producers and sponsors should encourage programmes that benefit women by focusing on women's development issues.
4. Female audiences should be encouraged to participate and help shape mass media productions. This will only occur if they have a viable means of participating and advancing in the field.

This implementation plan is divided into three phases. The first phase covers five years. During years one through five, governmental organizations will be entrusted with the task of establishing the baseline data research and on information centre. During the second phase, from the sixth through tenth years, governmental organizations will be in charge of implementing activities identified by the research conducted at or coordinated by the centre. The implementors should comprise groups of producers, editors, writers, actors, or audiences that have been identified as being especially active in the field. These groups must be sensitive to the role of the media as an instrument of social change and development. During this stage government organizations should play a close supervisory role.

During the third phase, years 11 through 20, governmental organizations must devolve responsibility to the groups of non-governmental implementors. These groups will themselves be responsible for planning, implementing, and monitoring progress. Governmental organizations will cooperate and, if necessary help coordinate, this effort.

## **PLAN FOR FEMALE PRODUCERS**

### **Problems**

- 1) Influenced by sexism.
- 2) Lack of equality in hiring and promotional opportunities between women and men.
- 3) Conflict of professional and family roles.

### **Causes**

- 1) Economic : Division of labour is influenced by gender instead of capability; mass media organizations predominately owned by men.
- 2) Political : Inadequate number of women at the policy and decision - making levels.
- 3) Social and Cultural : The mass media have traditionally been dominated by males; as a result, women in this field are influenced – subconsciously or not – by the masculine mentality.

### **Suggested Policy**

Equality between women and men must be established, especially in job opportunity and professional status.

### **Strategies**

- 1) Studies and research : Baseline data collection and research must be conducted on women and mass media. The National Commission on Women's Affairs should take charge of the information centre.
- 2) Policy making : It is critical that more women be promoted to policy and decision-making levels in mass media organizations.
- 3) Training: Governmental organizations, universities, professional association, and related agencies should jointly organize training courses for female AND male professionals; the course should develop an understanding of and appreciation for gender equality.
- 4) Women producers' organizations : Both governmental and private mass media organizations must encourage women professionals to form groups. The groups should actively work to promote the status and development of women in the industry; they can monitor and help eliminate offenses against women's rights.

## **PLAN FOR PRODUCTION AND DELIVERY**

### **Problems**

- 1) Opportunities for reaching the mass media depend greatly on location and gender; women in rural areas have virtually no influence over the media.
- 2) Images of women presented through mass media are primarily negative; women are delegated to a supportive role, compared to men.
- 3) Roles and responsibilities of women reflected in mass media are traditional and do not reflect today's realities;
- 4) The message of the mass media fosters the stereotype of inequality between the genders.

### **Causes**

- 1) Mass media programmes and publications are produced with the goal of providing an economic return and entertaining the market, rather than providing any social service.
- 2) The mass media reflect and conform to social values; in theory, they should help to create and promote constructive social values.

### **Suggested Policy**

Mass media organizations must realize their role and special responsibilities in the area of female development. They must also develop a constructive attitude, in recognition and respect of the different ways that society treats men and women.

### **Strategies**

- 1) Qualitative: A significant amount of space and time should be allocated in the mass media to promote awareness of the need for female development. Governmental organizations can play a pioneering role in this area.
- 2) Quantitative: Those responsible for developing programmes, and publishing and writing print media (news, documentary, entertainment) must recognize the need to promote the idea of equal opportunity for women and men.

## **PLAN FOR FEMALE AUDIENCES**

### **Problems**

- 1) Female audiences do not get an opportunity to participate in and direct the use of mass media.
- 2) Because of the gender bias in the mass media, women are negatively influenced by the mass media, which reinforces the perception that women are inferior to men.
- 3) Perhaps as a result of the above, women do not actively utilize the mass media as a development tool.
- 4) The mass media perceive females primarily as consumers of products; they thus do not address the potential women to act as agents of social change.

### **Causes**

- 1) Women's groups lack the power to bargain with producers and publishers and give direction to the mass media.
- 2) The structure of the Thai mass media is not conducive to feedback and collaboration. For the most part, it is one-way mode of communication for the benefit of the business interests that control the media organizations.

## **Policy**

The Thai mass media must democratize and allow women an equal opportunity to shape the message of the media. The status quo is that male-run companies control the message of the media.

## **Strategies**

1) Women should be motivated to form specialists' groups such as professional groups, consumer groups, women activist groups, etc. These groups can encourage the development and implementation of constructive programmes, and monitor the bias and sexism in the media.

2) Women should be given a chance to participate in the direction of the mass media, either through appointment to government agencies that develop media policy of promotion to the decision - making level of privately run mass media organizations.

3) Women's studies programmes should be established at universities to help cultivate a constructive attitude toward gender equality among professionals.

## **FUTURE TRENDS**

This proposal to develop the role of women in the media can succeed by drawing on the creativeness and strengths of many existing organizations. There already exist some producers and publishers, as well as some women's groups that have attempted to use the media as a method for women's development. To date, however, these groups have not demonstrated enough collective bargaining power to effect a real change in media policy.

The most urgent item on the agenda is to establish and fund an information centre on women and to mass media. The information is essential to support the planning and implementation of practical policies. The centre can also raise awareness among media professionals of the need for action in this area.

## **1. THE ROLE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE MASS MEDIA IN THAI SOCIETY**

For nearly 2 decades, the United Nations has been concerned with the problem of gender inequality. The commission of the UN has observed that social culture is the major cause of gender bias, our prejudices are formed, reformed, and refined from generation to generation. Today, we are living in a so-called "Information Society", in which the mass media take the lead role in the transfer of information. The mass media, as one of (or perhaps the primary) social institutions, has an immeasurable effect on public attitudes at large. Research into the influences of mass media confirms that people learn and develop gender bias from mass media.

The increase in the saturation of the mass media is an obvious indicator of their expanding influence. Since the media can reach people anywhere, literate or illiterate, they become more and more influential. The exposure of the population to the mass media has been rapidly expanding.

A survey of more than 11 million households was conducted in 1988-1989 by the National Statistical office: 8,104,057 households have radio; 5,585,065 households had a television; and, 3,943,527 households read a newspaper. The influence of new media is expanding also. For example, videotape, which just arrived Thailand in the 1970s, could be found in 200,000 households by 1986. These figures support the assertion that mass media have been becoming more and more influential to Thai society.

The result of this expanding influence of the mass media is that it has become a potentially effective tool for social change. In order to improve the effectiveness of efforts to develop women in society, the media should be seen as a key agent of change.

At present, Thailand has no established policy on women in development. As a result, it lacks an information centre for the gathering of information in this area. Such an information centre could identify key issues and contribute to planning in the area of women's development.

## **2. BACKGROUND CONCEPT OF MASS MEDIA PLANNING ON WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT**

This plan has two major concepts: (1) to decentralize control over the media to make it a more democratic forum and (2) to identify a practical set of policies.

### **2.1 DECENTRALIZATION OF MASS MEDIA CONTROL**

Because they form a major social institution, the mass media should be monitored and have their direction set by the public. They are now controlled by two groups of businessmen : producers and advertisers. Businesses sponsor as well as produce the programmes. They invest large amounts of money to advertise their products through these media. Individual advertisers exert more and more influence over the final product, and, as a result, programming is less and less for the benefit of the people as a whole.

The Thai government exerts its influence over the mass media in the form of policy guidelines, laws and bills. Every mass medium has been under some set of laws. T.V. and radio business is now framed by at least 10 bills.

As for the people, they only play the roles of receivers and consumers. They are too diffuse to gather as a group and exert their influence over the producers and advertisers who control the programming. The result of this centralization of power is that the mass media are not strengthening the potential of people, especially in rural areas.

If the mass media are to be used a tool for social development in Thailand, both the people and the government should have a greater say over mass media policy and programming. Those individuals and groups working to develop the position of women in society should coordinate their efforts with mass media professionals and production companies.

#### **The government should pursue the following proposals:**

1. The mass media should provide air time on T.V. and radio programmes, as well as in the printed media, for viewpoints on important issues facing women.
2. Efforts should be made to catalyze or mobilize groups they can actively promote quality programming on issues of women's development.
3. Support should be given to efforts to enhance the position of women in the operation of mass media companies; these could include, for example, promotional policies, laws, financing schemes, etc.

The recommended strategies are intended to increase public control over the producers and sponsors of mass media programmes and publications. This will help improve efforts to develop the role of women in Thai society.

### **2.2 KEY POLICY ISSUES**

With regard to the mass media, women can be categorized in three ways: as media producers (very few); as an image used by the producer or advertiser to convey an attitude or sell a product; and as receivers, or consumers.

Obviously, women in the first category are quite rare. Women in the second category are used as a tool by men; they have little or no say over how they are used. Women in the third category need to be educated so that they are not just passive, accepting consumers.

Before work can begin to redefine these three categories, however, some vital data must be obtained and questions answered:

**1. The lack of research and data on women and the mass media.** There is a need for reliable data on the number of women professionals in the mass media. The problems, difficulties, and potential solutions have not been studied, particularly for professionals in the provinces.

**2. The problem of discrimination against women in these professions.** The inequality in career opportunities, as well as conflicts between professional and family roles, result from inherent sexism in the industry's hiring and promotion policies.

**3. The problem of gender bias in the media's message.** Clearly, in the vast majority of cases, women are presented as inferior or subservient to men. This occurs not only in entertainment programmes, but also in new programmes and advertising. Moreover, advertising also transfers sex bias and consumerism to female audiences.

**4. Women have less access to (and control over) the mass media.** Compared to men. Most women, especially in rural areas, are not aware of the power that the mass media exert over them. They take it for granted that the media are objective and fair.

These are the major hurdles facing women in the mass communications field. They cover problems within the field itself, as well as problems relating to mass media's impact on society. In summary, the general objectives of government policy with regard to women's development and the mass media should be:

1. To establish an information centre on women and the media. This will help in the effective planning of women's development strategies.
2. To eliminate sexism and discrimination against women in the mass media industry.
3. To win a commitment on the part of producers and sponsors to develop programmes relating to women's education and development.
4. To increase the participation of women at the decision-making levels of mass media companies, so that their influence at least equals that of men.

## **Implementation plan**

### **First Phase (Years 1-5)**

Research should be conducted and an information centre established, in coordination with governmental organizations. A National Women Affairs Commission should be established, with the aim of establishing a network with existing organizations. Financial support for research on gender issues should be provided by the government as well.

### **Second Phase (Year 6-7)**

Audience groups should be identified based on information gathered during the first phase. The government should play an active role in the promotion of women's issues e.g., by encouraging creative activities and training programmes for women, by monitoring and exposing gender discrimination and bias in the mass media, and by providing funds to strengthen women's professional groups.

### **Third Phase (Years 11-20)**

Development of responsibilities of government organization to NGO's and public groups. Activities such as planning, implementation, and monitoring can be taken over by women's professional groups and audiences. The primary role of the government should become one of support and encouraging these groups.

### **3. WOMEN AS MASS MEDIA PRODUCERS**

#### **3.1 CURRENT SITUATION AND PROBLEMS**

Clearly, the mass media have been traditionally dominated by males. Newspapers were the first mass media in Thailand. Of 4,332 mass-media professionals, only 17 % of them are women. Although a large number of women are entering into media professions, the percentage of them is still lower (0.1% of professional women, as opposed to 2.2 % of male professionals are in the Thai mass media). The tendency of women to enter media professions is increasing, despite the difficulties and discrimination they experience in many cases.

##### **3.1.1 Discrimination Against Women in the Media**

Most of the media experience a sexual "division of labour," both covertly and overtly. For some types of jobs, such as technicians and cameramen, only men may apply. In addition, significant topic areas, including political news, economics news, and army news are virtually monopolized by male reporters, while female reporters are assigned to cover social news and gossiping columns.

##### **3.1.2 Equality in Professional Job Opportunities and Promotion**

Since gender bias is implied in any division of labour, women placed in less significant jobs will receive less opportunity for equal promotions. As a result, the number of women reaching the executive level is much smaller than the number of men. Women who reach a high executive level are not the norm; they generally have a more difficult career path than men and often require special conditions or financiers to help broker their success.

##### **3.1.3 Conflict Between Professional and Family Roles**

Women in mass media are no different from women in other careers in terms of the societal expectations that they will simultaneously serve as housewives. Given this situation, many women professionals are frustrated and become less effective in both roles. Women who can deal well with this conflict need the support of their husbands; the husbands, in turn, can play an important role by helping understand them and letting them unload their burdens. Nonetheless, in Thai culture, it is very difficult for many women to actively and successfully pursue jobs.

##### **3.1.4 Sexism in the Mass Media**

There is a popular but ill-informed myth that women are poor in areas of management, leadership, and decision making. Few women are promoted to executive positions in mass media corporations or organizations. In the Thai film industry, for instance, there are no major directors.

#### **3.2 ANALYSIS OF THE PROBLEMS**

##### **3.2.1 Economic Aspects**

(i) The structural division of labor between the sexes dominates economic patterns in mass media. As a result, women in the mass media receive lower pay on the average, and have fewer opportunities for skills development and job promotion. This pattern is evident in many Thai industries and is not specific to the mass media.

(ii) Most mass media organizations are owned controlled by an oligarchy of men. As a result, women rarely have a chance to participate in the decision making process.

##### **3.2.2 Political Aspects**

(i) Very few women are involved at the highest decision-making levels of national politics. Since it is the politicians who are the primary initiators of change in the country, women's benefits and issues have been largely ignored for many years.

(ii) Women also play less of a role at the implementational levels. Since few women are involved at the upper levels of mass media organizations, there is little lobbying for the improvement of women's status and the portrayal of women in the media.

### **3.2.3 Social Cultural and Norms**

(i) Males, who have historically controlled the mass media, have been accumulating working experience at newspapers, magazines, radio programmes, and television programmes of years before women's entry. Unfortunately, senior male decision-makers in the industry fail to take this "experience gap" into account and use it to unconsciously discriminate against women in hiring and promotion decisions.

(ii) Why are there not female producers in the Thai film industry? The answer lies partly in the child rearing process and the lack of many strong, independent female role models. Thai women are socialized to focus on their beauty, serving and following men, rather than asserting their own independence.

## **3.3 RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **3.3.1 Policy**

Sexism in professional values must be eliminated. This is the first step toward real equality in hiring and promotion policies. In some types of jobs there are few or no women, largely due to stereotyping and socialization that these are "male" jobs. The government can play a promotional role in some areas of the mass media, by encouraging women to enter the field. During the first phase of the transformation, government can play the driving role. Young women professionals and mass media students should be exposed to gender issues in a rural contest. This will allow them to integrate rural and gender issues into the message they produce. The Government should itself support, or channel resources to funding agencies for baseline research as well as study of implementation, coordination, and monitoring issues.

### **3.3.2 Measurements**

#### **(1) Research and Study**

(i) Baseline data must be collected on the number of women at every employment levels in various industries, as well as the nature of jobs, jobs opportunities, benefits and promotion for women.

(ii) Governmental organizations such as the Department of Public Relations and the Mass Communications Organization of Thailand must assess the problems and difficulties that women professionals face in this field and focus on success stories. These can be disseminated to the public through the mass media in several forms. Pilot projects to implement the solutions should be launched and evaluated.

(iii) Governmental organizations charged with regulating the mass media must cooperate with universities or research institutes to ensure the successful launching of the project. Government agencies can help educate the public about the gender bias and help to overcome it. This can be done by the sponsorship of seminars, publications of brochures, production of films and programmes.

(iv) Early in the first phase of the project, the National Commission of Women Affair must proceed to gather and systematize information about women and establish a women's mass media information centre. In addition, it must motivate mass media organizations to use and disseminate information from the centre.

#### **(2) Policy Making**

(i) Governmental mass media organization (GOs) should hire or promote more, women at the planning and policy-making levels. As this is being accomplished, the GOs can encourage private companies to have and implement the same policy.

(ii) GOs must seek to strengthen their capabilities in gender-responsive planning. Training courses and study tours can be carried out for this purpose. It may be necessary for the GOs to seek international assistance to fund these efforts.

(iii) GOs should identify the percentage of male and female professionals in the various mass media professions. In areas where there are a small percentage of female staff, the GOs should work to increase female access by giving special training courses. Such training activities can be supported by universities and professional associations (see next section).

### **(3) Training**

(i) GOs, universities and professionals associations should provide training courses for women and men professionals in order to raise gender awareness. The trainees will learn how to recognize and overcome gender bias.

(ii) The National Commission for Women's Affairs will set up events so that both male and female media professionals can learn from social workers, researchers, and NGOs who work for women. A network of producers, commercial sponsors, professionals, and women's groups could be established as a common meeting ground for those in the media interested in advancing the goals of gender awareness and development.

(iii) Professionals associations have to signify news and programmes for women especially the presentation. They have to include these training courses as one of their job descriptions.

(iv) Schools and universities should encourage female students (especially in upcountry areas) to study mass communication. This is on way to increase the number of female professionals.

### **(4) Women's Professional Organizations**

(i) Both GOs and NGOs should encourage women professionals to organize active groups in their field to:

- Set up meetings on issues about women and the mass media;
- submit proposals of criteria and qualifications for people to be promoted (i.e. without gender bias);
- foster understanding among male and female professionals about the need for gender responsiveness.
- protect the rights and interests of women professionals;
- monitor the mass media and call attention to offenses against the image and rights of women.

## **4. BIAS AGAINST WOMEN IN THE MASS MEDIA**

News about women clearly takes a back seat in the Thai news media. A study of front-page stories in the Thai daily press over a one month period found that stories about women comprise less than one percent (0.76%) of all news stories. Most of the stories about women are negative one, reporting on women victimized by men (raped or killed) or as sex objects (beauty contests).

### **4.1 CURRENT SITUATION AND PROBLEMS**

There are 2 concepts about images of women in mass media: First, correctness of the reflections on women through mass media; and second, contribution to rectify the inaccurate images of women presented in mass media. Considering these two aspects, we can identify the problems as follow:

#### **4.1.1 Inequality in reaching and utilizing the mass media.**

It applies not only to genders, but also to issue of location i.e. urban and rural areas. There are a very small number of newspapers as well as radio programmes for women. The report on "Roles and Education of women" demonstrated that quantity of magazines for women are small and inconsistent. Meanwhile, television has few programmes for women, and most of them emphasize traditional roles of women. Content about laws of political issues are almost inexistent.

As for the rural-urban issues, the mass media centred in Bangkok, and the big cities. Thus, the production and distribution of information focuses more on urban areas. From a survey on mass media utilization in 1987-1988, it appears that 82.47% of households in Bangkok had radios, 80.47% had television sets, 64.02% regularly read newspapers. Whereas the non-municipal areas had fewer. In the Central, the proportions are as follows: radios: 78.41%, T.V.: 59.77% newspaper: 26.61%; in North, radios: 71.01%; T.V. 42.08% newspaper: 36.26%; in south, radios: 61.76%; T.V.: 41.08%; newspaper: 26.02%. In North East, radios: 69.16%, T.V.: 30.40%, newspaper: 22.39%; These figures show that women in the rural areas have even less opportunity to reach out the mass media since women in general have less chances as compared to men.

Moreover, the mass media are basically serving the interests of women in the middle and upper classes. The messages encourage materialism. A research on advertising in T.V. confirmed that it, taught how to spend a "luxurious life" which meant urbanization (spending money), rather than ruralization (earning and saving).

#### **4.1.2 Negative image of women in Mass Media**

There are only a few stereotype images of women. One is beauty with out brain. This type is born to be a sexual object; incapable of thinking and making smart decisions. A woman is always dependent on men. Another image is that of a feminine housemaid. She is good merely to perform perfect roles of mother and wife who has to be gentle and mild. The modern images of this type are shown as service providers such as secretary, nurse, teacher, clerk, etc.

Women are major models of advertisement as well. Even though the product is not related at all to women. Women are exploited that way with the idea that a sexual object could provoke audiences. Roles of women presented in advertisement emphasize and cultivated the idea that a lovely woman must be happy with providing services, doing chores, taking care of the kids by herself.

#### **4.1.3 Distorted Depiction of Women**

Women are active in a variety of careers and professions, and they comprise 67.5% of all workers in Thailand. In the non-farming sector, there are 6.65 million of women workers. A survey of mass media programmes and articles show women pursuing mainly traditional careers such as secretaries, nurses, housemaids, teachers, prostitutes, and minor wives. Furthermore, the women depicted rarely reach the top of their profession.

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Women are presented as being neither active nor influenced by social changes. They do not need to fight against social and economic problems. They have nothing to do with political events. This depiction of women is not realistic. Such a narrow characterization of women does not provide an adequate or realistic background from which youth can assess the many career options available to women in the real world.

#### **4.1.4 Reflection of Relationship Between the Two Genders**

Even though the mass media are entertainment-oriented, they have enormous power over social attitudes. Films and T.V. programmes, for instance, can leave viewers numb to sexism and gender bias. Since most films and programmes show men in a superior position either at home or in the workplace, the audience comes to accept this. There are few exceptions to this rule in the modern media. (It even occurs in video games which glorify fighting and aggressiveness.) In short, the media help promulgate a set of patriarchal values and attitudes among today's youth.

Relationships between women are also narrowly cast. It is the rule for the media to portray women fighting, overtly and covertly, with other women. Often, the first wife is pitted against the minor wife, or the heroine against the antagonist. This image of women scheming against each other becomes a stereotype, and it becomes harder as a result for female friends to help each other solve their problems.

In summary, the mass media do not just reflect social values – they help instill and cultivate them. The media focus on the role of women as sex objects and overlook their diligence and ingenuity. Consequently, people will tend to take women less seriously as a potential force in Thailand's social and political development.

### **4.2 CAUSAL ANALYSIS**

#### **4.2.1 The Mass media are aimed at entertainment and profits rather than education and human resource development. Nationwide television and radio programming can be taken as example.**

Mass media producers claim that their productions cater to the tastes and satisfaction of the audience. They do recognize the role of the media in developing a greater social awareness. Many corporations that sponsor media programmes and events have the power to promote "socially aware" programming.

The government should have clear and consistent policies to requiring the mass media to promote human resource development. For example, T.V. or radio programmes can be produced for disadvantaged groups, and financial support can be given to the producers of children's programmes.

#### **4.2.2 The mass media conform to and reflect traditional (often sexist) attitudes; as a result, they rarely attempt to create or promote constructive new attitudes.**

### **4.3 RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **4.3.1 Policy**

The mass media should not just dispassionately report negative news about women. They should offer constructive means for changing unsatisfactory social attitudes. For example, films and T.V. programmes could show the potential for real friendship between men and women, instead of just passionate and sexual relationships.

#### **4.3.2 Measurements and Strategies**

##### **(1) Identification of Proportion**

(i) To begin with, more air time and space should be provided by the government agencies who are in charge of mass media enterprises.

(ii) The state agencies that oversee mass media communications (radio and television stations) all over Thailand should mandate that more news and documentary programmes for women be aired. The stations should be required to provide airtime for news about disadvantaged women, the life of women in rural areas, women and labour issues, etc.

(iii) The other mass media agencies of the government should produce and establish programmes to enhance women's knowledge, and programmes without gender bias. At the same time, research should be initiated on effective methods to utilize mass media for women's development.

## **(2) Identification of Content**

(i) Programmes for and about women must have a broader content. For example, a programme for housewives that shows how to cook good food and keep the house neat and clean, should have another aspect like issues about the cost of living reasonable prices of goods, etc. "Do-It-Yourself" programmes should not visualize only how to make things, but should develop ideas of marketing, distributing, and networking. In addition, the number of programmes for women about legal issues and safety should also be expanded.

(ii) Most entertainment programmes depict family life and romantic love and ignore the real problems faced by women (such as the ever-present conflict between a women's role to family and her career). Entertainment programmes can expand the world view of women by injecting more reality into the plot. Short programmes for special occasions, contest and productions that highlight, signify, and strengthen women's roles can be organized. GOs NGOs, and women's organizations should work with producers to make this happen.

(iii) Programmes from abroad that contain news and information about women in development can help to show the process of improving the quality of life. These programmes should be available to women's groups in both urban and rural areas. Policy should be established in order to properly select and deliver imported programmes.

## **(3) Arrangement of the Presentation**

(i) Organizations in charge of news presentation should be taught gender awareness. The principle should be based on the fact that women should be regarded as human beings in the fullest sense, and not just sex objects. Governmental monitoring organizations should adopt the same policy as well.

(ii) Mass media policy makers should explicitly state how programming can be used to promote the status of women. Stories should be presented about women who contribute to society at every level. Stories about successful women leaders can create a role model for the female audience to emulate, while at the same time helping to eliminate sexist attitude among male viewers.

(iii) Women's organizations should actively encourage mass media producers to develop substantive programmes about women's problems; these programmes should offer thoughtful solutions.

(iv) Programmes emphasizing the potential for friendship (rather than just passion) between women and men can help to develop a positive public understanding about gender issues.

## **(4) Measurements**

(i) The timetable for presentation of women's programming should be discussed and clearly agreed upon by governmental organizations and professional associations. Sensitive subjects to be considered include societal attitudes about discrimination against women, as well as pornography and other forms of media expression that degrade women.

(ii) University and academic groups should be encouraged to study and monitor the ways that mass media depict women and affect their status. The findings of such studies should be widely publicized disseminated.

## **5. WOMEN AS RECEIVERS OF THE MASS MESSAGE**

### **5.1 CURRENT SITUATION AND PROBLEMS**

The size of the mass media audience is increasing, and the duration of exposure is longer than ever before. The producers of programmes for and about women have a special double challenge if they are to effectively promote the development of women's status : they must improve the content of the programmes while building the capability of the audience to participate and learn from the programmes.

#### **5.1.1 Lack of Opportunity for Audience Participation**

The size of the female mass media audience is increasing and may even be larger than the male audience; at the same time, however, women have much less opportunity than men do to participate in mass media production. The two main reasons for the lack of action by women are : (1) they do not recognize the negative impact that media stereotypes can have on women; and (2) they do not understand how to apply the mass media of women's development. It is rare that those with such understanding also have the opportunities, strategies, and connections in the mass media to translate the understanding into action.

#### **5.1.2 Interests of the Female Audience Interests**

Behavioural research has shown that male audiences are more interested in hard news programmes and documentaries, while women favor entertainment programmes. The researchers used two hypotheses to explain this difference : (1) Women have been socialized to be more interested in domestic and family issues; they thus focus selectively on information that appears to be of more direct usefulness to them. (2) Women have on the average less education, and this forms a barrier to their understanding of issues such as politics, economics, and technology.

#### **5.1.3 Socializing Impact of the Mass Media**

As they grow up, both genders are unwittingly socialized by what they see and read in the mass media. They adopt sexist attitudes and behaviours that they see on T.V. and in the cinema. Increasingly, youths develop their ideas about marriage, family, divorce, motherhood, sex, and the division of labour from mass media role models. Unfortunately, critical treatment of important social issues such as community life, career options for women, and equal division of labour between spouses, is often missing from the mass media.

Women in rural areas are the most negatively affected by images and biases in the mass media, since they are solely consumers and have no opportunity to influence what they see and read. The media programming is all created in Bangkok. The message that rural women get is that they should strive to be like the upper class Bangkok women they see on the screen. The desire to imitate what they see on T.V. or in the cinema leads to a preoccupation with wealth and beauty and a lack of satisfaction with their simpler, rural lifestyle.

#### **5.1.4 Women as Consumers**

Commercial advertisements are aimed primarily at women – or housewives – since women make the purchasing decisions in most households. The primary emphasis on women as consumers, especially of household goods, tends to reinforce the stereotype of the women as the one who is solely responsible for the care of the children and housekeeping chores. In commercial advertisements, women are also used as sex objects to provide product appeal.

## **5.2 CAUSAL ANALYSIS**

### **5.2.1 Lack of Female Audience Groups**

Women consumers of the mass media do not recognize their capacity to set the direction of the media and see it as a tool for women's development. The formation of women's or consumers' groups can increase bargaining power with the mass media and businesses that use the media for promotion or public relations. The formation of such groups has yet to take place.

### **5.2.2 Lack of Feedback in the Media**

Thai media are typically a one-way process, a message beamed out by the upper class in Bangkok to its poorer cousins in the rural regions. The content of mass media programmes is based too much on commercial considerations (will it attract advertisers?) and not enough on pressing social problems faced by disadvantaged groups such as poor women and children, and rural women workers.

## **5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **5.3.1 Policies**

Male dominance in the control and coverage of the media should be addressed by giving women, especially poor, rural women, the opportunity to help direct and monitor some media programmes. In this way, they will help create some programming that is of use to their social group.

### **5.3.2 Organizational Development**

#### **(1) Female Audience Organizations**

These organizations can act as watchdogs and pressure the mass media to produce constructive programmes.

- The groups will monitor the way in which women are presented, and in particular how female stereotypes subconsciously affect youth's attitudes about women's role in society.
- The groups can encourage women to evaluate and critique the mass media. They can react strongly against programming of editorial content that is demeaning to women. For instance, they could urge consumers to stop buying products from companies that exploit women in their advertisements.

#### **(2) Formation of Professional Associations**

Professional women (e.g., academics, lawyers, economists, physician., etc.) should form professional groups to apply their expertise to monitor the mass media. The outcome must be publicized in a form that illiterate or semi-literate audiences can reach.

Researchers in mass communications should carry out studies on the role and impact of mass media on women's development. Government organizations should give financial support, or recommendations to funding agencies. Again, the research will have a practical bent and should be disseminated to public, especially in rural areas. Appropriate media for audiences in rural areas and youth will be produced and delivered.

#### **(3) Protectors of Women's Rights**

Individuals and professionals who already work to protect the rights of women should ally themselves in groups to:

- Coordinate the efforts of among women in different professions, such as women producers, politicians, farmer, teachers, physicians, and nurses, etc. They will organize meetings to share and update information, as well as to share opinions and develop common strategies;
- Act as “watchdogs” and highlight evidence of discrimination against women, and problems related to women in the mass media, such as sexism, workplace harassment, etc. They should also link their efforts to broader social problems faced by women, such as rape and prostitution. The watchdog groups can use the media to clarify the issues so that women (especially girls and young women) are fully educated about the issues.
- Promote gender equality, and at the same time, award the persons who make outstanding efforts to achieve equality for women in the workplace and society.

### **5.3.3 Female Audience Participation**

The Women’s groups mentioned above should also actively work to:

- Promote women's participation in the production of public service messages aimed at eliminating discrimination against women in the mass media. The messages should be produced with a special awareness and concern about the status and needs of women in remote areas (i.e. outside of Bangkok);
- Encourage the mass media to develop air programmes for women with support of these groups. This idea is modelled on the concept of the “women’s page” that appears in some newspapers.

### **5.3.4 Women and Mass Media Studies**

The objective of mass media studies at universities should be not only to increase the number of women professionals in this field, but also to raise the students' awareness about the realities they will confront in the working world, This process can easily be implemented at the universities that already have mass communications study programmes. Other universities could then follow by establishing women’s studies programmes that include a focus on women and the mass media. Interactive student activities, such as a “movie fan club” to show movies and provide a forum for comments and discussion, are recommended.

In addition, academics in the mass media field should offer summer courses or short courses for women professionals, women in rural areas, teachers, NGOs and other interested individuals or organizations. Such courses are a necessary step in the process of public outreach and education required so that people can more selectively evaluate mass media programming and its impacts on society.

## **6. FUTURE TRENDS**

### **6.1 PRODUCERS**

6.1.1 While the number of women professionals is increasing there remains discrimination and gender bias in staff recruitment and promotion. Statistics show that women students pursuing mass communications pass the entrance examinations with higher scores, on average, than men. The opportunity for women to pursue higher education will help women professionals overcome the existing workplace bias.

6.1.2 Among professionals, interest in and awareness of women’s interest can be multiplied by mass media professionals. For example, many actresses, reporters, and T.V. producers express their encouragement to women.

6.1.3 In some mass media organizations, women already have the same opportunity as men for advancement, and promotion is considered based on capabilities and qualifications. In the future, more women should enter media areas (e.g., economic, political and army news) that have been the sole province of men.

6.1.4 Private sector groups, especially NGOs, have been working on education media productions. These productions include magazines, videotapes, slides, and exhibitions. They aim to educate women about social conditions and situations rather than just to entertain or make a profits.

6.1.5 Mass media organizations should let the audience participate by allowing opportunities for audience feedback and adopting creative approaches to programme design. This will also improve the quality of programming.

## **6.2 CONTENT**

6.2.1 Compared to the past, women will increasingly be portrayed in a schizophrenic manner. While T.V. soap operas and magazine novels will characterize women as dependent, many new programmes will present models of strong, independent women.

6.2.2 Research and studies on the content of the mass media show that mass media are beginning to show more realistic images of women. One example was a series of films that focused on the problems of prostitutes and minor wives during 1985-1987.

6.2.3 Academics and researchers are interested in many aspects of the mass media and women's issues. What is needed are sustained efforts to publicize the research findings and analysis. New research topics should be geared to serve the needs of the public and provide some more practical benefits, if possible.

## **6.3 THE AUDIENCE**

Mass media audiences appear to be more active. The number of letters criticizing media coverage of social issues has increased, as have efforts to educate the female victims of social ills such as prostitution. For example, plays have been made about the "service girls" in Patpong.

To summarize, there are some positive trends in the mass media that are helping to educate both men and women about the need to eliminate sex bias, discrimination, and stereotyping in the mass media. The progress to date, however, is not nearly enough. For example, mass media organizations are only beginning to select staff based solely on capabilities, without regard for gender. Once the number of female professionals in the field is higher, promotional policies will improve, as well the overall quality of programming and media development.

## **6.4 SUMMARY**

Several steps are urgently required:

- (1) An information centre on women and the mass media should be established;
- (2) Researchers should be encouraged to study the many aspects of the relation between the social problems of women and the mass media; the research should be very practical and intended for dissemination to rural populations;
- (3) Efforts should be made by leading academics and women professionals to educate the top executives of mass media organizations (both public and private) about the important role of the mass media in social development. The executives should be made aware that the mass media can help to perpetuate (as well as simply report on) sexism and stereotyping.

In the case of women, the mass media can play an important role in helping to overcome social ills such as prostitution, rape, and workplace discrimination. On a wider scale, the media can and should play a major role on public education about a variety of social issues. The long - term goal of this plan is for the media to take a more active role in promoting public interest issues and social development in general.

## **20 YEAR PLAN FOR WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT**

### **1. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM :** Inadequate Baseline Information

There is an inadequate amount of baseline data and information about women in the field of mass communications, both as mass communicators and as the potential audience. In addition, not enough work has been done on content analysis, which influences the nature of discrimination against women.

#### **RECOMMENDATIONS**

- 1.1 Baseline data about women and mass communication must be collected.
- 1.2 An information centre for 1.1 should be established.

#### **JUSTIFICATIONS**

- 1.1 Effective planning depends upon the quality of baseline data and information.
- 1.2 Difficulties arising from scattered sources of information and research will be eliminated if there is an established information centre. The baseline data will be processed, systemized, and easy to access.

#### **MEASUREMENTS**

- 1.1 Funds for research on women and mass communication issues would be raised from national and international organizations.
- 1.2 A network of academicians and professional associations should be established to provide financial support for academicians, students, and those researching and studying.
- 1.3 An information centre should be established at the National Commission for women's Affairs. The information will be updated by NCWA, in cooperation academicians and professional associations.

#### **PERSON IN CHARGE**

- 1.1 The National Research Council should provide funds for research projects on women in mass communications; the NRC must advertise of these funds to the research community.
- 1.2 The network will be coordinated by Chulalongkorn, Thammasat, Chiang Mai, and Bangkok University, along with the Association of Social Science of Thailand, and the Thailand Press Development Institute.
- 1.3 The information centre should be established and operated by the NCWA.

### **2. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM :** Lack of Workplace Opportunities

Women have less opportunity and equality in workplace promotion; this is evidenced by the small percentage of women who reach the decision-making level in mass communications organizations.

#### **RECOMMENDATIONS**

- 2.1 Equality in work opportunity should be promoted (e.g., increasing number of women in decision making level).
- 2.2 Awareness of gender sensitivity among both male and female producers needs to be raised, in order to strengthen the roles and potential of women in the mass media.

### **JUSTIFICATIONS**

2.1 Due to the inadequate number of female decision makers, there is an ineffective promotion of women's roles.

2.2 With accurate understanding in applying media for women development, media producers will be able to communicate to the audience.

### **MEASUREMENTS/STRATEGIES**

2.1 The number of female decision makers and policy makers should be increased, beginning with governmental organizations.

2.2 The number of female producers should be increased, as should the number of programmes for women.

2.3 Training courses and study tours should be conducted to strengthen mass media planning skills for women producers.

### **PERSONS IN CHARGE**

2.1 The following organizations should work to increase the number of female decisionmakers, (TELEVISION AND RADIO ADMINISTRATION COMMITTEE.)

2.2 The following organizations should work to increase the number of female producers: the Department of Public Relations, the Mass Communication Organization of Thailand, the universities with mass media or journalism programmes, and the Press Development Institute of Thailand.

## **3. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM : Sexism in Mass Communications**

Sexism affects the mass communications industry in Thailand and leads to discrimination against women. In mass communications, the top-paying positions are inevitably reserved for men. This decreases women's confidence, assertiveness and ambition as they pursue their careers. Thus, the number of women in this area is increasing, while the proportion of women who are in executive positions is not.

### **RECOMMENDATIONS**

3.1 Sexism in the division of labour should be eliminated by encouraging equality in work promotion.

3.2 All mass communicators must understand and be aware of the differences in the conditions and needs of women and men to be educated to mass communicators.

3.3 The number of women in this career to be increased by encouraging young women, particularly in rural areas, to enter the field of mass communications.

### **JUSTIFICATIONS**

3.1 Sexism, which is often not easily apparent, is the greatest barrier to the development and strengthening of women's potential.

3.2 An even-handed, non-biased, understanding of the goals of mass communications is the most important tool for eliminating discrimination against women.

3.3 Opportunities for women will be increased as the result of expanding the number of women in this field.

### **MEASUREMENTS/STRATEGIES**

3.1 The quantities of women and men in each position should be balanced. As for some different number, women personnel to be trained by governmental organizations.

3.2 Women and men in mass communications should be trained so as to gain gender sensitivity and techniques for presenting news and entertainment programmes without gender bias.

3.3 Activities to be conducted by government organization should be coordinated with NGOs, mass communicators, and researchers.

3.4 Information must be disseminated about the curricula for mass communications studies in universities and high schools.

#### **PERSONS IN CHARGE**

#### **4. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM : The Need to Strengthen the Role of Female Producers**

Most female producers have low esteem, not only for their power in the mass media, but also for their capability to influence and improve the role of women in society. Thus, no group of female producers has organized itself to solve the common problems and difficulties they are facing (e.g., conflicts between family and professional roles).

#### **RECOMMENDATIONS**

4.1 A network of women producers should be initiated to find appropriate and practical solutions for career women, and strategies to apply to the mass media for women's development. Government organizations should be lobbied to play a supportive role (i.e. financial support, career development, personnel development, coordinations, etc.).

#### **JUSTIFICATIONS**

4.1 Without an active group of female producers, the effort to apply the power of the mass media to the problem of women's development in the industry is not seriously supported. An individual women producer-producing programmes, films, or publications on her own – has to solve problems by herself instead of sharing with peers.

#### **MEASUREMENT/STRATEGIES**

4.1 An active group of female producers should be formed with objectives of achieving activities for strengthening women producers including a) organizing workshops or meetings on issues concerning women producers; b) giving support and assistance to protect women's rights and prevent injustice toward women; c) proposing criteria and options to eliminate sexism in the promotion process in mass communications.

#### **PERSONS IN CHARGE**

#### **5. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM : Changing the Target Audience**

The target audience is usually men, rather than women. In addition, programmes and publications targeted toward women are aimed at urban, rather than rural women.

#### **RECOMMENDATIONS**

5.1 Government organizations should make an effort to produce programmes and columns that are not biased in favor of males. They should encourage private mass media companies to produce programmes for both genders, and for rural and urban women.

## **JUSTIFICATIONS**

5.1 Mass media companies are business oriented. They pay little attention to the societal effects of their efforts, or to their potential to stimulate human resource development.

## **MEASUREMENTS/STRATEGIES**

5.1 Particular columns and programmes should be provided to develop women, especially disadvantaged groups (i.e. women in rural areas, poor urban women, women workers, etc.).

## **6. STATEMENTS OF THE PROBLEM : Biased Portrayal of Women in the Mass Media**

Discrimination against women is implicit in most mass programmes and publications. The role of women is limited to that of a woman who is capable and an equal to men is rarely seen, as is the portrayal of positive relationships and supportive role among women. This biased portrayal of women reinforces a sexist prejudice in the audience, in particular among youth.

## **RECOMMENDATIONS**

The mass media have an inadequate understanding of their role as an agent of social change. This is evidenced by the fact that, since these organizations are almost all dominated by men, they inevitably portray society and relationships from a male point of view.

## **MEASUREMENTS/STRATEGIES**

6.1 Programmes for women should be broadened to cover socio-economic and political issues.

6.2 Realistic and inspirational images of women - - as well as of men - - in development, especially in rural areas, should be creatively produced and presented.

6.3 A "Code of Conduct" should be established among the mass media. This would facilitate the condemnation of programmes that depict women (or men) in a shameful manner. Examples of inappropriate depictions would include pornography, and the positive portrayal of men who have minor wives or rape women.

## **PERSONS IN CHARGE**

## **7. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM : Lack of Attention to Disadvantaged Group**

Much of the female audience, especially in rural areas, have limited interest in mass media exposure. Because of their minimal interest in and concern about public affairs they prefer entertaining over educational programming. They often lack the knowledge and experience that could help them select useful programmes which could develop their income and improve their standard of living.

## **RECOMMENDATIONS**

Female audiences, particularly in rural areas, should receive information about the role of women in development. This information should be conveyed directly and in an easy to understand manner. The goal of this information would be to get women to consider the media as a source of education and self improvement. Women would then consider the educational content, and not just the thrill value, of the visual and printed mass media.

### **JUSTIFICATION**

Audience behavior is influenced by its recognition of the content and purpose of the medium. If people see self improvement as a useful by product of the medium, they will seek out educational programming.

### **MEASUREMENTS/STRATEGIES**

Female audiences, especially in rural areas, should learn to recognize that the mass media is a tool that can help to improve their live. To facilitate this, "Women and Mass Media" should be a topic in the curriculum of mass communications programmes at universities and colleges. It could also be arranged as a short training course for women's groups.

CHAPTER 10

**WOMEN AND RELIGIONS**

# CHAPTER 10

## WOMEN AND RELIGIONS

### INTRODUCTION

In planning for development for women, many factors must be taken into consideration, which are all inter-connected in women's development. This chapter will focus on the role of religions. By highlighting the negative and positive aspects that religions might have on women and their development, this chapter might contribute to help lessening the negative aspects and promoting positive aspects, in order to foster the process for women development more effectively.

By law, the Thai King must be a Buddhist but he is the protector of all religions (article 7). Everyone in Thailand is free to follow one's own religious beliefs and practices (article 25). In principle, we can state that there is no objection to other religious beliefs and practices. In spite of the fact that 95% of the Thai people profess Buddhism, there are important minorities from other faiths i.e. Christianity and Islam. Therefore, the materials presented in this chapter will be on women in three religions : Buddhism, Christianity and Islam.

### 1. BUDDHISM

#### 1.1 ROLE AND IMPORTANCE OF WOMEN IN RELIGIONS.

The word "role" is understood here as that which "provides a comprehensive pattern for behaviour and attitudes; it constitutes a strategy for coping with a recurrent type of situation; it is socially identified more or less clearly as an entity; it is subject to being recognizable by different individuals; it supplies a major basis for identifying and placing persons in society."

It must be remembered that society consists of both men and women. Religion has a great influence upon the mentality, activities and social norms of the people. If religion does not include women, it will easily become an effective tool of oppression. The role of women in religion must not be limited only to a supporting role; women as well as men are responsible to contribute to the growth of a society. In religion also, women must have a share in participating and advocating the teachings of the religion.

##### 1.1.1 Role of Women in Buddhism in the Past.

In the Sukhothai period, when the king proclaimed Buddhism as state religion, Thai people accepted Theravada Buddhism alongside with their former animistic practices and beliefs. Men and women seemed to enjoy freedom in practicing Buddhism. Both men and women made offerings and observed the precepts; generally Buddhism won the heart of the people without discrimination.

In the Ayudhaya period, people experienced a long turmoil period of 417 years when the Thai people suffered through many wars. The acceptance of Brahmanism during the early Ayudhaya period clouded the study and practice of Buddhism and pushed women further to the background. Many social values prevalent among the Brahmins became alive in the Ayudhaya period with the result that women were given a secondary role in society.

Women were denied education; their role was limited mainly to kitchen and household chores. Women were to be trained to be good wives and mothers.

During the reign of King Rama IV of the present dynasty, the purification of Buddhism on the one hand and western influences on the other helped improve the status of women greatly. With the modernization of the country that took place during the reign of King Rama V, the status of women continued to improve.

### **1.1.2 Role of Women in Buddhism Today.**

The Buddha mentioned four groups of Buddhists : monks, nuns, laymen and laywomen as the foundation of Buddhism. Whether religion prosper or decline is entirely up to these four groups of people. In Thailand, the full ordination of nuns does not exist, the role of women being limited only to that of laywomen. In the Thai society, Buddhist women focus their activities primarily on practice and not on the study of the teachings. Various practices are carried on following traditions handed down from the past.

A weak Buddhist educational system does not provide for a serious understanding of Buddhism by the Thai people in general. Women are even further removed than men from such understanding. In the case of men, they have at least the opportunity to receive the ordination and spend the traditional three - month period in the monasteries. This lack in Buddhist education for women entails serious problems in the society.

As the bhikkhuni tradition never came to Thailand, the role of Thai women has always been limited to that of laywomen. Even then, the role of Thai women could not be compared to the role of those in the Buddhist texts mentioned in 2.1. Without proper and systematic Buddhist education, Thai women are not equipped with a proper understanding of Buddhism. Buddhism is considered to be exclusively the domain of monks. Thai women are indoctrinated to accept and be satisfied with their lowly birth. They must play the role of supporters of religion and of Dharma practitioners on an individual basis.

## **1.2 GENERAL VIEW ON WOMEN AND RELIGION.**

### **1.2.1 Role of Women in Buddhism According to the Buddhist Texts.**

Women have always been great supporters of Buddhism. When Prince Siddhartha was about to become enlightened, he accepted a meal of sweet rice from Sujata. A great model of laywomen may be seen in the role played by Visakha. Visakha was the strongest supporter of the Sangha and has been highly praised throughout Buddhist history. Visakha's role was not only that of a supporter; she was a learned person and highly respected by the Sangha. More than once, she was called upon for consultation by the Sangha. Certain cases that could not be solved by the Sangha were entrusted to Visakha, and she solved them very effectively. There were monastic rules (Aniyatas) laid down at the suggestion of Visakha which shows how important her role was in early Buddhism. She was also responsible for bringing about changes and improvement in the Sangha, for example, she was the one to suggest to the Buddha that monks should wear bath robes. Her suggestion became a mode of conduct for Buddhist monks up to the present day. Such an example shows that the role of laywomen in Buddhism is very important and was not taken lightly at all. Laywomen could play many roles as supporters, providers of material offerings, consultants, and custodians for the Sangha.

Women who could lead a more committed life, joined the Sangha and became Bhikkhunis (fully ordained nuns). They proved themselves worthy and many of them were singled out by the Buddha and praised for being foremost in discipline, in obtaining miracles, in preaching, etc. The Bhikkhunis stood side by side with the Bhikkhus sharing the responsibility to spread the teachings of the Buddha. Some leading Bhikkhunis had among their faithful followers kings and ministers. They had proved to be as good propagators of Buddhism as their male counterparts. In this regard, the Buddha put great emphasis on the four groups of Buddhists as being responsible for either the growth or decline of Buddhism.

Historical findings in India show that monks and nuns lasted more than a thousand years. They disappeared at the same time following the invasion of Muslims. The nuns did not disappear before the monks, as generally believed.

### **1.2.2 Role of Women in Religion.**

Roles of women in religion can be considered from various aspects:

**1.2.2.1 Women are Great Practitioners at Different Levels.** Some of them give importance to the practice of Dharma or offerings; of all the people who offer food to the monks in the morning 80% are women. They are truly the major supporters of the Sangha.

Some women put emphasis on morality, that is observing the precepts. Ordinarily Buddhists observe the five precepts; during the “wan-phra” (holy days), which fall on the 8th and 15th day of the waxing and waning moon, they tend to be more strict and observe the eight precepts. Many elderly women may spend the night in the wat compound so that they can listen to sermons at night.

Yet there are some women who practice meditation for the sake of clarity of mind and some study on their own from various available Buddhist texts. For meditation, some women have excelled and become experienced meditation teachers with many followers. Few “Mae-jis” (nuns) have also succeeded in attaining the highest level in Pali education.

At any rate, the said roles are still limited to very few. Considering that women are 50% of the 60 million Thai people, such roles need to be encouraged and supported both by government and non-government organizations so that they can serve the Buddhists in a wider circle.

#### **1.2.2.2 Women and Daily Religious Practices.**

Women spend more time for daily religious practices than men. Beginning with offering food to the monks in the morning, on “wan-phra”, they also prepare food to offer to the monks at the temple for the midday meal. They may engage in morning and evening chanting on their own or at the temple with groups of “mae-jis” (nuns) and other Buddhist faithful. Then, they may also meditate early at dawn or before retiring at night. However, in Bangkok, where the life style is much faster, women still continue with their practices but they buy food from food stalls and offer them to the monks near their offices in the morning. Life styles may have had to change rapidly with modernization but the majority of people offering food to the monks are still women.

The daily observation of precepts and meditation are still practiced. In some women's groups, one can still see female teachers acting as leaders. Examples of these leading female Dharma teachers are Khun Mae Siri and Prof. Khun Ranjuan Indrakamhaeng. Intensive meditation periods are provided for 10 days every month. Among women's groups there is a greater concern for the study of Buddhism. The extent of the popularity of short-term white robe ordination (ji braahma) is a reflection of the need for women to lead religious lives, even though they are still bound to family responsibilities.

Dharma practitioners in Buddhism must realize that with changes in social contexts, women can no longer attend regular services at the temple; they must find ways to bring the temple into their own homes. They must endeavour to keep alive religious practices within the homes. To observe precepts and to practice Dharma should no longer be limited to temple surroundings but must be made available everywhere; only then can practicing Dharma become relevant to society.

#### **1.2.2.3 Women and Profession/Work.**

As already mentioned in 2.2.2 economic pressures in modern society make it difficult for women to attend regularly religious services as before. They must stand side by side their husbands sharing with them economic burdens. The time and opportunity to practice Dharma are lessened. Thai women in modern society need

to have a good understanding of Buddhism in order to be enabled to cope with problems encountered both at work and at home. A superficial practice of Buddhism will result in religion losing its importance and soon disappearing altogether.

Working conditions in the city result in women having less opportunities to be in touch with Buddhism. There is an urgent need for women to have access to the teachings of Buddhism so as to enable them to apply these teachings to their living conditions. Buddhism should provide the spiritual foundation needed for women to cope with various individual and social problems.

Even though 95% of the Thai population is Buddhist, officially, women do not have the right to take leave of absence for religious practice, while Thai Buddhist men are entitled to a three-month ordination leave period. Thai Muslim men and women are entitled to take leave to attend Hajj in Saudi Arabia. Such inconsistency and the overlooking of religious needs for Buddhist women reflect negligence on the part of the Government. There is an urgent need for the government to rectify this injustice and provide women with the rights to fulfill their religious needs and obligations.

Women are also barred from certain professions such as Buddhist chaplains in the army; such function can be fulfilled only by men as there is an underlying requirement that these chaplains must be ex-monks. Women cannot be ordained; therefore they cannot meet the basic requirement for this profession, in spite of the fact that there are good and efficient female professors in the military services. A good example is H.R.H. Princess Maha Chakri who teaches at the Cadet Academy.

#### **1.2.2.4 Women and Their Religious Role in The Socialization Process.**

The earlier part of a child's life is spent with women. Women play a strong influence in integrating religious consciousness in children. Some women, during their pregnancy, already call their unborn babies to somehow participate in the morning and evening chanting. When they make merit, they also call their babies to take part in it. The very first act a baby learns is to bow and pay respect to the monks and to the Buddha image. Children are forbidden to harm living beings, and are encouraged to share their belongings with their siblings and friends. These simple teachings are rooted in the Buddhist teaching to respect living beings and to make offerings which imply understanding of selflessness.

The more women become familiar with Buddhist teachings the better they will be equipped to enhance the consciousness of their children and of children in general.

#### **1.2.3 Role of Ordained Women/Religious Leaders.**

As mentioned earlier, according to the teachings of the Buddha there are 4 groups of Buddhists namely, Bhikkhus (monks), Bhikkhunis (fully ordained nuns), laymen and laywomen. The growth or decline of Buddhism depends totally on these 4 groups of Buddhists. The Bhikkhuni Sangha never reached Thailand. Instead there are groups of Buddhist women who lead religious lives and separate themselves from worldly circles. They are called "mae-jis", with shaved heads and generally wear white robes. No one can say for sure when or how "mae-jis" came into existence. The earliest historical evidence about them is found in the reports of western missionaries visiting Thailand in the late Ayudhaya period. It could be said that they have existed for at least some 400 years.

The approximate number of "mae-jis" throughout the country is 10,000. A research done by Nangnoi Panjapan indicates that the majority of them (85%) have only 4 years of compulsory education and come mostly from the rural areas. Since the "mae-jis" themselves were drawn from the lower level of society their roles are also limited. They often live in the poorest corners of the temple, taking care of the cooking and the maintenance of the temple. A handful of them have been successful in Pali studies and are involved in teaching Pali classes both to the monks as well as to "mae-jis". Wat Paknam, with the largest number of "mae-jis" (300) presents the best place for those interested in studying the "mae-jis" both locally and internationally.

The Institute for Thai Mae-jis was formed in 1960. Some 5000 mae-jis registered with the Institute. The Institute organizes annual meeting for mae-jis and is responsible for sending mae-jis to join some royal projects, e.g. refugee camps in Trad province. However, some of the mae-jis themselves felt that they could not do anything much with their own limited education, experience and even financial support.

In conclusion, the roles of mae-jis are still to be greatly improved before they can play any significant and worthwhile role for Buddhism and for Thai women and Thai society in general.

Besides mae-jis: there are also other women who are spiritual leaders. They lead groups of Buddhists in meditation practices as earlier mentioned. But such role is still limited as it depends on private initiatives. If the government were to support such activities they could be continued effectively and systematically, insuring better quality.

Some female Buddhist leaders and teachers are so knowledgeable in Abhidhamma that some of them can become teachers of both Thais and foreigners. Such role should also be encouraged and supported.

#### **1.2.4 Religious Organization for Women.**

There are some women's organizations and some Buddhist organizations but Buddhist women's organizations still remain to be seen. The Institute of Thai mae-jis is only for white robe mae-jis and they do not exceed 10,000 in number. The figure is relatively small and insignificant considering the total female population of the country.

However, in the awareness of the importance of the role of women in Buddhism, some positive initiatives are beginning to take shape such as the Young Buddhist Women Association, and the Sunday Buddhist Schools in various temples to provide opportunities and Buddhist education for both boys and girls. Besides, as a follow-up, after the first seminar for mae-jis held at Wat Umong, Chiangmai, and in an effort to meet the urgent needs for Buddhist education, the organizers founded a school for "Dharmacarini" (female Dharma practitioners) at Paktho district in Rajburi province in 1990. Internationally, the first international conference for Buddhist nuns was held in Bodh Gays, India in 1987. An international Buddhist women's association called "Sakyadhita" was formed in Los Angeles in 1987 as an answer to the recommendations of that conference. In Thailand, Dr. Chatsumarn Kabilsingh is the local representative of this organization and a Sakyadhita chapter was established in Thailand on October 1989. However, this organization is still at an embryonic stage and needs much more co-operation and administration to be effective. The main goal of this organization in Thailand focuses on Buddhist education for women as a most immediate concern. This organization called an international conference on Buddhist women in October 25-29, to be held for the first time in Thailand.

#### **1.2.5 Buddhist Education for Women.**

Given the fact that 95% of the Thai population is Buddhist, the structure and the system for Buddhist education is very limited. This problem becomes all too more acute with the rapid increase of population during the last 2-3 decades.

The Buddhist educational system is found only in the temples. The ordination system also differs from other religions such as in Catholicism. For Catholics, a person who applies for priesthood must meet the minimum requirements of a master's degree in Theological studies. With such requirements, one can be certain that the person has sufficient and adequate religious education. In Buddhism, the ordination tradition has been practiced without change from the Buddha's time. Anyone can receive the ordination and there is no academic requirement on Buddhist knowledge. Any Buddhist man can be ordained, with the hope and expectation that he will study and practice Dharma. However, there is no proper efficient system to provide monks with Buddhist education. This is a serious loophole in the Buddhist educational system in Thailand.

The minimum period of 3 month ordination during the rain retreat provides Buddhist men with the opportunity to study and experience Buddhist teachings enough to enable them to lead a better Buddhist life after the ordination.

Also, ordination provides the opportunity for men in rural areas to study up to the university level, that is to receive an education from Buddhist universities which are made available only to monks.

This opportunity for Buddhist education is not available to women. It appears as though Buddhist education was meant only for men. All the monks who reside in the various temples around the country are all male. Their lives are ruled by the monastic moral code which forbids them from coming into direct contact with women. This limitation for the monks further restricts the access of women to Buddhist education through monks.

With all the above limitations, one should not easily conclude that women are without religion. Possibly because of such limitations, women are generally more eager to observe religious practices, much more so than men. Such practices include making offerings, observing precepts and meditation. What women in Thai society are denied of, is the opportunity and access to the Buddhist educational system. There are only a handful of Buddhist women academics in Thailand. There might be some who are quite knowledgeable in the social sciences and culture but they all received their Buddhist education from foreign countries.

Buddhist education is now the most urgent issue to be taken into consideration both at the government and non-government levels.

### **1.3 SITUATIONS AND PROBLEMS OF WOMEN IN SOCIAL CONTEXTS.**

The problems which women face in the religious world are complicated and inter-related. Solutions must be found not only at the individual level but also at the structural level. Women's problems are social ones and must be understood and dealt with at the national level. Often, unknowingly, the government's attitude expressed through government officials becomes an obstacle for the advancement of women. Unless the Government is seriously concerned, such social problems faced by 50% of the population will not be solved.

#### **1.3.1 The Government's Attitude.**

The Government has never shown any interest towards women in Buddhism. The Mae-jis, this small group of Buddhist women intending to lead a religious life, have never been supported. On the contrary, they have no "ordained" status, hence the Department of Religious Affairs simply disregards them and denies any responsibility towards them. Mae-jis have to pay full fare in all public transportations, they have to pay the travel tax should they want to go abroad or even to visit holy Buddhist shrines in India. Compared to the exemption of this tax for the Muslims travelling to Mecca to perform their Hajj, this is a real injustice in a so-called Buddhist country.

Mae-jis receive no support from the government and they are seen as a marginal and peripheral group of Buddhist women trying to lead religious lives. Even some women themselves still feel that mae-jis are only a minority. To talk about mae-jis problems is only to talk about problems of women in this minority group, which can do little to rectify the problems of Buddhist women in general. But from an opposite viewpoint we can say that even though mae-jis are a minority group, their existence represents the need of the majority of Buddhist women to lead religious lives. However the government still ignores them. Will the government ever take the responsibility of tackling the problems of the majority of Buddhist women?

Actually, solving the problems faced by mae-jis will lead to cope with the problems of Buddhist women in general. That is when mae-jis are given opportunities for education, they become an important manpower resource in laying the ground for education for Buddhist women in general. This will go hand in hand to answer the urgent needs of women, namely Buddhist education.

Going back through history, we can see that King Rama V built the national educational system for the public by using a minority group, namely the monks. The monks were directly responsible in organizing an educational system both for the monks and for public. From this classic example, we can envision the possibility of promoting education for mae-jis in order to enable them to take on the responsibility of providing Buddhist education for women. The point to be emphasized is that mae-jis themselves must be encouraged and supported both by the government and the private sector.

If the government should show a more positive attitude in supporting both mae-jis and women to be given more responsibility in Buddhism, society would eventually accept and make available greater opportunities for women to play a more positive role in Buddhism. Women will eventually be also able to help cope with the social problems from positions not accessible to monks due to their own limitations, both as monks and as men.

The Thai society, with the government assuming the role of leadership, must realize that existing social problems and ills are so great that the full co-operation of both men and women are essential in order to find solutions. Negative attitudes, limiting the role of women simply on the basis of a gender bias, show a definite weakness for development of a nation as they deny participation of half of the nation's population.

### **1.3.2 Attitudes of Religious Authorities and Role of Women Religious Leaders.**

Thai Buddhism results in a strong segregation of monks in relation to laywomen. Misunderstandings between monks and laywomen have long prevailed mainly due to the fact that each group has very little contact with each other.

Since the temples and the monks have lost their educational function, the Thai society, especially in Bangkok, has become more and more alienated from Buddhist circles and activities. Buddhism, for many people, has maintained only its functional ritualistic purpose. Religious authorities, namely the elderly monks who have long standing in the Sangha, have had little exposure to women and women's needs and problems. Women who frequent the temples, go there only as supporters who do not usually question but only follow instructions. Whatever the monks say is considered as an authoritative pronouncement.

More and more educated women are beginning to ask questions about the position of women and their proper role within Buddhism. They also question many of the age old beliefs on women, handed down through culture and traditions, and often strengthened by the teachings of the monks, so far, have not seriously taken the issue into consideration, with the result that women are turning away from Buddhism. This could become very serious and dangerous to the Thai society when one half of the population does no longer follow the faith as practiced by our fore-parents.

### **1.3.3 Lack of Religious Educations**

Buddhism: This is one of the root causes of the problems we are now facing. Buddhist education was previously exclusively handled by the monks. Ordination is made easily available for men as there is no pre-requisite requirement as to educational background. Men who have become monks may or may not seek Buddhist education. In the latter case, it becomes a real problem to Thai Buddhism. Many monks have no Buddhist knowledge at all. Their little understanding of Buddhism is mixed with local animistic beliefs and practices coupled with Brahmanism. The trouble starts when lay people pay high respect to whoever wears the robes and often take advice from the monks as unquestionable authority. This is one of the reasons why many negative attitudes towards women are being often generated among the uneducated monks themselves.

Buddhist Scriptures were originally preserved in Khom script which could be read only by an elite of educated monks. Buddhist texts, though translated into Thai in King Rama V's period, were never made easily available to the public until B.E. 2500. This will explain the lack of Buddhist education among the Thai people in general.

Men who have gone through the 3 months of the traditional ordination period are somehow exposed to a small part of the teachings. They are better off than the women who have no such opportunity since ordination for women is not available.

The two Buddhist universities are exclusively for monks. Buddhist studies in public universities have only been recently introduced. Teachers colleges usually offer at least one course in Buddhism. In general, women still have no proper Buddhist education.

#### **1.3.4 Negative Social Values against Women in Religious Contexts.**

Buddhism in Thai society has been heavily influenced by Indian social values when it was imported to Thailand along with traditions of Brahmanism. The Indian society has always been patriarchal, holding little sympathy towards women. Women are valued in the same category as cows and objects or possessions belonging to men. Indian social values place women under the protection of parents when young, under the protection of husbands when married, and finally under the protection of sons when old.

These negative social values prevalent in Thailand have often been wrongly passed on under the sanction of Buddhist Scriptures; they have been accepted as Buddhist values. One clear example is that in many Buddhist temples women are not allowed to deambulate around the stupas due to the beliefs that women are unclean (with menstruation). Such beliefs are derived from Brahmanism. According to them, menstruation has the power to nullify the sacredness invoked through Brahmanistic practices. Many Thai teachers both monks and men had to seclude women by creating social taboos to protect their own magical power. Such beliefs and practices have no place in Buddhism. They are in contradiction with Buddhism, but they are still much practiced and observed in Thai society often under the name of Buddhism.

Buddhist scholars need to be aware of such cultural phenomena concerning women and they should try to promote the right kind of understanding. Many passages from the Scriptures, often quoted in a misleading way, need to be explained in the true spirit of Buddhism. Otherwise, Thai Buddhism will become a tool of oppression of women. Buddhist texts must be read with the awareness that the messages were given in the Indian social context. The Thai society does not need the Indian social traditions to explain and promote Buddhism. Buddhism is considered to be the first religion in the world teaching equal spiritual freedom and attainment between men and women. Thai Buddhists must not forget this essential principle and there is no need to accept Indian social values at the expense of losing sight of this unique characteristic of Buddhism.

#### **1.3.5 Religious Organization and the Role of Women Religious Leaders.**

There is no Buddhist organization for women at the grassroot level. Buddhist women leaders are found only among meditation teachers and there are very few of them. There are also very few women teachers who have excelled in Abhidharma studies. The government should help support and organize training for more female teachers both in theoretical and practical areas.

#### **1.3.6 Attitude of Women towards Religions as Conditioned by Society and Culture.**

Thai Buddhism has been handed down through tradition; there is little room for philosophical dialogue or discussions. Women have played a supportive but passive role throughout history. Buddhist teachings by monks, rightly or wrongly interpreted, are usually accepted as authority. In 3.3 we have seen that often the monks themselves have received poor training and are not ready to provide education. Women in this modern world either go along following Buddhism in a submissive manner as their fore-parents or ignore Buddhism all together, even though they might feel that Buddhist teachings or practices seem arbitrary to their educated mind. Although the authority of the Sangha has been long established, many women disagree with this institution and choose to stay away

from the Sangha. Many maintain some form of religious practice of their own, but more and more women are finding it difficult to accept the Sangha, though they still have faith in the Dharma.

From a survey done in B.E. 2525 (1982), it was found that although the majority of university students still have faith in the Dharma, their faith in the monks is only minimal. Differences in terms of statistical analysis are very significant indeed.

In the middle and lower classes of the society, women still follow the traditional practices of Buddhism in popular forms. They make regular offerings to the monks and observe the precepts on certain days of the week. But their practice has been limited without much understanding as to the essence of Buddhism due to a lack of Buddhist education as mentioned earlier in 3.3

#### **1.4 FACTORS AFFECTING ROLES OF WOMEN IN RELIGION.**

##### **1.4.1 Social Factors.**

Some prevailing values and beliefs in the Thai society generally exclude women from Buddhism, e.g. the belief that women are not to enter the inner precincts of Buddhist shrines or stupas, because women are considered unclean from a religious point of view. Such values need further investigation to enable women to become part of Buddhist circles. There are other beliefs which limit women's spiritual growth and discourage them from leading a more committed life in Buddhism, e.g. women cannot and should not be ordained, ordination is not fit for women. Such beliefs have been generated and kept alive by monks without critical examination. Ordained life is in fact hard and difficult, and it is not meant for everyone, but this does not imply that we should deny this opportunity for those few who might benefit from it and in turn benefit society because of sex discrimination.

##### **1.4.2 Conditions Created by Law and Regulations Both by the Government and by Religious Authorities.**

We have already discussed certain issues elsewhere, such as mae-jis being restricted in their activities because of the refusal of the Department of Religious Affairs to take any action to recognise their status. Mae-jis who already have a limited education are further oppressed by regulations so that they have no place in Buddhist universities, open exclusively to monks, although supported by budget allocations from the general public. They are not granted ordination status by the Department of Religious Affairs, although considered ordained by the public. Yet, as a result, they cannot receive their education through public universities. This double standard can easily be rectified provided government organizations concerned are willing to acknowledge this problem frankly.

##### **1.4.3 Economic Factors.**

Due to economic limitations, some village boys who want to further their education enter the monkhood and slowly find their way up to Buddhist universities open exclusively for monks. Village girls under the same circumstance have no such opportunity. With lack of economic support and education, the only way for them to enjoy a comfortable life is prostitution, and this door is indeed wide open.

Mae-jis who are Buddhist women trying to lead a religious life are also faced with economic problems. Mae-jis are generally from rural families. Without the recognized "ordained" status they are further limited in getting support from society. It is believed that only monks who are members of the Sangha are the real "source of merit", i.e. they are the only people worthy of receiving offerings. One gains full merit if one makes offerings to monks. Making offerings to mae-jis, one does not obtain full merit since they do not have the "ordination" status, hence are not part of the Sangha. Moreover, born as women, they belong to a gender lower than that of men.

Therefore, such considerations show how economic factors are related to social realities which are rooted in attitudes and social values.

## **1.5. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS.**

### **1.5.1 Education.**

The most urgent need for women is Buddhist education. Schools or colleges for mae-jis are most urgent in order to improve the quality of mae-jis so that they, in turn, can provide better understanding among the lay people. They should be given access to opportunities to develop themselves and be able to involve themselves in many essential social projects.

The government should urgently set policies and provide educational opportunities for Buddhist women. The provision of a Buddhist educational system for women is an issue to be worked out in collaboration with the Buddhist educational system for monks. Thus monks and nuns can become real resources on whom people can depend for spiritual guidance. This should be a major concern and fundamental responsibility for the people who seek ordination besides studies and personal practices.

### **1.5.2 Recognition.**

The government must endeavour seriously to provide proper ordination for mae-jis, so that they can be recognized. Through ordination, mae-jis will be controlled both in terms of numbers and quality. Such process will automatically screen out the real mae-jis from those who use the role for their own benefit. With proper ordination and registration, the government can easily provide mae-jis with education, as earlier suggested; in return they could benefit from government recognition and enjoy some privileges such as free transportation, etc.

### **1.5.3 Co-operation.**

The co-operation of the Sangha is to be sought through the Department of Religious Affairs to help support mae-jis at an early stage. One must realize that Buddhism is for both men and women. With women's participation under proper guidance of the Sangha, Buddhism should be doubly strengthened and contribute to the betterment of society in general.

### **1.5.4 Opportunities.**

Opportunities should be given to both men and women alike to participate in Buddhist activities. Value judgements should be made on the basis of quality rather than of gender. Professions dealing with Buddhism should not be reserved exclusively to monks or ex-monks. Buddhist men must truly practice and uphold the spirit of Buddhism, especially the teaching of selflessness, so as to provide opportunities for women in many other fields related to Buddhism..

## **2. CHRISTIANITY**

### **2.1 HISTORICAL OVERVIEW**

Catholic missionary work in Thailand began in the 16<sup>th</sup> century and permanent missions were established later in the 17<sup>th</sup> century. Protestant missionaries came in 1828. All through the ages Christian considered it their duty to preach the Gospel to all nations following a command given by Jesus himself. The present paper is written by

someone who is more familiar with the activities of the Church of Christ in Thailand (CCT) which was established as a self-governing body in 1934 bringing together the Presbyterians, the Baptists and the Disciples into one federation. However references will be made to other groups, especially the Catholic Church.

The CCT women, aware of their role in the church formed an organization called "King's daughters". The purpose of this group was to strengthen the faith of the women through the study of the Bible and through prayer; women were to witness to the greatest commandment of the Gospel, love of God and love of neighbour and contribute to the works of the church according to their abilities and skills.

During the second world war, religious activities were banned. However, Christian women played an important, although quiet, supporting role. After the war, the CCT women reorganized themselves as a division within the church called "Christian Women". The original purpose of the King's Daughters was enlarged to include ecumenical activities. In 1952, the CCT women joined the "World Day of Prayer", a movement which includes a membership of 180 churches from all over the world. The Catholic Women Association later joined this movement. In 1980, the Thai women were entrusted with the responsibility of organizing the World Day of Prayer under the theme "Responsible Freedom".

The ecumenical involvement of the women has provided them with an opportunity to expand their activities across frontiers. For instance, half of the offerings made on the World Day of Prayers is sent abroad to help the needy and the poor. The other half is used locally for special projects for the community.

To cope with the problems of poverty, illiteracy and prostitution, several community projects have been set up such as "Water for All", "Rural Youth Development", "Leadership Training", "New Home-New Life", etc. In general, the purpose of these projects is to help decrease the migration of rural youth to the big cities and to enable such youth to lead a simple and dignified life in their own villages and to support their families.

The CCT women eventually set up their own headquarters in a three-story building, an endeavour which took ten years. This building provides office and meeting room space for the Association and also short-term shelter for rural workers travelling to Bangkok.

The Association has become a Department in the organization of the CCT to strengthen religious faith, deepen theological understanding, enhance social consciousness and contribute to the life of the community financially, culturally and morally.

## **2.2 ROLE OF WOMEN IN CHRISTIANITY**

All through history, women have played a major role in Christianity, even though official positions of leadership have been traditionally held by men. The Bible records the deeds of many outstanding women, whether it be in former times in the Old Testament or in the era from the times of Jesus on, in the New Testament. In the days of Egypt's domination over Israel, some strong women resisted orders from the King to eliminate newborn male children, a heroic deed which resulted in the survival of Moses. Many such stories of heroism are found in the Bible. The greatest women of all in Christianity is Mary, the mother of Jesus. Although a simple girl she played a major role in the history of the Church, from the time she conceived Jesus up to the time of his death and during the critical first days of Christianity. She is regarded as a model of strength and courage and her quiet presence has contributed to the establishment of the Church which has endured all through the ages. The Bible also mentions a number of women who are seen as models of courage such as those who followed him to the crucifixion on Good Friday.

Since the first days of the Church up to the present many women have played significant roles which have directly influenced history. In general, they have promoted understanding of the teachings of Jesus and of the whole Bible, they have led others in prayer, they have devised many practical ways to implement the Scriptures. Women

have always been considered as playing an influential role in the family, providing support, advice, teaching children how to live, according to Proverbs 22:6 in the Scriptures, "Teach a child how to live and he shall remember it all his life".

### **2.3 WOMEN AND PROFESSIONAL WORK**

From a Christian point of view, work and religion should not be separated. The practice of one's religion should be interwoven into one's daily life and be reflected in one's behaviour in a holistic fashion. Moral standards are to applied not only to one's personal life but they should constitute a basis on which one tries to find ways to assist members of the community and contributes to the welfare of the country. This is true for all women and men alike. Therefore, women should endeavour to use their full potential in assuming whatever function of occupation they are capable of for the greatest good of all. This is principle which does not stand any discrimination. Christian women should find their place in any type of work place or office where their education and experience qualify them to serve.

### **2.4 WOMEN AND ORDINATION**

The access to ordination for women differs among the various Christian churches. For Roman Catholics, women can join religious orders or congregations for women as nuns. They dedicate their whole lives to study the Word of God and the teachings of the Church, working in different social fields such as teaching, hospital care, social work, etc. They lead a life well disciplined and are highly regarded in the community. However they can never be entrusted with priestly duties.

In Protestant churches, the situation is different. In the case of the CCT, there are deaconesses who take turns looking after the physical and financial aspects of church work. Elders, who are elected for life, are experienced and respected persons who nurture the spiritual and moral life of the congregations. Men and women are equally eligible to be elected to such an office by church members. Seminaries train theological students without distinction of gender. Therefore women can be ordained as church ministers or pastors. Even though there is no gender restriction for these positions, the social context of the Thai culture gives preference to men for those positions which constitute the decision making body of the church. Therefore, there is, in practice, a discrimination against women which is rooted deeply in the national value system.

### **2.5 ATTITUDE OF CHURCH LEADERS AND ROLE OF WOMEN AS RELIGIOUS LEADERS**

Many men among church leaders sincerely support women, especially after the World Council of Churches launched the "Ecumenical Decade 1988-1998 Church in Solidarity with Women". The UN decade for Women had ended with many unanswered questions. The WCC picked up such issues which were taken up by the majority of the member churches, including the CCT. The Ecumenical Decade calls for the churches to support a better life for women, equality in the churches and in society, liberation of the oppressed and the study of theology.

Most Christian women believe in a God Creator of the universe, but they do not really understand the true meaning of the teachings of Jesus. They memorize parts of the Scriptures understanding only partly what they retain in their memory. However, some young and courageous women theologians try to deepen and widen their understanding of the Scriptures, finding applications relevant to daily life, within the cultural context of the Thai society.

Many women have been actively involved in the church and the society. There are no law restricting the participation of women in the church. Women, who are well educated of who come from prestigious families, are readily accepted and accorded equal status in the church communities especially in Bangkok and in the large urban

centres. In the rural areas, such acceptance is more difficult due to culture, traditions as well as lack of education. Many rural CCT women are reluctant to join local women's movements feeling that Christians should not be involved in political or social issues. They feel that Christians are not accepted as equal partners in the community and that they cannot fully participate in the life of their own society. On that point, members of the Catholic Women Association are better integrated in community activities than the Protestants and participate more fully.

Many male theologians seem to retain the attitude of Paul, one of the most influential Church leaders, disregarding the teachings of Jesus who accepted both women and men as full human beings, all children of God without discrimination. Paul, on his part, insisted that women should be submitted to their husbands and obey them. This teaching has, oftentimes, been accepted too literally without taking into account the social and cultural context of those times. Today, efforts should be made to separate cultural traditions of a certain ethnic group at a given period in history from the substance of the teachings of Jesus who preaches love of all people.

## **2.6 ECONOMIC FACTORS**

The level of education of women in general is lower than that of men. However, women have to carry a double burden of looking after the family as well as working to earn money to support the family. Such work, very often, involves heavy labour. In the face of poverty and hardships, there are tempting alternatives to earn easy money such as prostitution and drug trafficking. Those falling prey to such temptations eventually endure their harsh consequences in terms of disease or criminal arrests. There are also the cases of women migrating to Bangkok and other urban centres or to foreign countries to work as domestic helpers and easily become the victims of exploitation.

In many cases, women assume equal responsibility in supporting the family financially. Working mothers have become a characteristic of life, especially in the cities. Oftentimes, women are overburdened by such duties and have little time left to fulfill their roles as wives and mothers. As a consequence, children are deprived of the love, understanding, nurturing and tender care which are essential to the healthy development of the individual. Husbands feel neglected. Family breakdowns are often the end result of this set of circumstances.

## **2.7 CONCLUSION**

To sum up, one could say that Christian women are still deprived of their rightful place in the Church and society. Women might remain equal partners in the various works of the communities being entrusted with a supporting role whether it be moral support or assistance with economic matters.

Because Christians are a minority and also because of the structure of particular churches or regulations of some organizations, particularly among women of the CCT, it is difficult for Christian women to participate in such organizations as the National Women Association of Thailand or social service organizations. Such participation could become possible if restricting church regulations could be changed. Christian women in general, and CCT women in particular, should change their self-concepts as being a minority group in the society. They should see themselves as full members of the Thai society, be recognized as such by the general public and fully active in the wide range of activities where they can contribute to the greater good of the country.

# **3. WOMEN IN ISLAM**

## **3.1 ROLE OF WOMEN IN ISLAM**

**3.1.1 The Role of Women in Islam in the Past.** The period which is called the dark period refers to the times before the proclamation of Islam by Prophet Mohammed, before the revelation of the Sacred Koran. Society

at that time either in the Arab world or in many other nations in the world, existed in relatively similar conditions, particularly with regard to women. The present paper will limit its considerations to the Arab world in the Middle-East.

People during that dark period were uncivilized. They stipulated many kinds of customs that reflected barbaric traditions for the society in general, for administration, for wars, for economic matters or even for religious practices. Society at that time looked at women as being without any value. Women had no rights of their own. When a woman delivered a child, if the baby was a girl, various measures were taken to eliminate it. If the girl was raised until grown up, she was taken as a slave or had to be dressed like a boy and sent out to raise cattle or forced to get married.

In brief, during that uncivilized period, women were almost a surplus commodity in the society. There were various customs or social regulations for women in that period as follows:

- Women had no right to receive heirlooms.
- Women could acquire no rights from men who were their husbands.
- There was no stipulated number of divorces.
- A man could have any number of wives.
- Women had no right to choose their husband.
- Women had no right to give an opinion or demand any right in the household.
- Fathers could sell their daughters by forcing them to get married and collect the dowry themselves.
- Foster mothers became inherited by foster sons when their husbands died.
- Daughters would be killed as they were considered an evil aspect and were a jinx to the descent of the family.
- Daughters were killed out of fear of poverty, by being buried alive.

At the end of the sixth century of the Christian Era, the status of women was like that of goods or robots that men could control. Then, things began to change for the better. There was some consideration about the honour women deserve and about women enjoying freedom like men, because Prophet Mohammed brought the true meaning of the Holy Scriptures, the Koran, to the world so that people could accept the status of women with reason. It has been socially acceptable to do so ever since.

**3.1.2 The Role of Women in Islam at the Present Time.** From the period of Prophet Mohammed until the present day, Muslim women have been accepted by the society and honoured. Islamic rules relating to women, can be summed up as follows:

- 3.1.2.1 Women are equal to men in humanity as can be seen in the Holy Scripture Koran, Nissa, where the first Command decrees that:

“O mankind: reverence Your Guardian-Lord, Who created you from a single person, created, of like nature, his mate, and from them twain...”
- 3.1.2.2 Wiping out the condemnation from religious persons in the former period that a woman was the cause of Adam's expulsion from paradise. It was declared that the expulsion from paradise was not the fault of the woman only but that there was joint guilt. The Holy Scripture Koran, Chapter Baqara, 36th Command confirmed the issue:

“Then did Satan make them slip from the (Garden), and took them out of the state (of felicity) in which they had been...”
- 3.1.2.3 Woman has a right to be devout, can perform good deeds, has the right to go to Heaven if she does good deeds and she must be punished if she does bad ones. Therefore the woman is equal to man in performing good or bad.

The Holy Scripture Koran Chapter Nahl, 97th Command certified in this case that:

“Whoever works righteousness, man or woman, and has faith, verily, to him will We give a new life, a life that is good and pure, and We will bestow on such their reward according to the best of their actions.”

- 3.1.2.4 A Muslim is forbidden to show hate because a person is female and it is forbidden to be sorrowful when having a female child. This was the custom of the Arabs during the uncivilized period and this feeling still exists with some people, some groups and some countries at the present time.

Islam declares that it does not condone this custom as said in the Holy Scripture Koran, Chapter Nagl. 58th-59th Command:

“When news is brought to one of them, of (the birth of) a female (child), his face darkens, and he is filled with inward grief!”

“With shame does he hide himself from his people, because of the bad news he has had! Shall it be retained with (suffering and) contempt, or be buried in the dust? Ah! what an evil (choice) they decide on!”

- 3.1.2.5 Islam is not allowed to kill a child by burying it alive or any other method. The Holy Scripture Koran, Chapter Al-Anam, 140th Command says:

“He said: “Shall I seek for you a god other than the (True) Allah, when it is Allah Who hath endowed you with gifts above the nations?”

- 3.1.2.6 Islam is used to honour women in the state of childhood, wifehood or motherhood of the childhood. The Prophet Mohammed has taught that:

“Any man who has a daughter, he must teach and order to be good and bring up to have manners to be breeding girl in the wifehood”

Allah said in the Holy Scripture Koran, Chapter Rum, 21st Command that:

“And among His Signs is this, that He created for you mates from among yourselves, that ye may dwell in tranquillity with them, and He has put love...”

- 3.1.2.7 Women has an equal right to be educated just as a man. The Prophet of Allah said:

“The education to seek knowledge is a duty of all Muslims both men and women”

- 3.1.2.8 A women has the right to receive heritage in her position as a mother, wife, daughter whether grown-up or not, or even as a child still in the womb of the mother.

- 3.1.2.9 The family system of Islam has stipulated the right of the husband and still stipulated the right of the wife in justice as a base of the reality of woman and man.

The Holy Scripture Koran, Chapter Baqara, 228th Command stipulates that :

“And women shall have rights similar to the rights against them, according to what is equitable; but men have a degree (of advantage) over them...”

- 3.1.2.10 Islam stipulates that the divorce has an end, having a way and method in that the wife has taken part in obtaining the benefit of the divorce in case of inability to co-live as spouse, which is different from the uncivilized period of Islam when a divorce could be made by the husband freely without limits and no matter how many times the divorce occurred.

- 3.1.2.11 Islam stipulated that a man may have at the same time not more than 4 wives: in former times a man could have an unlimited number of wives, causing family problems, especially in supporting the families.

- 3.1.2.12 Islam holds that the elder women before attaining religious status must be under the care of the guardian, must be well bred, trained in manners, educated and her property must be

protected until the child is grown up, then she can look after her property further. When attaining the religious state, she has rights equal to those of a man in social life, especially in the ownership of property or in spending money sales, transactions, investment in trade or alms giving from her own money for instance.

In all the 12 points mentioned above it can be seen that Islam honours women completely, on all of the following 3 aspects:

- 1) humanity.
- 2) society, religion and education.
- 3) the rights in her body and the ownership of property.

## **3.2 WOMEN AND ISLAM.**

### **3.2.1 Role of Women in Religion in the Holy Scripture Koran.**

#### **3.2.1.1 Rights of Women,**

Women have rights as men, except that there are differences in terms of readiness and the said rights must not be against the duty of a woman. A woman has the following rights:

1) Rights to life like men. For this reason, Islam prohibits killing daughters. So it is stipulated that with the right to life, whoever kills others intentionally, must also be killed, whether it be women or men.

2) Women should be honoured because they are human beings. Allah said in Chapter Bani Isra-il, 70th command:

“We have honoured the sons of Adam; provided them with transport on land and sea,...”

3) Women have rights to accumulate property with right methods according to Islamic Law. Women also have the rights to obtain property as heritage; the Islam Laws have confirmed the said rights after the period of Yahiliya in former times. The Holy Scripture, Chapter Nissa, 7th Command has this:

“From what is left by parents and those nearest related there is a share for men and a share for women, whether the property be small or large, a determinate share.”

A woman has the right to manage expenditures according to her wishes, without the permission from any one, as long as she has full and complete consciousness.

4) A woman has the right to receive Mahar or the property endowed by the man in the marriage as the Holy Scripture Koran, Chapter Nissa, 4th Command stipulates that :

“And give the women (in marriage) their dower as a free gift;...”

The woman has the right to receive support from the husband as Chapter Baqara, 233rd Command stipulates that:

“...But he shall bear the cost of their food and clothing on equitable terms...”

Besides, women have the rights to receive support from the children as mothers too.

5) Women have the rights to raise children if there is a separation between husband and wife.

6) Women have the right to education which is beneficial to her, but the method used must be appropriate for the nature of women and under the conditions that it be practiced according to the etiquette of Islam and with strictness. What is most beneficial to women

is education in the Catechism and Laws of Islam, which teach things allowed to do and things not allowed to do.

As for world knowledge, permission can be granted when a woman needs to study subjects in various branches but this should be according to the conditions mentioned above.

In the same manner, women should study in subjects suitable to the nature of being a woman and according to their obligations to care for children and supervise the activities in the house, such as sewing and embroidery, cooking and principles of raising children.

If women need additional education, this will do no harm, on the condition that this will not interfere with her duty, that there is no mixing of men and women and they should not be required to expose any part of the body that religion requires to cover, such as, head, bosom, arms, legs in the presence of men or to appear in front of others with prohibited dress. All these points mentioned are prohibited and not allowed even for reasons of education.

7) Women have rights related to their participation in society

“Anyone who is not interested in Muslim activities, is not my group.” For Muslims there are good and bad activities. A Muslim must contribute to the propagation of various ideas of Islam among one’s neighbours. Women have the right to give their opinion on various issues in general and give consultation on methods practicable, such as in meetings of women groups, providing knowledge and supporting the propagation of good ethics and promoting the observance of duties which are hers and forbidding activities which are bad. Allah has said in the Holy Scripture Koran, Chapter Tauba, 71st Command that:

“The Believers, men and women, are protectors, one of another: they enjoy what is just, and forbid what is evil...”

To each other, they must do good and are not allowed to do bad.

As for participation in various elections according to methods known at the present time such as in the election of the leader of the country and members of Parliament, according to the opinion of learned persons, this is considered as a thing not allowed for women to do, because of having no model in the past on this issue as in the election of Dolifah four.

### 3.2.1.2 Duties of Women

As for the question of rights, women have also duties which are similar to those of men except that there are differences. The basic principle, though, remains the same, namely that women are human beings and are entitled to the rights and duties essential to human nature. Duties of women can be classified as follows:

- a. Women must observe the various orders of Islam Laws, whether it be the principle of faith, principle of respect, contribution to society, except in things where women should be exempted because of their nature such as fighting in wars, which is the duty of men only. However, if women wish to go to the battlefield together with the warriors, then it is not prohibited and they will assume the duty of fighting according to their ability such as the treatment of the injured persons, preparing food.

In fact all the orders in the Holy Scripture Koran applies to those who are devout, including women unless there is evidence to show clearly that women are not included

by such order as in the Holy Scripture Koran, Chapter Nisaa, 123rd Command saying that :

“Not your desires, nor those of the people of the Book (can prevail) : whoever works evil, will be requited accordingly, nor will he find, besides Allah, any protector or helper.”

- b. It is the duty of women to obey their husbands willingly and observe their duty towards their husbands completely as the Prophet has said.

“If I am the sender of anyone to adore another one, then I will let the wife adore her husband. When she obeys her husband and observes the duty assigned to her nicely, she will then be the most superb women”.

A women is responsible for the activities in the house and she is entrusted with the issues concerning the house. Therefore it is necessary that she must perform as entrusted to her as mentioned in the words of the Prophet stating that :

“You all are the supervisors and you all are responsible to those under your supervision...and the wife is the supervisor of the house of her husband and she is responsible to the one under the supervision”.

### **3.2.1.3 The Specific Duty of a Woman is Wifehood and Motherhood**

The main duty of a woman is to be wife and mother including the training of children and raising them by way of example. The training of the children must be done in the home, not from the roadside and it is necessary to use much time without doing any other duty, no matter whether earning her living, because this is the duty of the husband to support the wife and children. Therefore it is not necessary that the women must leave the house to work because to work is to provide the money for living which is a duty for which the man is already responsible. Then it is not necessary that a woman does such duty, since Islam has exempted women from works which are the duty of men. The purpose of this rule is to give women more time to perform their important duties. Therefore in wars, (according to the ways of Allah) women are not to be involved; such duty belongs to men. Prayers at the Masjid is necessary for men only. Islam wishes that women stay home and go out of the homes only when there is some necessity. This is because more time will be spent in performing her great duty of caring for children and house-keeping so that the home is comfortable for the husbands when coming back from work outside.

Therefore it is clear that women have much importance to the family institution. In general, women in many families have performed their duties quite well thus contributing to peace in the society.

### **3.2.2 Role of Women in Islam.**

Since the appearance of Islam in the world, Muslim women have had a part in building the works of Islam not less than men. For instance, her Highness Kodia, wife of the Prophet Mohammad, played an important role in propagating the Islam religion by being the supporter of the religion of the Prophet and by donating money to support the operation of the works. Her Highness Aisah, another wife of the Prophet, was a learned person in the Islam religion, spreading the teachings of the Prophet, gathering many disciples. Even men accepted to depend on her. There have been women knowledgeable in Hadis, with experience in various branches of the religion, being professors and having students who have become famous and contributing to the establishment of the Religious University, one of the 4 universities. Besides, women still play a role in training children more than men and influence children more than the father.

### **3.2.3 Role of Women in Various Areas**

#### **3.2.3.1 Women as Dharma Practitioners.**

Islam Religion is a religion of the mind, a religion of thought. All Muslim men and women must observe religious practices equally such as the Law of 5 ways:

- 1) The pledge.
- 2) Adoration 5 times a day.
- 3) Donations according to the religious law.
- 4) Fasting.
- 5) Performing of Hajji ceremony at Mecca, Saudi Arabia.

The 5 principal laws mentioned above should be observed strictly by both Muslim men and women with faith in God. Those who are pious will demonstrate the fear of God with the activities enforced by Him and refrain from the things He forbade as taught in the law in the Holy Scripture Koran with piety. All lives must experience the results of practicing goodness as indicated in the law:

“All those performing Good, men or women alike, if they are pious, will surely be rewarded by Allah who will give them a good life according to their deeds.” Therefore, women must observe the laws equally well as men in all respects.

### **3.2.3.2 Daily Religious Practices**

Though the observation of religious activities in the Islam Religion takes place 5 times a day, this will not be an obstacle for women in anyway, because daily religious practices leave enough time for all kinds of work, whether it be the duty of the housewife or other necessary duties outside of the house as can be seen from the following stipulated schedule :

1st	Time :	Morning	From dawn until the sunrise, approximately 1 hour or from about 05.30 to 06.00 hours
2nd	Time :	Noon	About 12.30 to 15.30 hours
3rd	Time :	Afternoon	About 15.30 to 18.30 hours
4th	Time :	Evening	From sunset at the horizon, about 18.30 to 19.30 hours
5th	Time :	Night	From 19.30 hours until dawn.

It can be seen from this schedule that the daytime and the afternoon may be a time when women go out of the house to perform some works but if household chores have been completed there might be enough time left to practice religious works. Further, the Islam religion does not have any law that is much difficult for pious people to perform. If a women is pious, she can perform the daily religious practices as well as men.

### **3.2.3.3 Occupations**

Women have the duty to supervise the family. The primary responsibility of a woman according the principles of religion is the good supervision of the household and family in happiness, and the training of the offsprings to be virtuous, and fostering happiness in the family and peace in society. If women work outside the home like men, Islam will grant them the right to do business, without mingling with men, because religion forbids women to work outside the home unnecessarily. Leaving the house requires the permission form the guardian. If a woman is single she needs the permission from her father, mother, brother or guardian at that time. If she is married, permission should be obtained from her husband. Her dress must be right and she must be entirely covered. The type of work must not be against the rule of the religion, such as : modeling, service girl, movie star, prostitute, singer, musician. Working places should have the women separated from the men, since working together is the main cause of various problems afterward.

### **3.2.3.4 Women and Social Correction**

One of the main duties of Muslim women is to try to correct minds, promote purity in the family, among neighbours and acquaintances by providing advice and assistance in eradicating vicious things in the past or present. Further it is the duty of women to foster Goodness or Light, to propagate religion to those who still

ignore it in order that all will be in the right track converting indifferent persons to the principles of Islam. The training and the teaching of the fundamentals of religion are also the responsibilities of women.

Within the family, Muslim women should lead children or offsprings in the house in a religious atmosphere and if the man in that family is without virtue, it is the duty of the women to persuade him back to virtue. But if the man is strict, pious and stable in virtue, he is a good example for the family and the women will perform only her duty in relieving his burden in the correction of children or youngsters in the house.

Women in any family of society, in performing their duties of correction of offsprings or children will insure that such societies and families have happiness.

When goodness within the family has been well established, women will help in correcting the society in general by gradually expanding their efforts outward so that society will also have happiness.

### **3.2.4 Role of Islamic Women/Leading Women in Islam.**

Muslim women have no status as religious leaders but they must be law practitioners as well as men. Muslim women who have good knowledge in religion, are strict in applying the principles of the religion; they will be leaders of religion in women groups by persuading women friends to observe what is taught by the religion and advise women friends and youth in refraining from the things prohibited by the religion, whether by words or actions, as may be appropriate. Muslim women interested in the said duties will be assigned to be religious teachers in the village, in schools, and will have duties in the propagation of virtue among women. Therefore, there is no organization of religion for women in particular. The organization of the Islam religion teaches duties for all women and men. Personnel involved in the religious organizations do not include too many women.

### **3.2.5 Islamic Education of Women**

Muslim women must begin to study religion since childhood in order to behave correctly when attaining religious maturity. Muslim women in general must study religion at least up to compulsory education which consists of the Practical Principle, the Piety Principle, the Reading of Holy Scripture Koran and the Principle of Ethics to be used in daily life. As for further education some women should, at the secondary education and academic education level, be prepared to become teachers in schools and colleges. Women must first of all be in the position of wives, husbands being leaders in the religion. But if women wish to study, they can do so as much as the men as the Prophet Mohammed said:

“Education is a duty for Muslim men and women” Education in religion is necessary for Muslim women because they must have the duty to transfer teachings to children and they must use such teachings as guidelines in their own lives.

## **3.3 CONDITIONS AND PROBLEMS OF THAI WOMEN IN SOCIAL SERVICES.**

### **3.3.1 Government Attitude.**

The Government has appointed responsible officers for religious affairs but the Government does not interfere in the operation of religion. If there is anything worth of supporting, consideration is made case by case. Islamic religion provides equality for practice for women and men. Therefore all should have the right to travel for the Hadji ceremony at Macca, Saudi Arabia Muslim people must be entitled to take leave to go to Hadji ceremony just as men can take leave for ordination into the priesthood in Buddhism. Moreover, the government must give support for the religious education and the practice of religion.

### **3.3.2 Attitude of the Religious Executive Towards the Status and Role of Women in Islam.**

The Religious Executive, such as the Islam Committee in Masjid, has opened the opportunity for

women to have the rights to be Assistants in Masjid Administration in some positions suitable for women. Some Masjid have opened the opportunity for women to work as Masjid Committee members. Those who join in the operation must behave appropriately as a leading person as according to the principles of religion; some positions of the Committee at a higher level, however are not opened yet, which Muslims have no right to claim as all know the duty of woman in religion. Therefore the role of women in religion will be the propagation of religion, teaching religion or bringing any clause to practice in groups, in society, such as the Muslim Volunteer Group. They will also help to work on the propagation of the techniques. Thai Muslim women also work for orphans and the poor for instance.

### **3.3.3 Lack of Understanding of the Principles.**

Social problems of Muslim women result from the lack of understanding of the religious principles. This is obvious, for instance, in the issue of dressing. We can see that in the South, most women have their heads covered according to the religious principle as has been practiced throughout over the years. In the Central region, on the way to religious functions or to Masjid, women will have their head covered. It is considered proper dressing according to religious customs. Sometimes, those in other faiths lack the understanding of the Islam religious principles. Sometimes those working in Government organizations voice private opinions against such practices, causing misunderstanding and resulting in some problems. Therefore all administrators should find a way to understand the principles of all religions to foster coexistence with good understanding.

Another problem is about names. A Muslim women usually names her child with 2 names, a Thai name and a religious name (Arab language). The use of the Arab language is due to the fact that the Scripture, that is the law, is written the Arab language. Some have no religious name. At some times, it was compulsory to use Thai names only. In the South Arab name seem to be Malay. After the child is born, parents will give a religious name when that child is 7 days old.

### **3.3.4 Popular Values Opposing Women According to Islam.**

Islam has laws relating to women in particular. Women knowledgeable in religion understand well that religion does not involve popular values against women but rather that there are teachings for women to behave appropriately. If any woman has special knowledge and ability and the appropriate behaviour, she may enter into any place in the society and will never feel, with regards to the issue of women's rights, that there is no equal standing when compared to men.

### **3.3.5 Problems Concerning Religious Organizations and the Role of Women in Islam.**

The main organizations in the Islam religion are The Council of Islam, the Islamic Committee of Thailand, the Provincial Islamic Committees. All committee members are men except for the Masjid Committee where there are women. Because of the women going for Lamard in Masjid, women are capable of working in this position. There will be men voting for them to be committee members. Islam has no central organization for women in particular, because of the equality among men and women in the religion, particularly, such as in the principle of practice, the piety principle. In the family system, men should be leaders of women. Muslim women therefore have no role. Women must lead the life in the track of religion, by giving a good example. They will be women leaders in the religion automatically. Women leaders in religion are strict practitioners of the religious principles; they can provide a model for others; they can also contribute to the propagation of knowledge to other women.

### **3.3.6 Religious Practices for Women in Islam as Stipulated by the Society and Culture.**

Islam religion has ethical standards and a religious culture, which are the basis for good religious education and social practices for women. All women must study the fundamentals of religion and practice accordingly when attaining religious maturity. However, there are some Muslim women who worship according to

their ancestors' traditions and who do not study and practice on the basis of their knowledge; they only do as others have done in the past. If they have a domicile in a Muslim village, they can gradually study by practicing as others do. Therefore, Muslim women living in a Muslim society do practice according to Islam traditions and culture. If they have studied the religion and understood it they can also practice it well in societies of other cultures too, because they know that what is religion and they can distinguish from local traditions and culture, which are not to be mixed with religion and actually can draw people away from religion.

### **3.4 FACTORS HAVING AN IMPACT ON WOMEN'S ROLE IN ISLAM**

#### **3.4.1 Social Factors.**

The present Thai Society accepts foreign customs, especially those which involve material progress more than customs fostering spiritual progress. This has an impact on the religious behavior of women, such as dress. Formerly, Thai customs required that women cover themselves. Dressing according to the culture of Thai women consisted of a long skirt and long-sleeve blouse. Today we find less dressing of this type. More and more, we see women following foreign fashions, revealing parts of the body. This is against the principle of Islam religion. Many social functions also have an impact on the role of Muslim women. They follow the Muslim custom prescribed by religion to cover themselves. Most Muslim women therefore do not favour going out to attend social functions for fear of incorrect behaviour and for fear of guilt of doing something against the principle of religion. Muslim women going into the society always place themselves apart by abiding to the principles of the religion more than women in other societies in order to have the least impact.

#### **3.4.2 Laws and Regulations**

The Islam law has some clauses considered by others of different religions as unjust such as the permission for men of having 4 wives. Other clauses which are misunderstood include the division of property whereby more is given to the son than to the daughter or restrictions, some positions being reserved for males such as the Iman position, Koteb, Bilan and Datoh of justice. The Islam religion has specific guidelines for the behaviour of its members. Failing to observe these prescriptions entail punishment.

Some clauses in the law seem to be unfair to women such as the provision allowing men more than one wife. However, men are bound, both in their private and public life, to treat all their wives with fairness. Sexual needs of men are great but the satisfaction of such needs cannot be attained in illegal ways. The provision of legal wives is precised to prevent promiscuity and illegal activities. Likewise, sons have a greater share in the inheritance of their fathers because their responsibilities are greater than that of the daughters: they must support their family, their wives and look after all the needs of the family. Women, on the other hand, are in the position of being supported by the men.

The reason for positions which are limited to men only, this is because God created women as the soft sex, having no strong spirit like men, being unsuitable for such work as judging religious problems. Women are not suitable to be religious leaders, i.e. Iman, Koteb, Bilan who must work all the time; such work belongs to men. Women cannot be involved all the time; at times there is some necessity to refrain from performing religious activity temporarily as ruled by the religion. Therefore religion is not a factor that has an impact on the role of women.

Devoted Muslim women will lead their life according to the guidelines of religion with some of them relying on worldly laws to judge their problems, especially the law pertaining to the family and heritage. Muslim women must use the Islamic law as a guideline for judgment in order to follow the teachings of the religion while holding the laws and the regulations of the world that are not against the principle of the religion; thus the law and regulations of the country can be observed.

### **3.4.3 Economic Factors**

It is recognized that the economy in our country is not too good. Our country is an agricultural country; therefore it is not as rich as industrial countries or countries that have a lot of resources. As a result of this situation all men and women must assist each other to work for a living for the betterment of the economy in the family. This has an impact on the role of the women in the religion, because women must go out of the house to work, unable to supervise the family fully. The choice of a profession is not always easy as some are not qualified to enter a suitable profession.

To sum up, Islam has particular regulations regarding the behaviour of women. Women, inspired by the teachings of their religion must go ahead in life and conquer all the dangers ahead. The teachings of the Islam religion are difficult to observe. But in order to insure justice and fairness for all sexes, laws must be followed, both those forbidding and those prescribing certain actions, including provisions for exceptions to the rules.

Therefore, it is important to set policies which will promote education for women and youth so that they be given the opportunity to learn and behave properly. Measures must be taken to protect the culture of our nation and of all religions. At the same time, measures must be taken to eradicate all those factors which endanger the role and status of women.

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CHAPTER 11

**WOMEN AND COMMERCIAL SEX**

# CHAPTER 11

## WOMEN AND COMMERCIAL SEX

### 1. INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 DEFINITION OF SEX INDUSTRY AND SERVICE TRADER

Sex industry is referred to as a business through which an operator provides women to customers for the purpose of prostitution or allows prostitution to take place in entertainment places as stated in the Entertainment Places Act of 1966 such as hotels, bars, massage parlours, tea houses, ect., including brothels as an example of illegal places.

Sex entertainment yields high benefits to operators and involved parties. As a result, this business grows very fast in various forms. Networks of sex entertainment are expanding at the local, national and international levels.

Sex industry is one type of trafficking of human beings which violates human rights in a sense that this business allows a person to make profits and earn a living with other people's bodies. In the present socioeconomic conditions sex services or prostitution has become a career and a way to earn a living for groups of disadvantaged people. Therefore, it is imperative to take short and long-term measures to cope with this situation, decrease the number of procurers and, eventually, the sex industry.

In addition to operators, sex entertainment consists of buyers and sellers. Most of the buyers are male and the majority of sellers are female. At present, not only women and girls but also men and boys are persuaded and/or deceived into prostitution.

Since women constitute the largest group of those selling sex services they are those most deeply affected by this industry and they are the only target group, punished and despised by the society. So women should be the first group given attention. Nevertheless, in seeking measures to prevent and solve prostitution problems one should also be concerned with men and boys who sell sex services also.

Solutions and preventive measures should rely on the cooperation of both the government and the private sector. Clean policies should be stated indicating the will of the government to eliminate in the long run the sex industry. In the meantime short-term measures should be taken to reduce the number of such businesses forbidding their promotion directly or indirectly, and solving the immediate problems incurring from the sex industry.

However, the way of dealing with the sex trade must be in the form of assistance/aid instead of arrest and punishment.

#### 1.2 VARIOUS TYPES OF SEX INDUSTRY

At present, the sex industry is booming as the development of the economy progresses. There are several forms of sex industries both open and hidden, including domestic and international ones. They are as follow :

##### 1.2.1 Domestic Sex Industry There are two main groups.

**a. Direct Sex Services** such as brothels, Agogo Bars and tea houses where prostitutes are available exclusively of providing sex services.

(1) Prostitutes :

Prostitution is a form of selling sexual intercourse which has existed all through history. Prostitutes have been working openly in brothels or looking for customers on the streets. Today, sex services are also offered in some entertainment places such as Agogo Bars, restaurants with color lights, "fingerless" restaurants, beauty saloons and motels, etc.

(2) Service Girls in Tea Houses :

This is a form of service derived from China. It is a legal service according to the present Entertainment Places Act. There are 1,683 service girls all over the country. The operators have to keep records of these service girls and submit reports to the Police Department. The problems of these service girls are that some are lured from the rural areas and forced into prostitution. Wages are extremely low and the girls are always abused or exploited.

**b. Hidden Sex Services** such as hotels, restaurants, cafes, massage parlours, night clubs, escort services, beauty saloons where sex services are offered hidden through other services.

(1) Service Girls in Massage Parlours :

Nowadays, there are 272 massage parlours and 16,892 service girls all over Thailand. The service girls' personal histories must be written by operators and submitted to the Police Department. The wage they earn from the job is very low; as a result, they offer sex services in the massage parlor as well. Masseuses are the important group persuaded into prostitution abroad. According to a report of the Special Agency of Prevention and Suppression of Prostitution Deception of the Police Department, it was estimated that there were 12,000 Thai women working in massage parlors in Magout.

(2) Call Girls :

This type of sex industry provides services in the big cities like Bangkok. Service girls receive wages moderately high and most of them come from the northern region. Their age ranges from 15 years and up. In some cases, the girls are redeemed by foreign customers and go back to their home town. Sometimes this business is operated in a hidden way through fashion shows, photos published in magazines as parts of novels. This is one way of presenting girls to customers.

(3) Escort Girls :

During 1983-1984, escort services began and were advertised openly. Foreign girls can be provided for customers. Compared to girls working in other sex services, escort girls earn higher incomes and they belong to a better class. Their age ranges between 15 and 20 years (the girls who belong to this age group are secondary school and university students) and between 20 and 26 years of age (the girls who belong to this age group are government officers and working women in private companies). These girls usually have a good figure, good manners and high taste in consumption. Most customers work in the business sector (entertaining visitors)

**1.2.2 International Sex Industry.** The following are types of sex industry outside the country:

**a. Women and Child Prostitutes Overseas :**

Women and girls are sent to work as prostitutes overseas and the number of these working women is increasing. As a result, the number of Thai prostitutes applicants has increased drastically and, the competition in this business is getting strong. In addition to women and girls, Thai men also go to work abroad. A majority of these people are willing to become prostitutes because they expect high wages. At the beginning, they expose themselves through shows, but the wages they earn are low so they prostitute themselves to supplement their incomes. Later on, commission merchants cooperate with influential networks in each country to supply Thai people as prostitutes in particular countries. The business yields high profits.

Important markets of foreign prostitution are Japan, HongKong, Malaysia, Singapore and Germany. The Operation of this business has expanded to Southern European countries to Australia and New Zealand, and to the United States of America. In addition to sending women for prostitution girls 15 years of age or below are also used in pornographic businesses as well as in prostitution.

Since this kind of business is against the International Law a sex worker is in an illegal status and can be exploited, finding one's self in a situation where he/she has to depend on others, rely on sex traffickers in order to avoid being captured in those countries.

#### **B. Mail Order Wives:**

This type of sex industry was the result of sex tours and started to spread during 1984. It first began in the Federal Republic of Germany through deals between Thais and male foreigners. A Thai girl is presented and sold to a German man and lives with him during a trial period before getting married. If the man is not satisfied with the girl, he can reject her and the girl is sold another man. If nobody wants to marry her within a period of three months, she has to fly home. At present, mail order wife services are spreading to several countries.

This business is difficult to control by both Thai and Foreign Affairs Laws; therefore, it is advertised openly. As a result, Thai women in various fields of professions have become victims of the business and, finally, a number of them have become prostitutes.

### **1.3 IMPACT OF THE CONCERNED PROBLEMS ON THE NATIONAL ECONOMY, SOCIETY AND CULTURE**

As Thailand experiences a rapid economic growth, people are encouraged to live in great comfort and consume lavishly. This has made it possible for the sex industry to take roots and become well established. Moreover, with present economic conditions, there are great disparities in income distribution which contribute to the development of the sex industry. There are those girls in the low income group who are willing to work as service girls to earn a living, and there are those in the high income group who can afford to pay for such services. Moreover, there are factors related to Thai culture and value system whereby sexual promiscuity for men is accepted. Within such context, the sex industry seems well established in the Thai society and it flourishes.

If sex entertainment is to keep increasing, there are impacts on the economy, the society and culture of the country which must be taken into serious considerations. The sex entertainment exposes both service buyers and sellers to Sexually Transmitted Diseases (STD), including AIDS which can not be cured at the moment. This group of people represents a vital manpower for the country, age between 15 and 29 years. If these people become ill or lose their lives before time, there will be effects on the economy in terms of extremely high costs for health care and lack of manpower for producing the country's goods as well. Also some people in this group are military men responsible for the important task of protecting the country. If they become sick, this will affect the stability of the country.

Furthermore, having a huge sex industry which enjoys much popularity at the international level affects in a negative way the image of Thailand and of Thai women, and their dignity.

Economic benefits are expected from the sex entertainment. However, it must be kept in mind that sexual relationships can not be separated from the context in which they should happen, i.e. within the family where they are part of a very private and sophisticated process of interaction between human beings and are the very foundation of the family. If society can buy and sell sex services as if they were a mere trading commodity, society itself becomes affected and loses the elements of love and compassion which would insure its quality and security.

## 2. SITUATIONS, PROBLEMS, CAUSES, IMPACTS AND TRENDS

### 2.1 CONDITIONS OF SEX ENTERTAINMENT PROBLEMS

Both the Trafficking of Woman and Girls Act of 1928, and the Penal Code (Articles 282 to 286), Section : Sex Commission; Prostitution Suppression Act of 1960, both acts are still effective nowadays. An attempt has been made to improve, modify or draft a law relating to or having effect on the protection of rights and benefits of girls, women and forced prostitutes. This clearly indicates that Thai society does not favor prostitution or the sex industry which results in many social problems such as crime, drug addiction and deterioration of ethical and moral values, culture, and also creates health problems such STDS and AIDS. The purpose of the above laws was to penalize violators or persons who committed crime.

Even though there are provisions and state policy guidelines in the National Economic and Social Development Plan which focus on human resources development and on raising the quality of life of the various target groups, the actual situation of the present society contradicts what is already stated in the law. There is evidence of increasing numbers of prostitution operators or persons both women, men and girls who are involved in domestic and international sex entertainments; there are increasing numbers of places of entertainment where the sex industry flourishes. The mass media report cases of parents selling their children to be used for inappropriate occupations or directly for prostitution. Policemen report on sex entertainment places where free girls are forced into prostitution. The sex entertainment business and prostitution are said to be expanding inspite of directives spelled out by the National Economic and Social Development Plans.

#### 2.1.1 Trends of the Sex Industry

Forms of sex trade have changed over the years along with the expansion of the society and economics and also the degree of law enforcement. Sex trade is more likely to happen in hidden forms and with greater mobility of prostitutes. Furthermore, women with low education, especially minority groups (hilltribes and Burmeses), tend to be lured into prostitution more and more. There are more child prostitutes; women engaging in prostitution come from all the regions, not only from the northern region.

In addition, the prostitution operation has expanded quickly and constitutes business which is complex; it uses influence and enormous capital investments; oftentimes, it violates and challenges the law; sometimes officials participate in this operation as well. Some types of mass media are hired to advertise the sex trade indirectly by using ambiguous words/phrases, such as women needed to work in many workplaces, etc. However, it appears that measures employed in controlling the operation of the sex trade like the laws dealing with community control and state policy, are not enforced.

#### 2.1.2 Number of Brothels and Prostitutes

Prostitution is a matter involving both males and females; it is against the law and unacceptable in Thai society. So it is difficult to find certain statistics and data on prostitution. The following paragraphs are estimated data collected by government agencies :

##### 1. Data Collected from the Ministry of Public Health

The Venereal Diseases Division under the Ministry of Public Health surveyed the spreading sources of venereal diseases and the number of prostitutes every month across the country from 1982 to 1991; it was found that the number of spreading sources of venereal diseases rose from 3,034 to 6,160 (doubled within nine years) and the number of prostitutes rose from 46,630 to 84,494 (an increase of 1.8 times within nine years).

The above data, however, still do not include the numbers of hidden prostitutes and minority-group prostitutes which are difficult to obtain. Based on the details of the data mentioned earlier, a statistical analysis can be utilized to estimate the number of prostitutes and prostitution places in the years to come:

**a. Number of Prostitutes and Spreading Sources of Venereal Diseases**

The number of prostitutes between 1991 and 1996 will increase from 96,301 to 119,537. (Tables 1 and 2). Most of the new prostitutes tend to originate from the central region where the figures will rise from 68,304 in 1991 to 90,737 in 1996 (an increase of 22,433 prostitutes in six years). In Bangkok, the increase will not be significant.

**b. Significant Trends**

During 1989-1991, the number of direct prostitutes, such as prostitutes in brothels, hotels, tea houses, tended to decline drastically while the number of hidden prostitutes increased significantly (Table 3).

The ratio of hidden to direct prostitutes during 1983 and 1989 was 1.1 and 2.1. But in 1990, the ratio of hidden to direct prostitutes was 1.6:1. An important cause of these trends is possibly the officials' strictness (especially the Ministry of Public Health) in checking up prostitutes for AIDS. As a result, it has caused direct prostitutes and operators to switch to hidden prostitution in order to improve the prostitutes' image concerning infection and it made it difficult for officials to do their job. The cause of the trends, however, should be studied further.

Changing trends affect the reliability of the estimation of numbers of direct and indirect prostitutes. But it does not affect the total number of prostitutes.

**2. Data Collected from the Police Department**

In the policy paper and guidelines for the protection and suppression of prostitution under the responsibility of the Police Department, the Academic Division of the Department reported at the meeting of the National Council on Women's Affairs that there were no less than 500,000 prostitutes in Thailand.

**2.1.3 Problem Conditions of Child and Forced Prostitutes**

Child and forced prostitutes are phenomena obviously reflecting the progress of the sex industry which compels girls and women to sell their bodies as sex objects. Parents, guardians and sex operators are the ones who gain benefits.

The average age range of child prostitutes is 14 - 15 years. According to the reports of NGOs such as Emergency Home, Protection of Children's Rights Center and Foundation for Women, there are also children 10 - 12 years of age being sold to sex entertainment as well.

In addition to Thai girls and boys in prostitution, there are also children from minority-groups, such as hilltribe people, Burmese, Thai-Yai and Laotian, etc., who are recruited or sold to the neighbouring countries to work as prostitutes.

The actual number of children and forced prostitutes cannot be estimated precisely. The Anti-Slavery Society used to report that there were about 20,000 - 30,000 child prostitutes in Thailand. Generally, it is estimated that 20 percent of all prostitutes are children 15 years of age and below. If using a report written in 1990 by the Academic Division of the Police Department and submitted to the National Commission on Women's Affairs, it is reckoned that not less than 100,000 out of 500,000 prostitutes in Thailand are below 15 years of age.

Child and forced prostitutes are groups whose conditions involve most of the time detainment and abuse. It is a most obvious form of violation of children's rights and of the principles of humankind. If the existing law measures impose penalties on all parties involved, the modes of prostitution operations would be eradicated completely.

The sex industry with child prostitutes is a kind of business which yields high profits. Hence, the idea of operating some form of sex trade attracts many people, especially businessmen and politicians at the local or national level. Children group, in the sex industry are divided into two main categories : city girls and rural girls.

The city girls begin to prostitute themselves occasionally and eventually do it on a permanent basis. They are often motivated to do so because they wish to buy products and services which are beyond their economic means. Along with the poor economic conditions of the family, there are also certain personality dispositions which lead such girls to seek extra income this way.

The rural girls can be divided into three categories:

**1. Volunteers.** This group is quite small. The motivation for entering prostituting of this groups is similar to those in the city. Also, some of them are raped as young girls and this repeatedly until they became used to it and, finally, they go into prostitution.

**2. Being Sold to Brothels.** This is the biggest group. Girls are forced by parents, relatives and guardians or persuaded by an agency which intends to take advantage of them by deceiving the girls and their families.

**3. Forced into Prostitution.** Girls are deluded or kidnaped and sold to brothels by agencies, relatives or acquaintances.

The process of trafficking in women and girls is illegal. In the operating process, it is a must to have connections with legal businesses. To carry out the process of sex trade, it requires high investments in terms of land, buildings, commissions, compensations ranging from 7,000 to 30,000 baht paid to fathers, mothers or child's guardians, official's wages and other expenses for involved parties including politicians at various levels in preventing law officers from being in the way of the prostitution operation. Even though running costs of the operation of prostitution are high, benefits from the business are enormous. This is why it motivates more people to engage into this business until it expands into a wide range of networks. Obviously, the mechanism of sex trade has been effective in getting girls and women from several sources. This mechanism plays the most vital role in drawing women and girls into the sex industry.

#### **2.1.4 Number of Service Buyers and Future Trends**

Apparently, there has been no restriction on male sexual behaviour in Thai society. Hence, many are likely to begin using sex services since the age of 14. According to a study of the Division of Epidemiology, Ministry of Public Health, it was estimated that in 1989, about 4.2 million men visited prostitutes.

In 1989, there were approximately 460,975 men from all over the country attending using health care services. From a study done by Niramol Prutathorn, 90 percent of these men used sex services.

There are no definite figures to support trends of service buyers. But considering present socioeconomic conditions stressing consumerism and materialism and the continuously increasing number of prostitutes, the number of consumers of commercial sex services both Thai and foreign is likely to keep rising continuously if there are no changes in social and legislative measures.

#### **2.1.5 Strategic Procedures for Domestic and International Sex Trade**

##### **1) Domestic:**

- A commission agent contacts and buys child (ren) from parents.
- Parents sell their own child (ren) directly to owners of entertainment places.
- A job placement agent deceives girls offering them jobs in a house or a restaurant. Finally, the girls are forced into prostitution.
- Young girls or women who leave their hometown for prostitution come back and persuade other young girls and women to prostitute.
- In case of kidnaping by using anesthetics, drugs or molestation, a girl is sold to different provinces.

## 2) International:

There were several forms of overseas prostitution:

- A sex industry agent conceals himself in an apartment, beauty saloon, dormitory, hotel or entertainment places in order to persuade service girls to work abroad such as in Japan, Germany etc.
- A girl who has already left her hometown and worked as service girl in a foreign country comes back to persuade girls and women to work outside their village.
- A company arranges brides for foreigners.
- Tour company office.
- Job placement office provides women jobs as maids, sale girls.
- Outlaw influence.

**Methodology:** A commission agent advertises and collects a fee of 50,000-100,000 baht. Another method is for the agent to pay first for the girl's expenses and be reimbursed later.

The procedure starts with photos being taken, interviewing and setting a departure date. Travel is done by groups of 3-10 persons including the agent. When arriving at Don Muang Airport, the agent hands out passports with tourist visas and walks to some designated gate. When reaching the destination, someone picks them up and seize their passports. A women who was arrested or sent back to her country still wanted to travel to that country again; she changed the route to Hat Yai where the agent arranged to get a new passport and visa for Malaysia.

Trends : strategies become more complicated because the business receives direct and indirect support from state officials, who are concerned only with their own personal benefit and also with the networks of trafficking of women and girls throughout the world. At present, girls from overseas are also sent to prostitute in Thailand.

## 2.2 CAUSES OF THE SEX INDUSTRY

### 2.2.1 Economic and Social Changes

During the past decades, economic and social development has emphasized the development of export production to allow Thailand to become a new industrialized country. It promoted the values of object-money and exchange benefits for oneself more than human development. The rapid growth of the economy was a supporting factor in promoting people's attitude on consuming freely in all aspects. Hence, a business called sex industry was launched.

Even though the economy of Thailand grew fast, however the benefits of such growth were not distributed to the public evenly. High profits went to a small portion of people who had a big buying power, while the majority of the people, especially in the rural sector, received few benefits. As a result, the income gap between the rich and the poor widened continuously until it drove rural people to migrate to cities. Such a phenomenon had an impact on the family institution in terms of bonding and warmth. People in rural areas had to struggle to earn money in order to survive. A lot more women in the countryside came out from the villages and went into the sex industry and, hence the number of sex traders increased. Similary, the number of service buyers rose because some men had additional buying power and sex services were easy to obtain. All of these factors allowed the sex industry to exist and expand continously.

### 2.2.2 Family Institution

The Thai family structure has changed considerably from that of an extended family to a nuclear family due to changing socioeconomic conditions. Both fathers and mothers had to work outside the home so they had less time to spend with their child (ren). Children lacked good models essential for proper learning and

socialization, resulting in relationship problems within the family. Children sought solutions to their problems in various forms such as the use of sex services and imitation of western culture without any critical analysis. Sexual relationships among teenagers is a good example; the young did not know how to control and protect themselves which led to “unwanted pregnancy” or many unmarried couples, affecting child development. Some of the supporting factors pushed children to participate in the sex industry later on.

The statistics of babies abandoned in public places has been rising. The number of preschool and school-age children who ran away from home is up to over 6,500. These children are found mostly in the Bangkok Metropolitan area. The reason for leaving home is lack love and warmth from the family. One portion of these children are deceived and pressurized into the sex entertainment.

Again, one must stress the impact of the growing materialism and consumerism of the past two decades. People have become more money conscious as a means to gain respect into the society. New values based on amounts of possessions has taken roots and have enticed poor women to look for ways to earn easy money. Prostitution offered such an opportunity. The increasing availability of sex services has found a ready response among males for whom sexual promiscuity has been an accepted way of life for a long time, inspite of the negative effects for family life.

Deteriorating family relationships, adults struggling to earn money and the younger generation imitating the attitudes and values of consumption of adults were the driving forces which resulted into two kinds of problem situations among children.

1) Children in middle and high-class families were given plenty of material goods in order to compensate for the time the parents could not give them. But, children did appreciate neither the value of the given goods nor the quality of psychological relationships between persons. A large number of children failed in school and found their way out through ganging around entertainment places such as skating rings, theatres, and discotheques. This made the entertainment businesses grow quickly, especially in the big cities, in response to the increasing needs of children.

2) Children in poor families were in a condition in which they faced more severe problems than those in the first group because they were abused directly by several types of businesses in terms of labour, social welfare and wages. Some of the children’s parents were given advance money for one year so that the children were put in a situation where they had to work without pay and lose their freedom.

Many children, both boys and girls and especially girls in the low-income families, were sold as sex objects to brothels, tea houses and hotels. Parents who were willing to sell their own children wanted money. Girls who were forced into prostitution for the first two years eventually became prostitutes voluntarily because of lack of vocational skills, along with the belief that, once their virginity had been destroyed, there was no opportunity to start a new life like other people.

### **2.2.3 Education**

The existing compulsory education did not correspond to living conditions and daily problems. Because of low education levels people are easily deceived; moreover, many people do not have a chance to participate in vocational training so they have to accept simple jobs not requiring special skills. These factors show for a good part why men and women go into the sex industry.

### **2.2.4 Mass Media**

The influence of the mass media, including the availability of printed materials, contribute to the arousal of sexual needs which results in supporting the sex entertainment.

## **2.2.5 Values and Religion**

### **Gratitude to Parents**

Buddhist teachings encourage people to practice gratefulness. One must not only think of a person's goodness silently, but must show one's gratitude through actions, especially towards parents and this is considered as a source of great merit. Therefore, the majority of Thai workers whether male or female show their gratitude by sending part of their earnings to parents, including supporting brothers and sisters who are still in schools.

Estimates of between 10,000 and 100,000 have been made of the number of young girls who work in sex services throughout Thailand. Many are trying to earn money for their parents. Some parents persuade their daughters to be prostitutes by claiming that they need to show their gratitude to parents by doing whatever they are asked to do. An agent pays the young girls in advance through the parents or some parents even sell their own daughters directly to brothels or other places.

### **Religious Institution**

Formally, Thailand had not seen the phenomenon of a religious institution being the cause of women working in the sex industry. (For instance in some of Hindu Churches in India, parents offer their young daughters to god. Priest who are representatives of god have sex with the young girls. The parents consider this practice as merit making. God is satisfied. After having provided her services to god through a male priest in the church, the young girl goes on as a prostitute afterwards.)

## **2.2.6 State Policy**

The government and its agencies, does not have clear and specific plans for eliminating the problems of the sex industry. Prior to the AIDS epidemic, the government did not issue serious and continuous policies nor set measures on eradicating the sex service industry. On the contrary, there were some policies which favored the expansion of the sex entertainment. Efforts have been towards the suppression of the sex industry without a comprehensive approach taking into account all aspects of the problem. Moreover, existing laws are confusing and outmoded. In recent years, not only did the government neglect to find solutions to this mounting social problem, but it seemed to support the sex trade. For instance, great efforts have been to promote tourism. Although it is public knowledge that large numbers of tourists come to Thailand with the main purpose of taking advantage of the readily available sex services not only did the government condone such state of affairs but it made it convenient for sex trade operators to open and operate entertainment places in popular tourist resort areas, concerned only with the economic advantages of such operations. As a consequence, the sex trade has enjoyed an amazing growth, ignoring the many negative effects of such enterprise, whether they be social, ecological, health etc.

In today's complex society, solutions to the problems of the sex industry require the cooperation of the efforts of government agencies as well of the private sector. The many aspects of the problems must be taken into consideration such as legislations, control and prevention of sexually transmitted diseases, rehabilitation, social welfare, etc. . At the same time, the government must provide various forms of support whether it be funding, personnel or other facilities.

## **2.3 IMPACTS OF THE SEX INDUSTRY**

**2.3.1 General Public's Health** The highest incidence of venereal diseases, especially in people in the age range 15 to 29 years which represents an important period in a person's life in terms of labour force, is a consequence of the sex industry. The present AIDS epidemic has reached severe proportions. Therefore, all parties, service givers and users, involved in sex entertainment, face increasingly high risks. In 1992, the average rate of prostitutes with

AIDS infection is 10 per cent and the infection rate of males with venereal diseases coming to state health care services is 2.5 per cent. Trend of AIDS infection rate is escalating at an alarming rate. The health of those who participate in the sex industry and of their families tends to get worse and their life expectancies are shorten.

**2.3.2 The Country's Image** Nowadays, on the international scene, prostitution is seen as a part of Thai culture resulting in damages to reputation of the country and to the dignity of Thai women.

**2.3.3 Society and Culture.** The sex industry is a factor which has stimulated and supported sexual promiscuity for both men and women as well as interpersonal relationships which can be traded with money without feelings, tenderness and loving care. This has led to a deterioration of the profound relationships between human beings in the society and the family institution. The society lacks respect in terms of friendship. The family institutions and society are likely to become more unstable.

Thailand used to be a society where stability was based on traditional values whereby men and women helped each other to insure the wellbeing of the family. With prostitution, this stability is upset : women prostitute themselves to exploit the sexual needs of men to receive money from them. Men spend their income for sexual pleasures and thus deprive their families of part of their earnings. There are numbers of Thai women willing to become mistresses or "minor wives" for either Thai or foreign men in return for economic or material favours. Prostitution or partnership outside of marriage fosters among women a dependence on men, especially in economic matters, and such dependence is contrary to the principles of women in development.

When women the Thai Buddhist society, parents and children live in a climate of mutual respect and love. When children become objects to be exchanged for money, not only do they loose their dignity and freedom, but the very foundations of the Thai society are undermined, with repercussions on all parties involved, whether they be the children themselves, their families, the agents handling procurement, customers, all the way down to children born out of prostitution. The very meaning of relationships between persons, whether they be men and women or persons of the same sex becomes thwarted.

To sum up, the social, economic and health costs of prostitution are immense, affecting national human resources in terms of health, working skills, social values and moral development. A nation cannot be serious about development in all its aspects if it does not have the will to tackle its main social problems, i.e. prostitution.

#### **2.3.4 Economics**

The sex industry has caused a large number of people at a working age to become infected with STDs and AIDS instead of being a national force in developing the country. Each year the government used a significant portion of the budget in taking care of people with STDs and AIDS. This is a lost which can be avoided.

Even though the sex industry has been considered as an important source of income for been considered as an important source of income for involved parties, if such a business grows out of control, it can become a source of AIDS and STDs eventually resulting in a decrease in numbers of tourists and severely affecting national income and the various businesses related to tourism.

#### **2.3.5 National Security**

A large number of military recruits use sex services, and the ratio of those becoming infected with STDs and AIDS is rising. In 1990, it was found that the average rate of soldiers infected with STDs / AIDS was 2 per cent and tended to increase alarmingly. Therefore, if more military men, who are the vital forces in keeping national stability, and security become sick or die such a situation could seriously affect the country in the future.

## 2.4 SOLUTIONS TO PROBLEMS AND OBSTACLES

The problems of prostitution and the sex industry have been existing in the Thai society for a long time. Each government has been trying to solve the problems, but without success. The obstacles encountered are described below:

### 2.4.1 Legislation and Law Enforcement

Prostitution is a chronic problem. Efforts to solve this problem have been in the form of legal action such as the Communicable Diseases Prevention Act, B.C. 127 and the Prostitution Suppression Act of 1960. These measures did not slow down prostitution in any way. These two legislations were quite different. The first one tried to control the trade by requiring prostitution houses to register and by collecting taxes in the hope of controlling venereal diseases. The second one, in response to the U.N. efforts to eliminate the exploitation of women, decreed that prostitution was an illegal occupation; prostitutes and persons involved in the sex trade were considered criminals; however, none of these measures produced any positive results in terms of control of suppression of prostitution.

Proposed solutions, laws enacted and problems encountered in trying to cope with prostitution are summed up in the following table.

Recommendations	Laws	Problems Encountered
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Allow prostitution, but have it registered to reduce the spread of Sexually Transmitted Diseases.</li> <li>- Collect taxes</li> <li>- Prevent disputes and luring women into prostitution</li> <li>- Issue laws according the Convention on Trafficking of Women and Girls (July, 1922).</li> <li>- Suppress the traffic of women and girls in or out of the country.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Communicable Diseases Prevention Act, B.C. 127</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- No provision on penalties for girls infected who did not visit a doctor.</li> <li>- Girls not registering to avoid paying taxes.</li> <li>- Failure to control diseases.</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Stop violation of women's rights according to the United Nations Convention.</li> <li>- Abrogate lawful prostitution.</li> <li>- Establish that prostitution is illegal even in places where it is practiced regularly.</li> <li>- Suppress prostitutes and provide them with new jobs.</li> <li>- Suppress behavior dangerous</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Trafficking of Women and Girls Act, 1990</li> <li>- Prostitution Suppression Act, 1960</li> <li>- Penal Code, Article</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Drafted in 1928, it identifies punishments not suitable for today.</li> <li>- Provisions not clear, difficult to implement such as "under reasonable suspicion".</li> <li>- Immigration officers, Ministry of the Interior were to control trafficking of women and girls which in practice this it was difficult to do.</li> <li>- <b>Trafficking of boys</b> not covered by this law, which is a problem today</li> <li>- To impose criminal penalties officials needed complete evidence which was difficult to establish.</li> <li>- Penalties for service operator were less severe than those stated in the Penal Code, causing problems in enforcing the law.</li> <li>- Prostitution being illegal, even in the disguise of bars, massage parlours and night clubs.</li> <li>- Penalties stated in the Penal Code were more</li> </ul>

Recommendations	Laws	Problems Encountered
<p>to society, such as discrimination against women and prostitution.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Control entertainment places and some types of service places.</li> <li>- Promote morality of the people.</li> <li>- Not emphasize prostitution suppression.</li> <li>- Insure national security and peace.</li> <li>- Revise old laws on immigration (1950 - 1954) no longer suitable for today</li> </ul>	<p>282-286 under Sex Section</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Entertainment Places Act, 1963</li> <li>- Amended in 1978</li> <li>- Amended in 1982</li> <li>- Immigrant Act, 1979</li> </ul>	<p>severe than the ones in the Prostitution suppression Act, 1960 which created loopholes in enforcing laws, lighter penalties usually applied.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- A provision for boys serving the sexual needs of other people is included the law covering only women / girls.</li> <li>- Prostitution or procurers not identified as illegal.</li> <li>- No penalty imposed on persons allowed to operate such places or on people using entertainment places for prostitution.</li> <li>- Difficulty in identifying persons intending prostitution and trafficking of women and girls, because the clause reasonable suspicion was too broad.</li> <li>- Control of immigrants being stressed, and no control of Thai sex traders operation overseas.</li> <li>- Promotion of tourism without consideration to foreigners taking advantage of this policy for the purpose of prostitution.</li> </ul>

Following a study on the shortcomings of the law on prostitution, including prostitution overseas which has become a growing problem in recent years several recommendations have been made such as penalties for traffickers, pimps and owners of entertainment places, using the former registration system, conducting surveillance surveys, providing vocational training and abolishing criminal penalties for prostitutes. However, no legislation has yet been approved. A Prostitution Suppression Bill, submitted by the Ministry of Interior was submitted by the House of Representatives to the Senate, but because of changes in the government no final action has yet been taken. The substance of this bill draft is summarized below.

**Guideline : To Improve the Prostitution Act of 1960 in order to Suit the Present Situation.**

Additional penalty provisions of the Penal Code should be made for those involved in prostitution whether they be prostitutes, owners of prostitution establishments or procurers.

- A strong emphasis should be given to open up opportunities for prostitutes receiving assistance instead of punishment and increasing penalties for those making an income from child and youth prostitution.
- Impose penalties on advertisements or the use of mass media to promote prostitution.
- Impose penalties on persons allowed to establish entertainment places in accordance with the Entertainment Places Act, 1966 but allowing other people to prostitute themselves in such entertainment places (even though not on a regular basis).

Under the interim government of 1991-1992, The National Commission on Women's Affairs was set up and the bill draft of 1988 was reconsidered. After consultations which involved the Ministry of the Interior and the Department of Public Welfare, a new proposal entitled "Act of Prevention and Suppression of Trafficking in Women, Girls and Youth" was drafted. This latest draft taken into consideration the fact that prostitution involves not only women and traders / procurers but also sellers and buyers of services. The important target group remains the youth of both genders who are victim of this trade. These are often uneducated, unaware of their rights and have no intention to practice prostitution as a career. In addition their parents are often accomplices of the operation.

There is also the fact that the sex trade has expanded from the domestic scene to an international network which includes both export and import of prostitutes. The latest guidelines and principles used to cope with the problem of prostitution can be summarized as follows:

- Enable women, girls and youth to get out of the sex industry cycle, insuring that their human rights are respected and that they be given opportunities to improve the quality of their lives.
- Consider professional prostitution and monetary gains through the business of prostitution as criminal. People forced into prostitution should not be considered guilty. In cases where parents or guardians are instrumental in children becoming involved in prostitution, guardianship should be withdrawn from them.
- Provide rehabilitation measures for those whose rights have been violated and whose vocational opportunities and quality of life have been affected.
- Appoint an agency directly responsible for the suppression, protection and rehabilitation of the victims of prostitution. The agency should be entitled to conduct activities to achieve the objectives mentioned above, along with the National Committee for the Elimination of Involuntary Prostitution.

In recent years, prostitution has taken an international dimension requiring special consideration. There is a traffic in women both in and out of the country. There should be special provisions in International and Foreign Affairs laws in order to insure the protection of women and curb prostitution across frontiers. The Convention for the Suppression of the Traffic in Persons and of the Exploitation of the Prostitution of Others, 1949 became effective as of July 25, 1951. In articles 1 and 2 the exploitation of prostitution was declared illegal. However, Thailand did not sign this Convention.

The Foreign Affairs Law concerning immigration is meant to impose a provision to stop overseas prostitution but no law could be identified in any country which dealt clearly with this issue in any country. This is an issue which should be raised in all countries where exploitation of prostitution goes on.

### **Summary**

Legislation and law enforcement in Thailand, in order to solve prostitution, have faced many problems relying too much on power and punishment on the one hand and affecting innocent people on the other. In cases where solutions use law enforcement as a measure, oftentimes there were many loopholes resulting in abuses and misdemeanors. Instead of stressing suppression through force, more emphasis should have been given to the protection of the rights of women and in finding solutions to the problems of prostitution in collaboration with all concerned agencies both governmental and private.

At times, also, measures had repercussions affecting innocent people. For instance, in order to prevent prostitution abroad, every women wanting to leave the country had to be submitted to investigations before being granted permission. Many innocent girls have been affected by such measures, infringing upon their human rights. Legislation is not always the sole answer to social problems. A number of strategies should be used simultaneously to promote dignity for all.

### 2.4.2 Attitudes Values

Attitudes and values constitute important factors which can either facilitate or obstruct solutions. The following paragraphs are descriptions of some attitudes and values related to the problem of the situations of prostitution:

a. Service buyers. Male buyers of sex services hold the value that having sex is a life value and that it is natural for men to have stronger sexual needs than women. At the same time, men use virginity as a yardstick to judge the value of a woman who will become their wife and mother of their children. As a result of such an attitude, polygamy is still prevalent in Thailand whereby women are divided into two categories: the respectable ones who are wives and mothers and the second-rate ones who are mistresses to satisfy the needs for lust of men.

b. Service girls. Girls normally value virginity as the highest personal value. Once virginity has been taken away from them through commercial sex, they lose their self-respect and feel that there is nothing valuable left in their lives. At this point, they are ready to accept the idea that women were born to serve the needs of men for lust and they are willing to do anything for that purpose. Some women even take the fatalistic view that somehow they were predestined through some karmic law to do that type of work. Anyway, given their poor educational background and in the context of the present economic recession, this is an easy way to make money and support their families. Prostitution, they feel, is better than begging.

c. Thai women. In general, prostitution is viewed by Thai women as a necessary evil in society. Some say that it helps to prevent rape. Some say that they prefer to see their husbands go to the brothels rather than having to cope with the problem of a mistress. Sexual promiscuity is accepted as something natural for men and women tolerate that their husbands or lovers resort to the services of a prostitute as a normal way of life.

### 2.4.3 Government Policies

In the past, there was no specific provision in economic and social development plans to cope with the problem of prostitution. Measures directed to that issue were found either in laws mentioned earlier or in actions taken by various agencies. For instance, the Ministry of Public Health in cooperation with government and private hospitals, and the Department of Public Welfare, Ministry of the Interior, work together to prevent and treat STDs. Dissemination of knowledge to warn girls and their families was carried on by the Ministry of Education and by some NGOs, but little was done to inform the general public.

A few years ago, the National Commission on Women's Affairs was entrusted with the task of coordinating the efforts of the government and the private sector to deal with the problems of the sex industry. This resulted in policies and measures for the prevention and solution of the problems of prostitution in 1991.

In the face of the mounting AIDS crisis in Thailand, measures were proposed by the Department of Public Health concerning the sex entertainment business as follows:

1. Fight sexual promiscuity and promote the use of good quality condoms. Such a measure was meant to contribute to AIDS prevention in general as well as to face the problems of the sex trade.

2. Stop using the sex industry as a tool to promote Tourism by all agencies concerned whether governmental or private. At the same time, serious and continuous effort is to be made to reduce the number of women involved in the sex entertainment business. Rehabilitation measures in the form of vocational training or other types of assistance to support women leaving the sex service business to lead a normal and wholesome life. At the same time, special attention should be given to prevent the use of child prostitution involving youth below the age of 18 years.

3. Ensure that government agencies enforce existing laws pertaining to the suppression of prostitution and sex entertainment places, as well as improve the efficiency of the laws. Such action should contribute significantly

to AIDS prevention and control, an issue which requires the most urgent involvement of all the agencies which can contribute efficiently to solve this problem.

#### **2.4.4 Lack of Coordination Between the Government and Private Sectors**

The Government has not yet set up clear policies on trafficking of women and girls. Government agencies still do not see the importance of such a problem at the national level, but see it merely as a women's personal problem. That is why the coordination to prevent and suppress prostitution, including help distressed women, has not been strong and quick enough to respond to the occurring problems.

The government should declare clear policies on trafficking of women and girls and consider this as a vital national problem. Government agencies must follow such policies as strictly as possible and play a major role in practice by involving the NGOs.

So far, government organizations and NGOs have been collaborating in the following:

- Kamlar Project: this project emphasises the prevention of rural girls being lured into child prostitution through coordination with the Offices of the Provincial Compulsory Education Committee and the National Compulsory Education Committee.
- Protection of Service Girls' Rights Center. The center has contacted the Department of Public Health in the matter of service girls' health problems.
- Emergency Home. The Home, in coordination with the Department of Public Welfare, the government hospitals and the policemen, etc., assists distressed women and children in all matters through provision of shelter and vocational training.

#### **2.4.5 Lack of Strategies in Campaigning Against Prostitution**

The Government has not had a clear policy on the elimination of prostitution. But if prostitution should be allowed to operate, it must not be against public morality by means of setting up surveillance measures which protect service girls from the problem of exploitation from the owners of the service places or influential people. Also service girls should receive appropriate health care services.

In the past, suppression along with assistance were employed as procedures of prostitution suppression, as a method of solving only the problems of the service operators. Both service sellers and users were involved in numerous problems. Changing attitudes of buying services from female-adult prostitutes to child prostitutes including boys is one of several examples of the prostitution problems. So there must be campaigns to stop such kind of selling-buying sex services and to reduce the seriousness of the problems.

The Government must have a longterm policy and goal of the total elimination of prostitution. The measure should be based on policies which effective plans. At the moment, the government still does not have appropriate strategies. There is a need for research on policy administration and action plans.

### **2.5 URGENT PROBLEMS**

At present, both the government and private agencies do not know the exact number of service girls. The highest number mentioned is one million with 20 per cent of those being children 15 years of age and below. It appears that there are more girls getting prostitution. Nine-year old girls have been found to be were sold to foreigners as well.

There are several indicators reflecting the acceptance in the community of the idea of sending women and girls to the sex market. One of the most important indicators is the expansion of sex entertainment establishment.

### **2.5.1 Child Prostitution**

#### **Problems of Child Prostitution**

There is a belief that children belong to parents; a woman is seen as belonging to her husband and is an object fulfilling men's sexual needs. The relationships among the members of the family and society have changed to a relationship in the form of trade, resulting in using girls and women as exchange objects for trade benefits. Parents sell girls in order to use money for building a house and / or buying other commodities.

This phenomenon is normally uncommon in a civilized society because there are controlling measures and punishment rules. But it is common in Thai society because of the development of the society from an agricultural to an industrial society. Since the society stresses economic values, it is not wonder that the number of child prostitutes and the trafficking of women and girls is increasing. And it will become an unsolvable problem if the government does not have a clear policy and does not use law forcibly.

According to the studies of several private agencies, it appears that girls with educational backgrounds at the elementary level are persuaded into prostitution. In some communities in the northern region, there are no more young girls because of the migration to prostitution. Because of this reason, agencies reserve girls since the time of childhood by giving the parents a deposit in advance.

It is believed that sleeping with young girls will contribute to longevity. Not only girls but also boys are presented and sold to the sex industry, especially for foreign tourists who can not have sex like this in their own countries.

### **2.5.2 Overseas Trafficking in Women and Girls**

The procedure of trafficking in women and girls overseas began around the years 1976 to 1982. The trafficking of women and girls has grown until Thailand was recorded in the report of the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific of the United Nations as an important girl export market like the Philippines. Today, not only women and girls are victims of trafficking across the nations, but also men and boys. As for working and living conditions, men are in better conditions than women.

Because of women's early success in prostitution in foreign lands, their example was followed by many. Moreover, agents came in contact with young girls in the vocational colleges to persuade them to work overseas. Some of the girls did know, and some did not, that they would have to work as prostitutes; salaries were as high as 50,000 baht/month. The prospect of such gains made these girls pay agents in order to arrange for trips to countries like Japan and Germany. The ratio of service girls in each community is relatively low.

Due to a lack of community control, being prostitute became accepted by these women and because prostitution was the easiest and quickest way to earn money given the limited knowledge and skills rural women and girls have. A large proportion of the population has been persuaded to work as prostitutes. Therefore, the problems of child prostitutes and trafficking in women and girls overseas are urgent matters for which the government needs to take action quickly.

## **2.6 PROCEDURE OF GETTING INTO PROSTITUTION**

A sex operator approaches a woman or girl by tempting them with attractive objects like a car, a van and a house. If a woman or girl accepts the offerings, she has to sign a paper for a loan and work contract for one year. In case she runs away before time, the operator sues them and has them pay money back; otherwise he uses hired strong men to force them to do so. Woman forced into prostitution receive their share of the profits from selling their body after paying off their debt for an amount of 100,000 baht, at least.

Thais, who fall into an overseas network of prostitution earn a living by appearing in nude, shows, as agogo dancers and in other kinds of sex performances or as receptionists while having to prostitute themselves at the same time. For women and girls under the care of pimps they cannot contact the outside world and it is difficult for them to seek help. Besides the various performances required of the girls, there is also a pornographic film industry for which these girls are expected to work. There is an industry of such pornographic materials which seems to be quite lucrative.

All these forms of prostitution and trafficking is a kind of slavery which violates the dignity of human beings and affects the reputation and prestige of country. One most regrettable aspects of this situation is that law officers themselves are sometimes involved in the operation.

## **2.7 GUIDELINES FOR SOLVING PROSTITUTION PROBLEMS**

There are a number of ways to deal with prostitution problems as described below.

### **1. Criminalization**

This option allows women to exist in a society in order to meet the sexual needs of men and protect innocent women from being raped. This way favours male who use these services by leaving the burden of control and punishment on the prostitutes themselves in cases where sex activities are carried on in places judged improper. As the Prostitution Suppression Act of 1960 goes, women providing the services are the ones being penalized.

### **2. Legalization**

The argument for this option is that if prostitution cannot be eradicated it is better to make it legal in order to control its operation. Legalization is seen as a way to check on the spread of STDs and other diseases, particularly AIDS. This approach to make prostitution legal has received special attention in these days of the AIDS pandemic.

### **3. Abolition**

This approach is based on the view that trafficking in human beings is wrong and that action should be taken to help the victims of prostitution and punish the traffickers. Abolitionists are criticized on the grounds that not all prostitutes are victims, some of them engaging in such activities willingly for the substantial financial rewards involved.

### **4. Decriminalization**

According to this approach, prostitutes are allowed to carry on their activities and they are considered capable of protecting their own rights. Prostitutes are not to be penalized or arrested but the Penal Code should be enforced against those who force women into such business against their own will or take advantage of them. Should there be a need to register prostitutes, it should be done by an agency entrusted with this particular function. This approach seems more appropriate to the reality of the Thai situation. However it is questionable as to what extent prostitute will be able to develop the capability to protect themselves and their own rights.

## **2.8 PROSPECTIVE GUIDELINES FOR REGISTERING PROSTITUTES**

The issue of prostitute registration has been discussed all along. The National Committee for the Elimination of Involuntary Prostitution has gathered several arguments discussed as presented below:

1. One team gives the following reason for having prostitutes registered:
  - 1.1 One has the right to select the occupation of a prostitute.

- 1.2 Even though there is no prostitute registration at the present time, prostitutes still exist.
- 1.3 Prostitute registration will help prevent free lancing prostitutes, especially girls from the provinces.
- 1.4 Sexual transmitted Diseases such as venereal diseases and AIDS can be controlled because sources and persons are known.
- 1.5 Any prostitute without a license will be arrested.
- 1.6 Prostitution can be controlled more effectively than at present.
- 1.7 It is useful for women in this occupation to receive legal protection.

The registration of prostitutes has gained more and more attention, especially during the present AIDS pandemic. The team favoring this approach proposes that the Prostitution Suppression Act 1960 be abolished and that prostitution be recognized as a lawful profession allowing people who so desire to engage in such activities without interfering in their lives and bodies.

2. The other team does not approve the registration of prostitutes for the following reason :
  - 2.1 If prostitutes and the sex entertainment places are registered, it will imply that prostitution and the trafficking of women are acceptable and correct and lawful activities in the society.
  - 2.2 If prostitution is accepted as a lawful profession, the number of prostitution places and prostitutes will increase, encouraging deception, abduction and trading of even more women.
  - 2.3 The registration of prostitutes is actually a stamp of approval for those engaging in this kind of occupation, who actually are looked down upon in society even after they change to more respectable occupations.
  - 2.4 Registration is no help to reduce the number of prostitutes and it does not guarantee in any way that prostitutes will not be abused or exploited by pimps, agents or owners of the prostitution houses.
  - 2.5 Registering prostitutes or sex entertainment places will result in an increase in forced prostitution even for those who have entered this occupation freely. Moreover, torture in a sex entertainment place will be considered legal because the activity is carried on in a place registered according to the law.
  - 2.6 Registration is not an efficient way controlling AIDS because there are so many hidden forms of prostitution. It is suggested that registration be carried out for entertainment places rather than prostitutes because it will make it easier to provide education about AIDS.

Private agencies dealing with prostitution problems observe that the prostitutes themselves do not agree on registration. Based on the above arguments the National Committee for the Elimination of Involuntary Prostitution concludes that the registration of prostitutes is not the solution. Registration should be done for entertainment places; this would prevent kidnaping and impose some control and supervision on the service girls. Moreover, it would prevent any sort of torture from happening in the registered sex places. Therefore it seems appropriate to form a coordination committee which would include officials from the Department of Labour and Public Welfare, policemen and related private agencies. This committee, under the supervision of the newly formed coordination agency, would be responsible for the control and supervision of the registered entertainment places to abide strictly by the law.

### **3. SUGGESTIONS FOR MAJOR POLICIES AND MEASURES**

#### **3.1 POLICIES**

3.1.1 To set clear action policies based on a strong political will and commitment to curtail and eliminate commercial sex. It must hold the principle that using child prostitutes and trafficking of women and girls are an undesirable phenomena in a society. Such practices must be eliminated through legislative, economic, social

and cultural measures. Prostitutes should not be arrested or penalized but they should receive assistance to enable them to get out of such an occupation as quickly as possible. Five target groups are to be given special attention

1. Girls and boys below the age of 18 years.
2. Youth, both male and female, less than 20 years of age, and without education and employment.
3. Prostitutes working in hotels and brothels who have been tortured, abused, or infected with STDs, especially those who want to get out of prostitutions.
4. Prostitutes who were sold, deceived, threatened, detained and forced into prostitution: such girls should receive assistance promptly.
5. Thai prostitutes who were forced into prostitution abroad, whether they were deceived, threatened, detained or sold, likewise could receive assistance.

3.1.2 To build a strong economy in the rural areas and to provide firm support to the family institution. The priority should be given to the very poor areas where poverty forces women to go to cities and enter prostitution for a living.

3.1.3 The trafficking of women and girls, especially those less than 18 years of age, no matter whether they were sold by parents, guardians or other person, should be condemned as something immoral and against human rights. Such practice should be eliminated immediately through education given to the parents and other concerned persons and through suppression measures. Users of services as well as those profiting from such business should be penalized.

3.1.4 Improve the efficiency of laws, state mechanisms, including social welfare assistance, in terms of prevention, suppression, education, vocational preparation and employment.

3.1.5 Disseminate information and understanding to the public and related government agencies about the impact of prostitution on the country's socioeconomic condition. Also state policies and measures in tackling this matter should be publicized in order to get more cooperation both in prevention and suppression

3.1.6 Control, supervise and develop all kinds of mass media so that programmes and messages presented are relevant to the policy of women development, especially the content of the programmes promoting negative attitudes toward prostitution.

3.1.7 To encourage government organizations and NGOs to set up clear principles and guidelines for practice in promoting tourism by not using commercial sex as a means of tourism promotion. Also, the NGOs and the public should participate in the measures for prevention and solution of the prostitution problems.

## **3.2 MEASURES**

### **3.2.1 Law**

1. Propose appropriate laws to the National Legislative Assembly to replace the Prostitution Suppression Act of 1960 which is obsolete and ineffective. The principle of the Bill of Prevention and Suppression of the Traffic in Women, Girls and Youth was approved by the National Commission on Women's Affairs, including measures for law enforcement and persuading public relations agencies and other related parties to understand which law is not really suitable and should be amended as well as measures to lobby with other involved parties.
2. Promote the policy of assisting prostitutes instead of punishing or forcing them to register for the purpose of controlling AIDS. In the past, registering prostitution as stated in the Communicable Diseases Prevention Act, B.C. 127 did not work as it was supposed to.
3. See whether Thailand will be better understood by foreign countries if she signs the Convention of the United Nations and if legislation relevant to the agreement of that Convention is issued.

4. Separate the issue of prostitution in general from the problems of child prostitution. Penalties should be imposed on brothel owners, procurers and buyers of child prostitutes, age less than 18 years.
5. Enforce the Law for the Suppression of Trafficking of Girls. Parents and guardians cannot sell their children no matter what circumstances. If they cannot take care of their young children properly, guardianships should be removed as stated in the provision of article 1582 in the Civil and Commercial Laws.
6. Seek legal measures to penalize operators of mail-order wives.
7. Impose laws related to pornographic printing, advertisement, presentation of pornographic pictures and messages through radio and television. These mass media need to be under the control and supervision of the government agency dealing with telecommunications.

### 3.2.2 Economics

1. Discourage any investment leading to commercial sex.
2. Not allowing the opening of additional entertainment places as stated in the Entertainment Places Act, 1976.
3. Develop rural industries related to agriculture through measures integrated into Provincial Development Plans especially in provinces there are problems of migrating labour and or women leaving home to work as prostitutes.
4. Press for the enforcement of the Labour Protection Law including protecting household maids so that woman have more alternatives in finding jobs.

### 3.2.3 Administration

1. Establish an agency which solves commercial sex problems and assumes an authority and responsibility similar to that of the Office of Narcotics Prevention and Suppression. The agency under the coordination of the National Committee for the Elimination of Involuntary Prostitution should coordinate efforts with the NGOs.
2. Coordinate the works of state agencies with those of overseas government agencies and international organizations to solve the problem of trafficking of women and girls. There must be officials taking up this responsibility in embassies in the countries where women and girls are sent or sold for prostitution.
3. Be strict with the behaviour of youth, social leaders and officials who have been encouraged to use sex services, for example, greeting official or visitors from another city by offering girls or imposing on youth in educational institutions to visit brothels.
4. Require that officials perform their duties correctly and penalize severely those who are negligent or take advantage of prostitution or are found to be corrupt.
5. Set up a definite policy concerning ways to solve the problems of commercial sex at the provincial level by involving officers from the main ministries in the implementation of the policy.
6. Provide funding to government agencies and NGOs for the operation of their works.
7. Keep a close watch and eliminate the use of deceit, force or selling and buying to induce women to prostitute themselves.

### 3.2.4 Education

1. Integrate the various aspects of the problems of commercial sex into the existing curricula and use the state mass media to inform the public of ways to protect themselves and the community.
2. Promote values and attitudes leading to respecting human rights. Sexual morality should

be considered of great importance for both men and women. Such values can be promoted in the family as well as in the school and also through the social environment and the mass media processes.

3. Promote sex education including knowledge on STDs and family life education appropriate to each age level.
4. Upgrade people's values and attitudes concerning the importance of the institution of the family and child development.

#### 3.2.5 Dissemination of Information and Public Relations

1. Keep campaigning and sending out messages for the prevention and solution of commercial sex problems using the various kinds of mass media. The mass media should be asked to stop advertising or using any means of supporting the sex entertainment business.
2. Feed information to NGOs, religious and local organizations, so that they will play a key role as disseminators at the local level and contribute to a solution of the problems.
3. Promote among parents and guardians especially in the rural areas and in overcrowded communities a moral awareness and a sense of responsibility concerning the evil of selling their children or persons under their guardianship for whatever purpose, especially prostitution.

#### 3.2.6 Prevention and Control of Sexually Transmitted Diseases (STD)

1. Raise the awareness of the people as to the dangers of the STDs and to foster schemes for prevention including counselling services as well as suggestions and advice for blood tests for AIDS and syphilis before marriage or before pregnancy.
2. Form a team of officials from the Departments of Public Health and Public Welfare as well as related NGOs to provide women in entertainment places on - going counselling in the areas of health care, family and occupations.
3. Encourage and support government and volunteer agencies to provide mobile health care services.

#### 3.2.7 Recreation and Sports

Provide recreation and sport opportunities for the public both male and female, young and old, so that needs and interests are expanded away from sexuality.

#### 3.2.8 Social Welfare and Rehabilitation Development

1. Urgently provide social welfare and rehabilitation services along the stated policy of reduction of the number of prostitutes rather than stress punishment or registration or other measures designed to control diseases.
2. Provide rehabilitation, care and training to assist those women who were prostitutes so that they may acquire proper vocational skills and enter an appropriate occupation.

CHAPTER 12

**WOMEN AND THE LAW**

## CHAPTER 12

### WOMEN AND THE LAW

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

As a member state of the United Nations (UN) and a party of the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), Thailand is obliged to conform to the principles espoused in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and in the CEDAW. In essence, both UN instruments reaffirm faith in human worth and dignity of mankind. They promote the respect for equality of men and women. The CEDAW, in particular, urges the state parties to eliminate discrimination and unequal treatments of women on the basis of sex difference. The CEDAW encourages its member parties to ensure equal opportunities of women to a total self-development which encompasses social, economic, political and cultural aspects. In addition to self-development the CEDAW urges for women's equal opportunity in participating in the development process both as the "agent" and the "beneficiary". Previous discriminations and unequal treatments on the basis of sex imposed on women due to social values, customs or laws are not only unjust to women but have restricted human society to fully benefit from women. As human beings, women should be entitled to basic human rights. Moreover, women's maternity which is the special social role of women in human reproductivity must be protected both in physical and social terms. Men and society should share these responsibilities with women. All state parties shall resort to policies and all measures including legislative and legal measures, to ensure women's equality and protection. Equality before the law both in theory and practice is a primary and basic measure which will bring about sex equality.

Laws and state policies concerning the status of women in Thailand have developed through different stages according to internal and external socio-economic and political factors. The changes actually started to take place during the absolute monarchy, before the 1932 Revolution. Nevertheless, the present legal status of women in Thailand is still far from the universal standard set by the CEDAW.

Thailand became a party of the CEDAW on August 28, 1985 and the convention became effective in Thailand on September 8, 1985. As a member party to CEDAW, Thailand is obliged to revise its discriminatory laws and regulations as well as to enact new legislations to guarantee sex equality. The CEDAW, however, has not been fully applied as Thailand has made several reservations since the beginning. Nevertheless, during the last few years, Thailand has withdrawn some of these reservations and seems to be more prepared to live up to the principles of CEDAW. (See Appendix)

This chapter explores the historical development of the legal status of women in Thailand and their present status, The CEDAW will serve as a basis of comparison.

#### 1.1 DEMYSTIFYING ILLUSIONS ON WOMEN'S EQUALITY

There is a common illusion in Thailand, even among the legal profession, that men and women are equal before the law and they are under equal protection of the law. The first constitution of Thailand promulgated in 1932, when the country was transformed from an absolute monarchy state into a constitutional monarchy, has often been cited as a concrete evidence of this equality. Article 11 and Article 14 of this constitution guaranteed the rights of every Thai citizen, regardless of sexes, to vote as well as to run in the national election. This conclusion, however is made without taking into consideration at least 4 significant facts:

(1) Democracy in Thailand has been unstable even up to the present. After the 1932 Revolution the civilian and military leaders, once in alliance against the absolute monarchy, became political rivals, leading to various disruptions of the government by force. In 1947 the military gained full control and subjected Thailand under successive military dictatorships for short periods. By 1992 which was the 60<sup>th</sup> anniversary of the democratic transformation, there have been 17 successful and abortive coup d'etats. The most recent coup took place on February 23, 1991. It has been calculated that during these 60 years, Thailand was under unelected government for over 50 years. There were 7 years only that the Prime Ministers came into power through national elections (Saneh:1992). Under such political climate the rights to vote or to run for election was meaningless to the Thai people of both sexes. Militarism has had strong effect on the life of Thai people in general and on the socio-economic and the legal status of women in particular as will be described.

(2) Despite the constitutional guarantee of the equality of political rights at the national level since 1932, the Local Administrative Act of 1914 still contained a discriminatory provision against women up to 1982. Prior to 1982, Article 12 of this Act prescribed that a candidate for the office of village chief (Pou Yai Ban) must be a "male householder". Village chief is an important and influential position as it is a prerequisite for eligibility as a head of a sub-district (Kam Nan). Moreover, Pou Yai Ban and Kam Nan are ex-officio committee members in various local administrative entities. According to the old law, they stayed in office until reaching the retirement age of 60. In 1982 this Act was revised to allow women to run in the elections and a 5-year term was imposed for those elected after 1988. The length of the term has provided opportunities of accumulating power and wealth and could easily influence election at every level. After 10 years of the revision, there are about one per cent of elected women at the village and sub-district levels. In addition to discrimination in running in local elections, women had also been barred by a resolution of the Council of Ministers which prevented them from competing in a civil service position of district officer (Palad Amphoe). This position is usually the first step to be promoted to higher administrative posts including that of provincial governor. It was not until 1993, that this resolution was removed that one woman provincial governor, one deputy-governor and ten district officers were appointed. Based on these facts it can be concluded that, through the system of political election and the civil service, men have monopolized political and administrative powers at all levels.

(3) In a country where democracy has not yet been stabilized like in Thailand, one can conclude that an equality clause in a constitution alone is insufficient and can be misleading. In order to draw an accurate conclusion about the legal status of women, the whole legal system and the issue of the hierarchy of the law must be scrutinized. Due to disruptions of democracy, Thailand has had 15 constitutions promulgated by different regimes. At present, Thailand is under the 15<sup>th</sup> constitution promulgated on December 9, 1991. This Constitution was revised in 1992 and 1995. Although most of the Thai constitutions have a clause guaranteeing equality before the law and equal protection for every citizen, regardless of sexes, it must be understood that this is not an absolute guarantee. Further, all of these constitutions have provided that such equality is subject to the "limits of specific laws and regulations". Frequently the provisions of the subordinate law are contradictory to the principle of equality espoused by the constitution, but the laws are enforceable, either because the equality clause is conditional or the provisions of the laws are more lasting than the constitutions. The constitutions often have provided for special tribunals authorized to review laws or regulations challenged as unconstitutional, but due to the short life-span of each constitution, these tribunals have hardly ever been called on to review such a law.

(4) A distinction between "law-in-book" and "law-in-action" must always be kept in mind throughout the assessment of sex equality or sex discrimination. The letters of the laws may guarantee sex equality but one must see whether the laws are enforced, and whether they are enforced on an egalitarian basis or discriminatory? Since men have occupied and played dominant roles in legislative, executive and judicial powers one may ask whether the male's bias will influence the performance of these duties? One concrete example in the Thai society is a discriminatory police enforcement of the Prostitution Suppression Act of 1968. Despite the fact that the law penalizes both male and

female prostitutes, but, in reality, most prostitutes arrested are females. In addition to gender equality, there is also an issue of economic inequality between female prostitutes and male (and female) procurers in police law enforcement. So the assessment of sex equality must consider all patterns of discriminations, namely discrimination by laws and discrimination by practices. These two patterns of discriminations will be reviewed in this chapter.

In brief, an analytical and critical view must be adopted in making assessment on the legal status of women in every society, otherwise the conclusion can be superficial and misleading. In reality the legal status of women in any society is not stagnant but evolves at different stages according to internal and external socio-economic, political and cultural factors. These factors are dynamic forces interacting and affecting society as a whole as well as framing up the legal status of women at different stages of development.

## **1.2 WOMEN AND THE LAW : A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK**

While law and state regulations are the products of socio-economic political and cultural changes, women and the law also interact. On the one hand women are the subjects under the law but at certain stages women individually or as a group can also change the laws. Women are not totally passive but can be a dynamic force which influences the state's policy and lead to law revisions and law reforms. An issue to be considered by policy planners is how to demonstrate the effects of laws and state policies on women's lives and to encourage them to voice their opinions upon those which have direct impact on them. As the other half of the population, women should have equal access as well as full responsibility in expressing their views on laws and state policies which will effect the future of society as a whole.

Therefore the relationship between women and the law should be conceptualized by seeing women in the following positions:-

- (1) Women as the subjects or populations under the laws and state regulations,
- (2) Women as policy or decision makers,
- (3) Women as law makers,
- (4) Women as law enforcers,
- (5) Women as individuals or social pressure groups which can bring about law revisions and law reforms.

## **1.3 EVOLUTION OF THE THAI WOMEN'S LEGAL STATUS**

The legal status of women in a contemporary history of Thailand has evolved through the following periods:-

- (1) A Period after the 1932 Revolution-the Promulgation of the 1974 Constitution.
- (2) The Status of Women under the 1974 Constitution (October 7, 1974 - October 6, 1976)
- (3) The Status of Women under the 1978 Constitution-the Coup led by the National Peace Keeping Committee (NPKC) on February 23, 1991.
- (4) The Status of Women during Prime Minister Anand Panyarachun's two interim Administrations (March 2, 1991) - the Promulgation of the 1991 Constitution (December 9, 1991).
- (5) The Status of Women under the 1991 Constitution.
- (6) The Status of Women under Prime Minister Chuan Leekpai's Administration (September 23, 1992- May 19, 1995)
- (7) The Status of Women under the Revised Constitution of 1995 - Prime Minister Banharn Silapa-archa's Administration (July 1995 - the Present)

After reviewing laws and state regulations it can be concluded that up to the present, women have neither enjoyed equal legal status nor equal protection under the law as compared to men. Thailand has been attempting

to balance itself on a rocky road to democracy and has gone through various political crises. Women are also struggling for a better life but it seems that they still have a long way to go as their struggle is more complicated than that of their male counterparts. Certainly under successive military dictatorships, the rights and liberties of Thai citizens in general were violated but those of women, in particular, suffered both violations and discriminations. Militarism not only strengthened patriarchal ideology but also led the country into the Indochina War. Thailand was used for U.S. military bases as well as Rest and Recreation areas for American soldiers resulting in a rapid increase of prostitution. The military dictators also, on the one hand, invited foreign investments and on the other hand suppressed freedom and liberties of the Thai people for their own interests as well as in favour of local and foreign unscrupulous investors. Under these circumstances women have been socially and economically exploited. They have been used for cheap labor in formal industries as well as drawn into the growing sexual industry.

## **2. THE STATUS OF WOMEN IN THE THAI CONSTITUTIONS**

The evolutions of Thai women's legal status will be described in section 2 of the chapter. In this Section, a historical development of Thai women's legal status as reflected in specific major constitutions which have brought about women's advancement will be presented. This Section will not go into details of all periods stated in item 1.3 above but will elaborate or make references only as necessary. Section 3 describes the present legal status of women in other dimensions of their lives.

The general practice of the military regimes after succeeding in seizing power, was to abolish the old constitution and promulgate a new one tailored to their wishes. As a result, 15 constitutions have been written and promulgated since 1932. At present, Thailand is under the 1991 constitution, which has been effective since December 9, 1991.

Of all the 15 Thai constitutions four of them are, up to different extents, significant for the improvement of women's legal status. These are the constitutions promulgated in 1932, 1974, 1978 and the present one of 1991 (revised in 1995). The others had no significant impact on the status of women even though most of them contained a standard clause which ensured equality of the person. It was, however, a matter of form but had no substantial effects due to the discontinuity of democracy.

### **2.1 WOMEN AND THE 1932 CONSTITUTION**

The 1932 constitution was a direct consequence of the technocrats' revolution against absolute monarchy. The leaders of this revolution were civilian and military high ranking official who viewed democracy as an instrument to end feudalism and a means to bring about modernization and national progress. Although the constitution guaranteed the rights of women to vote and to run in the national elections, other legislations, particularly those related to family relationships, still maintained certain feudalistic and patriarchal characteristics even up to the present as shall be described. Despite public campaigns for women's equality initiated during the last 2 absolute monarchies of Rama V and Rama VI, discriminations against women in education, employment, political and administrative participation continued.

Soon after this technocrat's revolution, the military managed to gain full control of Thailand. By 1974, General P. Piboonsongkram successfully defeated the civilian opposition and subjected Thailand under an absolute military dictatorship. Two more military generals, General Sarit Thanarat and General Thanom Kittikachorn succeeded him and it was not until October 1973 that the military regime led by General Thanom was ousted by an incident called the People's Uprising which was led by the student movement.

During these regimes, there were incidents which reflected the role of the government on women's affairs. They also reflected the status of the Thai women.

The National Culture Act was passed in 1942 and the National Culture Council was set up in the Ministry of Culture. Under this Council was the Office of Culture on Women's Affairs. The chairperson of this office was Tanphuying (Lady) La-Eade Piboonsongkram, the wife of the Prime Minister. The Council made two major recommendations to the Council of Ministers that (1) women should be given equal opportunity as men in joining the government service, (2) the laws relating to family relationship should be revised to guarantee equality and justice for women (Nantaka: 1992). As a response to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the government, established in 1995 a committee to revise family-related laws according to the principles of the Declaration (Supatra: 1992). In 1956 the Thai government ratified the U.N. Convention on the Political Rights of Women. The Council also set up the Provincial Association to Promote the Women's Culture throughout the Kingdom and encouraged the wives of provincial officers to take an active role in organizing educational activities as well as providing social welfare services to the disadvantaged women (Tanphuying La-Eade: 1992). Additionally, Tanphuying La-Eade was also a major supporter for the establishment of the Women's Council of Thailand Under the Queen's Patronage. This is an umbrella organization which presently has over two hundred member organizations.

The other non-governmental organization which has been active in lobbying for the advancement of the women's legal status was founded in 1949 by a group of women law graduates of the University of Thammasat and Moral Science (presently Thammasat University). This organization is presently known as the Women Lawyers Association of Thailand Under the Queen's Patronage. The organization offered legal aid services to the people, carried out legal literacy programmes and advocated women's equality in the law. The focus was on the laws related to family relationships which still gave women an inferior status as compared to men. The group collaborated closely with the Office of Culture on Women's Affairs. Although successful in pressing the military regimes to set up the committee to revise the laws, the revision was prolonged for almost 20 years and was not accomplished until the military leaders were driven out of the country by the People's Uprising of October 1973 and the promulgation of the 1974 Constitution which followed.

On the negative side, General Sarit led Thailand into the Indochina War and General Thanom carried on this mission when he succeeded General Sarit in early 1960's. Interestingly, when General Sarit died it was exposed that he had kept over one hundred concubines. There were also fights among his heirs over the remaining assets which triggered the government to set up a special committee to confiscate his property on the ground of corruption. This period ended with the People's Uprising of October 1973.

## **2.2 WOMEN AND THE 1974 CONSTITUTION**

Among the four constitutions, the one promulgated in 1974 played the most significant role in promoting women's equality. This constitution had indeed brought about a revolution of the women's legal status. Prior to this 1974 Constitution, women were not allowed through a number of regulations of various Ministries to hold certain public positions. For example, women were not allowed to be judges, public prosecutors, district officers (Palad Amphoe), land officers and diplomats. This constitution was a direct product of the People's Uprising of 1973 which forced the military regime led by General Thanom Kittikachorn and General Prapass Charusatien to resign after their bloody attack on empty-handed democratic demonstrators. A civilian interim government led by Sanya Dhammasak, former President of the Supreme Court and the President of Thammasat University, was appointed by the King to end the bloodshed and to draft a new constitution. Among the committee members of the drafting committee was a small numbers of women's rights advocates from different women organizations including the Women Lawyers Association of Thailand. Along with other supporters, they succeeded in including in the new constitution a clause guaranteeing the equality of women. Article 28 of this constitution stated that men and women have equal rights. Any restriction on rights or liberties that violated the spirit as well as the rule of this article was not permissible. Although the equality clause was not effective immediately, as Article 236 provided a two-year period, starting from the date of the promulgation, for the government to revise discriminatory laws and regulations against women. Among them were

laws concerning family relationships and state regulations which discriminated women in holding public positions. Despite the revision of the family-related laws, several patriarchal provisions were maintained as symbols of the "Thai Culture" up to the present. However, many ministerial regulations which prevented women from competing with men in certain public positions, i.e. the judiciary and public prosecutor, were removed. These changes have revolutionized the women's legal status and have paved ways to more egalitarian relationships. Unfortunately, the right-wing military seized power again in a bloody coup on October 6, 1976, which was the very day of the completion of the two-year time frame. The military abolished this progressive constitution. The revision of discriminatory laws and regulation came to an end.

### **2.3 WOMEN AND THE 1978 CONSTITUTION**

The 1978 constitution was the second most lasting one in Thai political history. It was promulgated on December 22, 1978 and was abolished when the military leaders led a coup against an elected government on February 23, 1991 (see item 2.4 below). Although this constitution did not contain an explicit equality clause between men and women as the 1974 constitution, nevertheless the internal political stability and the influences from the UN Decade on women worked out in favour of woman's progress. Some major activities of the government which have contributed to the advancement of women's status were:

(1) The establishment of a Sub-Committee for the Development of Women's Role and Status under the National Economic and Social Development Board (NESDB) in 1979. The Sub-Committee appointed a task force to draft the Long-Term women's Development Plan of 1982 - 2001. This is the first national development plan on women which, supposedly, was to be integrated in every 5-year National Economic and Social Development Plan. The Long-Term Women's Development Plan was revised in 1989 and renamed as the Perspective Plan and Policies for Women's Development (1992-2001).

(2) The establishment of the National Commission on Women's Affairs (NCWA) on March 27, 1989 during the Government of Prime Minister General Chatichai Choonhavan. NCWA is a permanent governmental body led by the Prime Minister. The Secretariat of NCWA is attached to the Office of the Permanent Secretary of the Office of the Prime Minister. NCWA plays an advisory role to the Prime Minister and the Council of Ministers. It also coordinates, supports and assists activities to promote women's development of governmental and non-governmental agencies. NCWA has been active in launching campaigns to raise the national consciousness on the women's issues. The National Committee on Laws and Regulations under the NCWA is in direct charge of promoting the role of laws in bringing about women's equality. Actually, a setting up of a permanent governmental body as NCWA was one major recommendation of the Long-Term Women's Development Plan but did not materialize until 1989. The accomplishment of setting up the NCWA was realized through concerted efforts of Khunying Supatra Masdit, a female Minister to the Office of the Prime Minister and various women's rights advocates. With an outstanding contribution to women's development activities at the national as well as the international levels, Khunying Supatra was appointed as the Convenor of the Non-Governmental Forum of the International Women Conference in Beijing in 1995.

### **2.4 WOMEN AND THE 1991 CONSTITUTION**

On February 23, 1991 a military clique called the National Peace Keeping Committee (NPKC) seized power from the elected civilian government of Prime Minister General Chatichai Choonhavan. The 1978 constitution which had been in force for 12 years was suspended. As an attempt to gain popular support, the military leaders nominated a civilian Prime Minister, Anand Panyarachun for the royal appointment. The National Legislative Assembly and a drafting committee of a new constitution were set up with a strong influence from the NPKC. Despite opposition from the pro-democratic movement against certain undemocratic provisions, a new constitution was promulgated on December 9, 1991. The general election was held on March 22, 1992. As a result of the NPKC's maneuver, General Suchinda Kraprayoon, the Supreme Commander and the Deputy Chairman of the NPKC was appointed as the new

Prime Minister, despite the NPKC's previous denial of perpetuating its power through the constitution. The pro-democratic groups were enraged. Hunger strikes and mass demonstrations were organized. The government responded violently in an incident called the "Bloody May". After the massacre, General Suchinda was forced to resign and Anand Panyarachun was reappointed. Some undemocratic provisions of the constitution were amended in 1992. Under the revised Constitution of 1992, the Prime Minister must be an elected member of the House of Representatives. After the general election of September 13, 1992 a coalition government was set up and headed by Prime Minister Chuan Leekpai, the leader of the Democrat Party.

Similar to many previous constitution, Article 25 of the 1991 Constitution under the section on the Rights and Liberties of the Thai People guarantees equality before the law and equal protection under the law of the "person". However, there is a major distinction from other constitutions, except that of 1974, that Article 68 which is under the Section on State Policies further prescribes that "The state shall preserve, promote and develop sex equality." Comparatively speaking, the present constitution is more advanced than that of 1978<sup>th</sup> as the state has spelled out a more explicit clause on sex equality. Nevertheless, in comparison with 1974 it is less effective as this particular provision is listed under the section on the State Policies, which Article 59 of the same section further states that the whole section only serves as legislative and policy guidelines and does not constitute any rights to file a lawsuit against the state if it fails to keep up with its promises. The equality clause of the 1974 constitution is substantially different as it is under the Section on the Rights and Liberties of the Thai People and there is also a provisional clause in Article 236 which forces the state to revise discriminatory laws and regulations or to enact new equality legislations within two years after the promulgation. Under this present constitution the constitutional tribunal has a power to review unconstitutional laws. Without specific constitutional guarantee, it is still questionable if the court of justice will accept a lawsuit filed on the ground of sex inequality.

It is worthwhile to note the contribution of Prime Minister Anand Panyarachun during his two interim administrations. He appointed a female Minister, Saisuree Chutikul to take charge of the National Commission on Women's Affairs (NCWA) during both administrations. Saisuree Chutikul was the former Secretary-General of the National Youth Bureau and had been involved with women's and other national social development plans for numbers of years. She is also an elected member of the United Nations Commission on the Status of Women (UNCSD). The NCWA under her leadership was most active resulting in several major accomplishments i.e. the reviewing of the Long-term Women's Development Plan, a ratification of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child as well as removing some reservations which the Thai government made in its accession to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women. It also succeeded in repealing the Executive Decree Number 337 issued during General Thanom Kittikachorn's regime. The Decree had for almost 20 years discriminated against Thai women of alien spouses in transmitting the Thai nationality to their children. It also improved the right to maternity leave of women employed in the government service. After Prime Minister Anand's administrations Saisuree Chutikul continued to serve in the commission of the NCWA and as an advisor to the Permanent Secretary of the Office of the Prime Minister. Her involvement has ensured a continuity of the government's policies on women.

There were various positive signs related to the promotion of women status under the administration of Prime Minister Chuan Leekpai. In the policy statement presented to the parliament, the government vowed to promote equal employment opportunity for women. The resolution of the Council of Ministers which had prevented the appointment of women as district officer effective since 1978 was removed. As a consequence ten women were appointed to this position along with the appointment of one woman provincial governor and one woman deputy governor. This appointment, nevertheless, has been criticized as a token and even as an attempt to block a public campaign to bring about decentralization through the election of provincial governor. Other government agencies were urged to review their discriminatory regulations. Finally, these government agencies reported to the Council of Minister on July 27, 1993 that they had removed all discriminatory regulations. Women were no longer discriminated in the civil service. The government policy on equal employment opportunity has, so far, been exclusively effective

in the civil service and has not even been extended to employment in state enterprises which widely discriminate against women. With regard to employment in the private sector, the government, so far, has not introduced any new measures and women continue to be discriminated against. Being only a government's policy without any concrete legislation on equal employment opportunity, it is uncertain whether this policy will be upheld by the succeeding administration.

Another major policy of this administration is on the prevention and suppression of the exploitation of prostitution and the abolition of child prostitution under 18 years old.

Prime Minister Chuan Leekpai often emphasized that the government should pay more attention to social development which has been neglected by past administrations which gave priority to economic development. Various state mechanisms which had been attempted were accomplished during this administration. Among them was the establishment of the Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare in 1993. Prior to this, labor and social welfare were under two separate departments in the Ministry of Interior without coordinated plans of actions. Labor activities were supervised by the Ministry which was concerned with the concept of keeping law and order as having political motive thus result in the suppression of the rights and freedom of the workers. There were no interdepartmental collaboration between the Department of Labour, the Department of Social Welfare and the Department of Police, all under the same Ministry, in stopping the rapid growth of the sex industry. The establishment of the Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare which had been attempted for during the last 60 years, was a starting point to carry out its mandate of creating constructive jobs and gainful employment as well as to bring about a comprehensive social security system for the Thai people. The interdepartmental collaboration between the Department of Labour Welfare and the Department of Social Welfare under a new working spirit of serving, rather than governing, has given the people a new hope for a better future. So far the Ministry has been serving as the Secretariat of the National Committee on Anti-Prostitution Campaign and has been engaged in income-generating training programmes for women, who were formerly engaged in sexual services. Training has also been provided for young women from disadvantaged families as a measure to safeguard them from entering the sex industry. The Ministry also serves as the Secretariat of two more state machineries newly created to strengthen efforts on social development namely, the National Social Welfare Committee and the Inter-Governmental and Non-Governmental Social Committee. The latter held joint meetings and consultations with the Inter-Governmental and Non-Governmental Economic Committee in order to come up with a more balanced social and economic development plans and policies.

## **2.5 WOMEN AND THE REVISED CONSTITUTION OF 1995.**

During Prime Minister Chuan Leekpai's administration, the 1991 Constitution was reviewed by the Special Reviewing Committee. Through active public campaign and lobbying work of women non-governmental organizations, particularly the Gender Watch Group, an equality clause identical of the 1974 Constitution was enacted as Article 24 of the Revised Constitution of 1995 (Issue 5th). This Article has been effective since February 11, 1995. Due to the dissolution of the House of Representatives on May 19, 1995 Prime Minister Chuan Leekpai's administration came to an end. The general election was held on July 2, 1995 and a new coalition government led by Prime Minister Banharn Silapa-archa came into power. Out of the total number of 391 members, 24 women from various parties were elected. This is the largest number of female M.P which Thailand ever has. Among 49 members of the Council of Minister, one female M.P, Mrs. Sudarat Kayurapan, has been appointed as the Deputy-Minister of Interior.

On July 26, 1995 the new administration presented its policy statement to the parliament. Major policies related to women are:

1. Promoting the status of women by enacting legislations in conformity to a constitutional clause on sex equality. Revising discriminatory laws and regulations against women.

2. Promoting women's participation in social, economic and political development of the nation. Promoting women's role in setting out the direction of national development.
3. Strengthening preventive measures to safeguard women from sexual exploitation. Preventing child labour and child prostitution.
4. Ensuring women workers, particularly those in the informal sector, of fair wages and welfare benefits.
5. Provision of occupational skills training programmes for women in the rural areas.

It is still too early to make an assessment on the role and accomplishment of this administration in improving women's status and bringing about women's equality. So far on August 15, 1995 the Council of Ministers approved a draft of the Prevention and Suppression of Prostitution Business Act. This drafted law is meant to replace the outdated Prostitution Suppression Act of 1960. Actually, this draft was approved by the last administration and was being processed but the House of Representatives was dissolved before the draft was put on the agenda. The policy statement obviously commits the new administration to several major issues. Its accomplishment undoubtedly depends on a political stability of this administration, an issue which has been widely questioned right from the start.

### **3. PRESENT LEGAL STATUS OF WOMEN**

#### **3.1 LAWS RELATED TO THE PERSONAL RIGHTS OF WOMEN**

##### **3.1.1 PERSONAL RIGHTS OF MARRIED WOMEN**

Personal rights of the individual are the most fundamental rights protected in every civilized society. This is an area which clearly reflects unequal status between men and women.

Major legislations related to family relationship in Thailand are enacted as part of the Civil and Commercial Code of Thailand and other special Acts. Among them are the Law on Persons of 1925, and the Family and Succession Laws of 1935. The Muslim population in the four Southern province namely, Satoon, Pattanee, Yala and Naratiwat is exempted from the jurisdiction of Family Law and Law of Succession and is subjected to Muslim religious laws.

Despite a major revision which was a direct result of the equality clause of the 1974 constitution and two more revisions undertaken in 1977 and 1990, certain criminal and civil laws pertaining to family relationships still maintain patriarchal characteristics. The laws still reflect traditional attitudes and values which have perceived women as property over which men can exercise possession immediately upon betrothal. The laws also set double sexual standards between men and women. Although the revision of the family related laws, after the promulgation of the 1974 Constitution, brought Thailand close to the universal standards set out in the Convention, there are provisions which still discriminate against women up to the present. These provisions and related problems will be briefly described.

##### **A. Unequal Right in Engagement Relationship**

According to Article 1444, of the Family Law, a serious misconduct of each engaged party can lead to a termination of the engagement contract. Judging from this provision alone the law seems equal for both parties. However, Article 1445, which follows, clearly states that a sexual relation of an engaged woman with another man gives the right to her fiance to terminate the engagement as well as the right to claim for civil compensation from the third party. This provision is rather absurd because if the woman has given consent to her sexual relation with the third party, she herself cannot sue the man for any compensation. But the law has provided fiance with a right

to claim for such compensation. The same provision is not provided vice versa for women. Article 1446 also gives the man a right to sue for a civil compensation from the other man who has raped his fiancée.

### **B. Unequal Right on the Ground for Divorce**

The Family Law provides two channels for divorce, a consent divorce and a judicial divorce. A consent divorce is much less complicated as the couple can register the divorce in any registry office throughout the kingdom. A judicial divorce is more complicated as the party seeking for the divorce must file a lawsuit by relying on the grounds of divorce provided in Article 1516. There are ten grounds of divorce, 9 of them applying equally to husbands and wives. However, the first ground clearly reflects unequal socio-legal expectations and unequal treatment between wife and husband. Under this provision, a husband can sue his wife on the ground of adultery while a woman cannot use this ground against her husband. She must prove that the husband has given maintainance to or has honored other woman as another wife. Prior to the 1974 revision, the law did not even mention that providing maintainance or honoring the other woman could be a ground for divorce.

The legal provisions discussed in items A. and B. clearly manifest a double-sexual standard in the family relationship. Any criticisms on the unequal responsibility of familial faithfulness are mistakenly interpreted that women are advocating for an equal right to promiscuity. To the contrary, it is an advocacy for equal faithfulness and respect between men and women. These equalities are the solid and healthy basis of family relations.

### **C. The Right to Body and Sexuality**

Article 276 of the Criminal Code does not recognize forced sexual intercourse of a husband upon his wife as a rape. It is considered as an ordinary assault which has lighter penalty. It can be argued that the law is reasonable as it is difficult to prove whether the wife was under a coercion, particularly if the couple are still living together. However, in various cases of separation, the husband refused to divorce and still imposed on the wife. As the law stands, the husband cannot be sued for raping his wife. According to this provision the husband is the owner of his wife's body and sexuality. This provision also reconfirms an attitude that a wife is a husband's property. The right to her own body, considered as the most fundamental civil right of every citizen in any democratic society, is not fully protected.

### **D. Unequal Burdens on Changing of Name Title and Family Name**

Under the Name Act of 1982 and a royal decree a married woman is obliged to change her title from Nang Sau (Miss) to Nang (Mrs.) and she must take the husband's surname. If she divorces she can go back to her maiden name but the title must remain as Mrs. Prior to 1987, a widow was obliged to keep the husband's surname even though she might have some personal reasons for wanting to resume her own maiden name. These issues may seem trivial but they have obviously imposed extra and unequal burdens on women. A woman must change all her personal records, particularly the home registration and her identification card. If she fails, this is considered a petty penalty. Although the law is rarely enforced but it is still a crime. Moreover, it has reinforced and perpetuated a traditional attitude that only sons can uphold and preserve the family's entity and lead to a preference of male children. Changing of the title can also disadvantage women when seeking employment as the employer can easily identify their marital status and decide not to hire them as a caution against future legal responsibilities of the employers. As Thailand is still lacking equal opportunity employment legislation, employers in the state enterprises and the private sector have enjoyed an absolute freedom of prescribing any qualifications in job advertisements. Changing of the title and family name has also been an annoying matter of professional and business women.

Thai men do not have to undergo these burdens. Their title changes from Dek Chai (a boy child) to Nai (Mr.) when they reach the age of 15 and remain the same throughout life. The title Nai does not indicate whether a man is still single or married while a woman's title immediately identify her marital status. Many men uses this advantage to register marriage with several women as shall be discussed in item E.

### **E. Problems related to Bigamy**

Comparatively speaking, women have greater risks than men when entering marriage. In an attempt to transform from a polygamous society, Thailand has adopted civil marriage registration since 1935. The Family Law since then has required that marriage must be registered with the state registry office in any district throughout the whole kingdom. The parties entering marriage must give a testimony to the registry officers that they are still single before a marriage license is issued. The law is meant to encourage marriage registration by making it more convenient for honest couples. A marriage is legally effective immediately after the registration which usually takes only one day. However, since the central marriage registration system has just recently been established and there is still no effective way to check people's marital status, double or multiple registrations of marriage are widely practised mostly by men.

Bigamy is not a serious crime in itself but only a petty crime of perjury to the registry officers. Nevertheless, a legal action on this matter has been difficult. Due to either ignorance or sexist attitudes of policemen, they frequently refuse to register the charge unless women are accompanied by feminist lawyers. The women and the lawyers must show them earlier a judicial decision and, in some cases, even have to threaten that they will accuse the officers of refraining from performing their duties if they refuse to register the charge.

Prior to 1990, all of the multiple registrations were legal unless the first wife brought a lawsuit to the civil court to invalidate all other registered marriages of her husband. Children born under these multiple marriage registrations were recognized as legal children of the husband. This situation undoubtedly led to conflicts and bitterness of all parties involved except the husband. The law was revised in 1990 making it easier to invalidate the latter marriage registrations. Previously, only the court had the power to nullify such marriage. According to the new law any parties whose interests are at stake can provoke the invalidity of the latter registrations or they can seek for the judicial decision. So long as the central marriage registration system is still inefficient, honest women as well as men will continue to take this risk. A new way of invalidating the latter marriage, although easy, may not have sufficiently taken the security of honest party into account.

### **F. Unequal Rights between Thai Men and Thai Women Married to Aliens**

Thai women married to aliens have encountered legal problems which Thai men in the same circumstances never have to bother with. Laws pertaining to these issues are the Nationality Act of 1965 and the Land Code of 1954 which have created 3 issues of inequality. They are inequality in establishing nationality right to spouse, inequality in transmitting citizenship right to children and inequality in land ownership. These problems will be briefly elaborated.

#### **(1) Inequality in Establishing the Spouse Nationality**

Similar to most old Nationality Laws of many countries, the Nationality Act of 1965 was based on traditional concept which recognizes the man as the head of the family; after the marriage the women must go to live with the husband. This concept had been institutionlized in the laws and has placed Thai women as second class citizens who possess lesser consitutional protection than men. From this concept, a Thai woman married to an alien does not have a right to automatically grant the Thai nationality to her alien spouse. In order to get a Thai nationality, the spouse must go through the whole process of naturalization. To be eligible to apply to for naturalization, the applicant must meet legal requirements specified in Article 10 and Article 11. For example, certain years of continuous residence in Thailand, ability to read and write etc.. It may take five years to be granted the nationality and the cost of getting it is very high (Wimolsiri : 1992). Moreover, the applicant has to compete in the quota system among different nations. The Nationality Law also requires the subject to abandon the original nationality. Alien women married to Thai men can get the Thai nationality in a much less complicated process. They can apply for it from the Ministry of Interior. No specific qualifications are required. They are not required to abandon their original nationality but can practically keep both.

## **(2) Inequality in Transmitting Thai Nationality**

As a consequence of the traditional concept, Thai nationality had been transmitted through the bloodline of the father and has created immense problems for the Thai mothers and their children of alien fathers. This legal principle has just recently been changed in 1992, after having been enforced for almost 20 years. According to the old principle, children of Thai fathers and alien mothers were automatically entitled to the Thai nationality regardless of their birthplace. Thai women, on the other hand, could transmit the Thai nationality to their children only in any of three circumstances; first the child must be born in Thai territory; second the child had to be born out of wedlock; or, third, the father of the child was stateless. It is obvious from this principle that Thai women did not have an equal right as Thai men in transmitting the Thai nationality to the children of an alien spouses. This inequality was exasperated when the military regime issued the Executive Decree No. 337 of 1972 to repeal the Thai nationality of everyone born in the Thai territory from an alien father or alien mother. The Decree also abrogated the right to transmit Thai nationality to children born out of intermarriage regardless of their birthplace. On the surface, this Executive Decree may seem equal as it applies to both men and women. However, as the Thai Nationality Act had recognized the right of Thai men in transmitting their nationality through the bloodline but had imposed various conditions on children of Thai women. So after the Executive Decree No. 337 came in effect, these children turn out to be aliens in their motherland and encountered various legal and administrative problems which the children of the Thai fathers and alien mothers never had to endure. As aliens they had no permanent residential right. They were not registered in regular home registrations which led the public schools to refuse to admit them. At the age of 15 they could not apply for identification papers which led to many inconveniences. If they wanted to have a Thai nationality they had to apply from the authority on a case - case basis. They had to produce required evidence without any guarantee that the nationality would be given and when they would get it. There were cases which took over 20 years of processing without success. Rumours about corruption of government officials involved were prevalent.

After a long struggle of women and children non-governmental organizations and concerned scholars on this issue, the law has just recently been revised on February 25, 1992. The new law has granted an equal right to both Thai men and Thai women to transmit Thai nationality to children regardless of birthplace.

## **(3) Inequality in Land Ownership**

Thai women with alien husbands also encounter legal problem related to land ownership. Article 86 of the Land Law of 1954 prescribes that only aliens of the nations which have mutual treaties with Thailand are allowed to own land. So far Thailand does not have a mutual treaty with any country so aliens cannot own any land yet. Article 74 gives power to the land officer to deny to register any transaction of land if the officer deems that such transactions are for the benefits of the aliens. The letter of the law is equal for Thai men and Thai Women married to aliens. However, since Thai women are legally obliged to change title and family name upon marriage, land officers can easily identify that they are married to aliens. Thai men, on the other hand, can claim that they are single and there are no evidence to prove otherwise. There have been court cases which decided that the land officer had authority to refuse to register a land title for Thai women who bought the land during marriage because, according to the Family Law any properties acquired during marriage were common properties which upon the termination of marital relationship must be equally divided between spouses. There had been a suggestion that the land can be legally bought as the women's private property. In reality, however, it is still not possible. This restriction has been viewed as a violation of the property right protected by the constitution (Bamrung : 1984).

As cohabitation is an important part of marital relationships and the right to residency is a basic right of every citizen, the land law should be revised to conform with these principles. As a precaution for foreign domination, the law can spell out reasonable limitations and conditions. Among these can be the amount allowed, the purpose which should be exclusively concerned with promoting family relationship. Conditions regarding ownership of the land after the termination of marriage in views of safeguarding foreign domination can be

created. In line of the fact that, as a strategy to attract foreign investment, a new law has been recently passed to allow 40 per cent alien ownership of a condominium, the outdated Land Law should also be revised to promote the residential right of Thai citizens on an equal sex basis.

### **3.1.2 OTHER LAWS RELATED TO THE PERSONAL RIGHTS OF WOMEN**

#### **A. Rape, Child Prostitution and Other Sexual Offenses**

The Criminal Code of Thailand promulgated in 1956 contains a section on sexual offenses. Under Article 276 - 287 of this section the law prescribes penalties on rape, prostitution, pornography and other sexual offenses. The law was revised twice in order to tackle with increasing problems but still cannot keep pace with rapid social and economic changes. Certain provisions still maintain traditional attitudes as mentioned earlier that there is no legal recognition of rape in marriage. The legal interpretation of rape is narrowly restricted to a penetration of the male's sex organ into a female's. Forced oral or anal intercourses is not considered rape, but a less serious sexual assault. The age of consent to a sexual act has only been recently raised from 13 to 15 years of age. According to this law, sexual intercourse with a girl below 15 is statutory rape regardless of the girl's consent. Nevertheless, it is a common knowledge that many girls below this age have been engaged in prostitution, but law enforcement in the past has been unsatisfactory. Since the past decades, women and children non-governmental organizations have exposed various incidents of rape committed by school teachers on their students.

More and more young boys, particularly vagrant children, have also entered prostitution. Many of their customers are foreigners, some of them being involved in the production of pornographic media. As the legal definition of rape is confined to an action committed on female, a forced sexual intercourse with a young boy is not regarded as rape. Nevertheless, boys are protected under Article 279 which carries lighter sentence. Child prostitution has indeed been a serious social problem. As the former and present administrations have a clear policy of preventing and suppressing sexual exploitation of children, it is expected that the problem will be effectively reduced.

In addition to rape in marriage, rape in general is an increasingly common crime which victimizes women at all ages. Women suffer not only from the physical and emotional trauma of the crime, but also from the prevailing attitude that forces the victim to be ashamed of the incident. Although the law prescribes punishment of rape, fewer rapists are actually punished since most victims, well aware of the resulting social stigma, rarely report the crime to the police. If they report, they are likely to endure indifference or even sexist attitudes of the police. Not only does rape cause mental and physical anguish but it also terrorizes all women. For fear of their own safety, women refrain from active participation in social, economic and political activities, and this fear often becomes the excuse for excluding women from certain public positions as well as positions in private employment.

Since the past decade there has been attempts by women and children non-governmental organizations to provide assistance to victims of this crime. Assistance includes medical, legal and other necessary services to the victims and the families. They have also been engaged in public campaigns to change the social attitudes, particularly of the law enforcers, mostly males, towards the victims. They encourage women and girls to stand up not just to protect their own individual rights but for the safety of women in general. Part of their work is to change laws and legal procedures as well as to urge the Police Department to repeal its policy which still bars women from interrogation duty. They have also recommended that social workers and psychologists assist the police in handling sexual and gender related crimes.

In addition to rape, other forms of sexual offenses, especially sexual harassment in the workplace and elsewhere prevail. These offenses are also the violation of women's basic rights of their own bodies.

#### **B. Prostitution**

Prostitution had been one of the most serious problems which clearly reflects inferior social, economic, political and cultural status of women. The intensity of prostitution in Thailand is one manifestation of the

negative impacts of military dictatorship on the lives of the Thai people. It is also due to the misconception and mismanagement of ineffective elected civilian governments which, so far, have not been fully accountable for the wellbeing of the majority of the people. Under almost three decades of military dictatorship, all fundamental rights and liberties of the people were taken away. The commoners lived under great fear of the absolute power of the military regimes. They lost freedoms of expression and association. The rights to organize and the rights for collective bargaining of the workers were suspended in 1958 and were not restored until 1975. Without bargaining power and labour standard laws providing only minimal protection which were not enforced, the living and working conditions of the workers were surprisingly poor despite economic prosperity of both local and foreign investors. The Communist Suppression Act was arbitrarily enforced to eradicate political opposition and dissidents, particularly the intellectuals and the media people. Mass arrests, indefinite detention without trials and summary executions were widely practiced to threaten people. Freed from public scrutiny, the military juntas led Thailand into the Indochina War. With the existence of the U.S. military bases and the use as Rest and Recreation areas by the American soldiers, sex related businesses started to take deep roots in the Thai modern economy. The businesses ranged from Turkish Baths and massage parlors, bars and nightclubs. Many young woman migrated to cities where there were American military bases and to other big cities to be engaged in these sex related businesses. Thousands of Thai women established a more permanent relationship as "American G.I.'s hired-wife" which also led to another problem of Thai-American children who did not have the citizenship right until 1992 as earlier described.

Sex related businesses had continued even after the end of the war, through the misconceptions on the national development policy of many civilian regimes which put more emphasis on industrial growth but totally neglected the agricultural sector which has long been the country's backbone. These regimes have perceived prostitution as a "necessary evil" and an unavoidable path which Thailand had to endure before reaching the full stage of its economical development. The spread of prostitution of Japan after the Second World War due to economic hardships and similar situations in Korea and Taiwan have always been cited. As a consequence, tourism with package tours including the services of prostitutes, were promoted as a quick and easy means of attracting foreign currency. Although laws and regulations aimed at suppressing prostitution are many they were not been enforced. Moreover, many new forms of prostitution developed in addition to the conventional brothels and tea - house, i.e. call girls, escorts, "benefit" or "present" from the membership clubs etc.. Certainly, many forms of this business are for local consumption as well as for the tourists.

Under these circumstances the traditional attitudes of the Thai general public which used to look down upon prostitution have also been influenced. They are mixed between indifference, acceptance or even seen as a quick means of making a living. Most Thai women have been socialized to tolerate the males' practice of visiting prostitutes by the older generations who were accustomed to males' polygamous behavior in the old days. Men, on the other hand, are brought up with a belief that it is part of their masculinity. Not until the alarming spread of AIDS have these attitudes been challenged.

Laws and executive decrees relating to the prevention and suppression of prostitution are more than sufficient. They will be briefly presented according to their significance, and in chronological order.

The basic law is the Criminal Code of 1956 which stipulates a whole section on sexual offenses. This section was revised in 1982 and 1987 to expand the scope of protection to all women regardless of age. The penalties have also been increased. Articles 282 - 285 of this section impose penalties on "whoever, in order to gratify the sexual desire of another person, procures, seduces, or takes away a woman or a girl..." The younger the victims, the more severe are the penalties. Article 286 imposes a penalty on anyone over 16 years of age who subsists on the earnings of a female prostitute, except dependent children and other relatives.

In addition to this basic law, there are several executive decrees issued on various occasions which are aimed at suppressing those involved in the sex trade of women and children. Prior to the 1987 revision, the Criminal Code only protected women who were below 18 years of age. However, as an attempt to extend the state's

protection to women over the specified age who were lured into prostitution, especially to foreign countries, the law was then revised. This newly revised legal principle is either not well understood or is totally ignored as reflected in the fearless public interviews of the procurers in various occasions. They argued that they had not violated the law as women were over-aged and that they had consented to be engaged in prostitution. The procurers have also stated further that instead of being blamed they should be sympathetic as they were providing means of living for these unemployed women while the authority could not solve economic problems for the women. Moreover, they claimed that their relationship with the women was not exploitative.

In addition to the Criminal Code, there are a few other legislations prohibiting the sex trade of women and young girls. The oldest among them is the Trafficking of Women and Female Children Act of 1928 which prohibits inbound and outbound sexual trade of women and female children. In 1960, the Prostitution Suppression Act was promulgated to confirm the principle upheld in the Criminal Code. The law penalizes the procurers, owners or managers of the brothels or entertainment places and all other profiteers. The penalties are however, lighter. The law is problematic as it also penalizes prostitutes, regardless of their sexes, who either solicit in public places or inside brothels. Under this law the customers are not penalized. Prostitution is defined in legal terms as an act of "promiscuously rendering sexual services for remuneration." The law encompasses prostitution between the opposite as well as with the same sex. The law also authorizes the Director General of the Social Welfare Department to send any prostitute, upon completion of the punishment, to a governmental rehabilitation centre to undergo medical treatment and occupational training for a period not exceeding one year.

In response to the big boom of night clubs, massage parlors and other entertainment places catering to the American soldiers during the Indochina War, the Entertainment Places Act was enacted in 1966. The law aimed "to control the operations of certain kinds of entertainment places which affect the public order and morals". According to this law, prostitution remains illegal. The managers of these entertainment places which allow prostitution to operate in their premises are to be persecuted. Nevertheless, the law recognizes the status of women hired as "dancing partners", "service women" and "ladies of pleasure" in these places. In spite of its good intention, the law indeed intensified prostitution under the disguise of "entertainment services". The state lacked effective mechanism to patrol all these entertainment places which sprang up everywhere and were adopted into the modern life style of the Thai men.

As a measure to safeguard youth, the law prohibits employment of young people below 18 years of age in these entertainment places. It also penalizes the proprietors who allow outsiders below the age of 20 years or unaccompanied women in entering these entertainment places. In 1972, the Notification of the Ministry of Interior Re : Labour Protection was passed to prohibit employment of single women below 18 years of age to work in certain entertainment places which are likely to cause women sexual harm. In reality, with the knowledge of government and police officers, thousands of young girls of less than 18 of age are employed in such places and are forced to engage in prostitution. In the same year two more executive decrees (No. 132 and No. 294) were issued to strengthen the measure of safeguarding youth from the alarming prostitution problem. The decrees prohibit students enrolled in educational institutions under the Ministry of Education to enter into brothels or other undesirable places which may lead them to prostitution, either as prostitutes or as customers. The decrees impose disciplinary actions on students as well as parents. If, after several warnings, the students still maintain their behavior, the Police officers are entitled to petition for judicial detention of these students in state rehabilitation centers. Obviously, these decrees are unpractical as they require much attention from the schools as well as the parents to look after youth amidst sexually stimulating environments which the state should take more responsibility in controlling. The decrees are anachronistic and ineffective as clearly reflected in the increasing rate of young people with sexually transmitted diseases.

In conclusion, laws and executive orders aimed at the prevention and suppression of the exploitation of women's and children's prostitution are sufficient. However, in the past there were serious problems of law enforcement. Either because they were not enforced at all or if they were enforced, the women prostitutes,

the socially and economically weakest among all parties involved i.e. customers and profiteers, were those arrested. They have been imprisoned, fined and forced to undergo rehabilitation which may add more burden on top of their lives of hardships. In the past, the profiteers were rarely arrested.

However, starting from the administration of Chuan Leekpai there seems to be some positive changes. The administration declared a clear policy of abolishing child prostitutes under the age of 18 years as well as freezing the number of prostitutes over the age of 18 years. A National Committee for the Anti-Prostitution Campaign has been set up by the resolution of the Council of Ministers. The committee is chaired by the Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare. The committee is comprised of high-ranking officers from related governmental units and representatives of various non-governmental organizations. Income generating activities for former prostitutes and young girls in risky families are carried out as a measure to prevent them from entering into these services. It is also expected, that the police department will strengthen the law enforcement, not on the women but the profiteers. It is also the role of the police and the Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare to inspect women employed in entertainment places to see that they are not forced to engage in prostitution. In addition, the National Commission on Women's Affairs (NCWA) which is strongly concerned with this issue, will continue its coordinating and supportive roles among all related agencies committed to rectify this social problem.

As regard to legal measures, there has been attempts by the NCWA and concerned government agencies to revise various related laws. Among them are the Trafficking of Women and Female Children Act of 1928, the Prostitution Suppression Act of 1960 and the Entertainment Place Act of 1966. Major changes in these new drafts are the eradication of legal loopholes and the improvement of legal provisions to keep pace with rapid social changes, including new patterns of the sex industry itself. The Prostitution Suppression Act will, hopefully, be replaced by a more explicit legislation entitled "the Prevention and Suppression of Prostitution Act". The draft contains both preventive and curative aspects. Despite public campaigns launched by women's organizations for the decriminalization of the prostitutes' penalties, the new draft still contains light punishments for the prostitutes. The reason given is that the state must retain certain extent of power, at least for temporary custody, before referring the arrested prostitutes to appropriate treatments. Under this draft, only under legal age prostitutes (20 years old) will receive compulsory rehabilitation. Those over the legal age can utilize the state facilities on the voluntary basis.

### **C. Abortion**

Abortion is a crime under Article 301-305 of the Criminal Code of Thailand. Article 301 provides that induced abortion, whether self-induced or induced by another person, is a crime leading to prescribed punishment. So, in general, abortion is illegal except in two instances specified in Article 305: one if pregnancy is detrimental to the mother's physical health, and two, if the mother is a victim of a sexual crime. Abortions in these two instances must be carried on by medical practitioners only. The reason for these restricted conditions is to deter young single women from promiscuity, and to comply with the religious teaching that killing is sinful. However, surveys reveal that the majority of women seeking abortions and being injured by illegal abortions are married women. The other group of women who need abortion are those engaged in sexual services.

As abortion is illegal and as social stigma imposed on single women's pregnancy is so strong, a woman has to go to a back-alley abortionist which is dangerous and expensive. There is a legal loophole which has been used and has aggravated abortion. According to Article 304 attempted abortion which does not cause serious danger or harm to the woman is not punishable. Using this legal loophole, a number of woman are sent to public hospitals when the illegal abortionists cannot cope with the serious conditions of women i.e. bleeding or infections. So the public hospitals must take over the cases at greater cost and higher risks for the women's lives.

Abortion is an alarming social problem which seriously affect the lives of women. Thailand has gone through rapid socio-economic changes which have provided more opportunities for young males and females to interact. Young females are no longer confined to the household but have the opportunities of education or work

in bigger cities, out of sight of the parents. Living environments as well as social values on virginity have also undergone many changes. Young people are surrounded by night-clubs, massage parlors, brothels, as well as being stimulated by all types of sexually arousing media. These new environments must inevitably affect their sexual behavior.

In addition to these social changes, there is also a medical study which reveals that a large number of Thai people are carriers of Thalassemia, a transmitted and incurable blood disease. The babies with Thalassemia have a short life-span. Another urgent problem is the pregnancy of women who are HIV positive. According to the present law, these women cannot get a legal abortion unless there is medical evidence that HIV infection is presently affecting them. There is also a disagreement among medical doctors as to whether the fetus is infected by HIV; if it is, the mother still cannot get a legal abortion as it is not covered by legal provisions.

Despite rapid socio-economic changes this old abortion law, promulgated in 1956, is still effective and remains insensitive to its impact on woman's lives. The legal principle has been upheld to the disadvantage of women. Women are not the owners of their own bodies and their own procreation. If it is argued that the women are too young to make this judgement, social stigma imposed, solely and unfairly upon woman, without questioning male partners behavior, must be eradicated.

It is predictable that if the law remains unchanged, despite several unsuccessful campaigns for liberization, women will continue to suffer.

#### **D. Domestic Violence**

Domestic violence includes physical, mental and sexual violence conducted by a member of one family upon the other in the same family. Similar to other countries, women and children are victims of such violence. The forms of violence range from wife and children battering to incest. According to the law, wife battering comes under ordinary assault prescribed in the Criminal Code. The law has not offered any special treatment for this issue. Moreover, when the wife reports a case to the police, she is either ignored or convinced by the police to disregard the issue or, in many cases, even told that the husband has the right to beater up. In many incidents, wives who had been living under this violence decided to strike back at the husbands causing them injuries or even death. They were arrested and charged with murder. In clear cases, women's organizations would intervene to provide legal aid and supply the police and public prosecutors with evidence of long endurance. With legal assistance the charges may be dropped or at least women may receive lighter sentences.

In addition to physical violence, many women have to endure psychological as well as economic hardships because of the husbands' unfaithfulness and irresponsibility. Thai women and Thai men have been brought up to accept double sexual standard behavior which has offered men extra-marital freedom while women have been socialized to accept that the best strategy is tolerance.

However, access to education and employment has contributed to greater independence for women resulting in increased rates of single women as well as divorcees.

Incest has become an increasing problem. According to the law the father or the grandfather will receive a heavier sentence as compared to ordinary rape. Much sexual violence occurs in broken-home families where the step-father or step-grandfather is the cause of violence upon step-females.

Despite these increasing problems, the state has neither conducted legal revisions nor provided systematic assistance to the victims. Assistance given comes mostly from non-governmental organization committed to the well-being of the women and children, so far, without substantial support from the government. Much has been said about the government's support to the works of non-governmental organization. A Social Welfare Bill was actually drafted during the Anand Administration to allocate government's budget to support NGO's activities. However, the bill has been delayed.

### 3.2 WOMEN'S RIGHTS TO EDUCATION AND TRAINING.

Although there is no Thai law which discriminates against women in education and training, but there are still regulations which prevent them from equal access in certain programs. According to the Compulsory Education Law first promulgated in 1935 and the latter revisions, primary education in grade 1 - 6 is free. So male and female children are supposed to have equal access. However, recent statistics reveal that the illiteracy rate among women is at 13.6 per cent which is twice as much as among men. These statistics confirm previous observations that it is a common practice among poor peasant families to send sons rather than daughters to school. The practice is based on a traditional value which perceives sons as the future breadwinner and head of the family. So the parents must do their best for this preparation. The daughters, on the other hand, will soon be married and taken care of by husbands. This traditional value has a serious and negative impact on the daughters. Lacking educational opportunity, they often enter the labor market as young as 11 - 12 years old without any training and often end up in low paying jobs under harsh conditions or are lured into prostitution.

In addition of access to the state compulsory education, the Buddhist Temple also provides exclusive educational opportunity for Thai males. Since Buddhism is, more or less, the state religion, it is a traditional practice for Thai males to be ordained as young novices or monks. In the old days, when compulsory education organized by the state did not exist, ordination in the Buddhist Temple was a major path of acquiring secular as well as religious knowledge. After the state took over modern education the Buddhist Temple still provided education services at every level for the novices and monks. The Buddhist Temple receive annual allocations budget from the government to cover educational expenses for the novices and the monks. Government funds and donations from the people have supported ongoing educational services provided by the Buddhist Temple for the Thai males. Although inadequate, this was still a form of live-in education for lay and ordained males, preparing them for the future. It is not mandatory that the novices and the monks must remain in the monkhood for the whole life; many of them leave the Temple according to their wishes. It is a common practice among poor families to ordain their sons as young novices so they can have access to education and, in many cases, be free from starvation. Obviously these former novices and monks can derive great benefits from the knowledge learned during their ordination and they are much better off than Thai women who have no access to neither state compulsory education nor educational services provided by the Buddhist Temple. The main argument is that, at present, there are no women Buddhist monks who will take charge of educational services for women. The ordination line for women as Buddhist monks in Thailand has been broken down in the past and cannot be renewed.

In addition to gender bias based on traditional values, women are still discriminated against by various written regulations of public educational institutions. According to a regulation of the Ministry of University Affairs, women cannot be admitted to the Faculty of Medicine of the Military Academy. Furthermore almost twenty faculties of six national universities admit fewer numbers of women than men. In addition to explicit regulations which impose a pro-male quota system, there are also hidden policies in certain public universities which disadvantage women.

Apart from the university level, women are also discriminated against in various vocational training programs administered by various state agencies. These programs are related to traditional sex-role for males i.e. in police and military science, public health and craftmanships. For example, women are not admitted to vocational training organized by the Electricity Authority, the Department of Irrigation or the Railway Authority. They are also barred from other learning programs administered by other government departments i.e. training for forestry officers, maritime and postman students. Men are also discriminated but to a much lesser extent and only in nursing which is viewed as a traditional role of women.

With regards to training programs organized by governmental or non-governmental agencies, women may be discriminated against out of the stereotype concept of the organizers. The concept is based on the traditional sexual division of labor between men and women. Women are trained in areas which in effect have reinforced and strengthened their traditional roles as housewives. They are trained in home-economics, primary health care,

dress-making, hair-dressing or handicraft. So these training programmes continue to confine women to their private domain despite rapid socio-economic changes. This type of training not only perpetuates the traditional concept of sexual division of labor but also limits employment opportunity in creative and gainful jobs to women. Under such circumstances, prostitution which does not require high educational attainment but provides satisfactory monetary return as compared to other unskilled jobs seems to be the only alternative.

Women in general, lack training opportunities which will improve their skills required for competition in employment of a modern society. Women are also discriminated in training on law and politics and lack consciousness and thorough understanding on how law and politics influence their lives.

In conclusion, existing discriminatory practices in the provision of education and training have excluded women from having an equal opportunity of developing their potentialities on equal footing with men. This type of discrimination must be eliminated, especially if the programs are organized by government agencies or if they are financed by public funds.

Women should have more access to certain functional literacy programmes which will enrich their experiences in the public domain and strengthen the capacity to survive in modern societies. Few examples of these programs are legal literacy and training on women and democracy. These programmes will raise women's consciousness on equality and strengthen their analytical thinking. The programs will stimulate women's interest in searching for strategic measures to improve the quality of their lives. The NCWA and few other women organizations are actively providing these programmes but these are still inadequate.

### **3.3 WOMEN'S RIGHTS TO EMPLOYMENT AND WOMEN'S RIGHTS IN THE SOCIAL SECURITY SYSTEM**

Women's limited access to education and training undoubtedly offers women lesser employment opportunities than men. The situation is worsened by the fact that presently there is no legal guarantee for equal employment opportunities, particularly, in the private sector. So women, even with similar educational attainment with men, may easily end up unemployed. If employment is opened for women, employers usually require higher qualifications for women than for men. Once employed, women have to face discriminatory working regulations i.e. early retirement age, different benefit schemes ect.. Women who suffer from these discriminatory treatments range, from factory workers to employees of well-established commercial banks. Many of them are foreign banks which if operated in their own countries, would be prohibited from engaging in these discriminatory practices. Women air-hostesses in the state-owned airway of Thailand are facing forced early retirement at the age of 45. Previously they were forced to resign upon pregnancy.

Thai women play an active role in contributing to the national economy both in monetary and non-monetary terms. They are employed in all sectors of economy. In the industrial sector, the majority of them are unskilled, low-educated and unorganized. In the past decades they have been cheap labour who produced immense wealth for foreign and local investors. They have been a major force in the production of exported commodities and contributed to the national economic growth. At present, hundreds and thousands are being laid-off due to so-called "technological changes" and the moving of capital to more profitable countries.

Women employed in the private sector are protected by the "Hire of Service Contract" which is part of the Civil and Commercial Code of Thailand. In general, they are also under the jurisdiction of the Notification of Ministry of Interior Re: Labour Protection of 1972, the Labour Relations Act of 1985, the Social Security Act of 1990 and the Workmen's Compensation Act of 1994. The Labour Protection Law protects all women workers on an individual basis. The law is applied to private employment in all sectors except in the temporary agricultural sector and non-profitable employment. Domestic workers are also excluded. The Labour Relations Law recognizes the right to unionize, the right to collective bargaining and the right to strike with certain exceptions.

Prior to the February 23, 1991 military coup, public enterprise workers were also under the jurisdictions of the Labour Protection and the Labour Relations Laws and had significantly contributed to the strength of the Thai labor movement.

According to the Social Security Law, all triparties must contribute an equal amount of the monthly fee to the national Social Security Fund. These social security benefits have been designed to complement the workers' benefits which the Labour Protection Law and the Workmen's Compensation Law have required the employers to provide for their employees. At present the social security benefits provided are unrelated to work benefits in case of sickness, incapacity and death. Additional maternity and paternity benefits are also provided. In the future three more benefits namely, child welfare, old age pension and unemployment will be provided.

In addition to general protection on working conditions, welfare and other benefits i.e. workmen's compensation, severance pay, women workers also enjoy special protections provided by the Notification of the Ministry of Interior Re : Labour Protection of 1972 and other laws. Many of these protection measures are based on the traditional perception of women which may be considered as too protective from heavy and dangerous work. However, the law has not yet safeguarded women workers against radio activity related work which is harmful to women's reproductivity. The employers are prohibited to engage women in night work between mid-night to 6.00 a.m. However; shift work or work which must be performed during such period is excluded. Single women below the age of 18 years are protected from employment in certain entertainment places which may cause sexual harm. The law also requires the employers to pay women workers on equal basis with male workers in works, of similar nature, quality and quantity.

Women workers also enjoy minimal maternity protection. The law has just recently been revised and became effective only on May 1, 1993. The revision came after a long struggle of the workers and non-governmental organizations. Prior to that date, a woman worker was entitled to a 60-day maternity leave and if she could not work after the confinement, she could request another 30 days leave. In order to get paid during the maternity leave the worker must have worked for the employer for at least up to 180 days. Payment was limited to 30 days only. Other workers who had worked less than 180 days only enjoyed the leave but without pay. Despite such minimal benefits not all employers complied. As most of women workers are paid on a daily basis, they try to take as short a maternity leave as possible and hurry back to work. After the maternity leave, the babies will be sent back to be cared for by old folks in the rural areas. This practice has led to problems of malnutrition of the babies and alienation from the parents.

According to the newly revised law, all women workers are entitled to a 90-day maternity leave with full payment, regardless of the length of their employment. The employers are obliged to pay them up to 45 days as stated in the Labour Protection Law and the other 45 days will be claimed from the national Social Security Fund to which the workers have also contributed. The payment of 45 days from the employers became effective since May 1, 1993 but the part which would be taken out of the Social Security Fund did not come into effect until March 30, 1995.

Women enjoy the same rights as male workers under the Labour Relations Act and the Social Security Act. However, they are confronted with specific problems. As the majority of women workers are either illiterate or have a lower education attainment than men, they lack equal bargaining power and have less job security. Because of the irregularity of the job they may not be able to contribute to the Social Security Funds on a continuing basis. Being brought up in a more submissive role and because of the double of the burden of work and domestic responsibilities, women's role in the union are weaker than that of men.

Many women workers are victims of sexual harassment by the employers and others. As the majority are migrant workers they must adjust themselves to new living and working environments. Having more chances of interacting with males easily leads to intimate relationships, and in many instances end up with undesirable pregnancy and induced abortions. The women workers also suffer from the polygamous behavior of the male workers. Another alarming problem is that of homosexuality and widespread of HIV infection among women workers.

Problems of women workers are endless. Many of them are social and economic rather than legal. However, legal measures, particularly those related to equal employment opportunities, job security maternity and paternity benefits ect.. can be utilized to promote equality and the improvement of the women's workers' quality of life. In addition, law related programs like literacy training and legal aid and other consultation services should be provided for the women workers.

In recognition of woman's hardships, a draft on the Social Welfare Bill was prepared during the Anand Panyarachun's administration. The draft law proposed to set up a national Social Welfare Funds taken out of one per cent of the national annual budget. These funds will be utilized to assist disadvantaged groups in need of social assistance. Women and children are among these disadvantaged groups entitled to the benefits. This law will hopefully assist women and children, most of them are women's dependents, to live in a more healthy atmosphere with adequate means of developing their full potentialities. The draft also recognizes the active role of non-governmental organizations and proposes that they can, on a voluntary basis, apply for government's fundings for their social activities.

In 1994 the Apprenticeship Promotion Act was passed to encourage employers to provide occupational training programmes. It is interesting to find out the impact of this legislation on women.

### **3.4 WOMEN'S RIGHTS TO PARTICIPATION IN POLITICS AND PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION**

#### **POLITICS**

Discrimination against women through the electoral system at every level has been completely removed since the revision of the Local Administrative Act in 1982. In reality, however, the numbers of elected women at every level are much smaller as compared to that of men. Moreover, women have not been equally recognized in appointed positions as reflected in the small number of appointed senators. The limited number of both elected and appointed positions which women hold in the national parliament is a blatant manifestation of women's low participation in politics. Consequently, women's participation in the legislative power is minimal.

Presently, there have been attempts by women's movements to urge the Ministry of Interior to provide two seats for the committee members of the sub-district council to take charge of the women's affairs. This proposal is part of the proposed bill to grant a legal entity to the sub-district council. The proposed idea is a kind of affirmative action in strengthening women's participation in the sub-district council, which is the basic elected body at the local level in Thailand. The idea has not received positive response from the authority as they have argued that it is contradictory, as on the one hand they women are struggling for equality, yet on the other hand are searching for special priviledges. Regardless of this proposal, the bill itself has little chances of being passed since parties whose interests are at stake are still arguing about acaptable characteristics of the sub-district council. Despite this change which may or not may come about there is a committee under the present structure of the sub-district council which is authorized to oversee women's and other social affairs.\*

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\* The Act was passed and became effective on March 2, 1995. The general election for the members of the sub-district councils throughout the whole country was held on May 21, 1995. The resalt of the election in the Upper Northern Region is encouraging as 112 (14%) out of 289 (16.9%) female candidates won. One major factor contributing to their victory was on-going training programmes and seminars on local politics. These activities were jointly conducted by local women's organizations and women's Studies Programmes of regional universities.

## **PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION**

The right of Thai women to hold public offices has developed through different stages. In the old days, only men occupied all public positions. Later on, women were recruited into the civil service but were still discriminated against in various positions as the Civil Service Act of 1965 still allowed Ministries to prescribe specific qualifications of certain positions. Discrimination in public administration may be explicit as blatantly described in the regulations of the Ministries or can be through the internal recruitment process which disadvantages women. Prior to the promulgation of the 1974 constitution, women were discriminated against by the regulations of the Ministry of Justice and the Ministry of Interior which prevented them from competing in the national examination of the judiciary and the public prosecutorial services. Women were also barred from several other prestigious and influential positions e.g. district officer, land officer and diplomat. The sex equality clause of the 1974 constitution brought about great changes, particularly in the field of the judiciary and the public prosecutorial service. However, women were still discriminated against in positions which were traditionally perceived as male's roles. These positions are district officer, district accountant, provincial excise inspectors, and forestry official.

Due to an explicit policy of the administration of Prime Minister Chuan Leekpai which vowed to promote employment equality of women, Thailand moved to another step when all concerned ministries reported to the Council of Ministers on July 27, 1993 that they had removed all discriminatory regulations. Women, in principle, can hold all public positions which they had long been discriminated against.

### **3.5 RELIGIOUS RIGHTS OF WOMEN**

Thailand is a secular state. Freedom of religion has long been recognized. However, the majority of the people are Buddhist. According to the constitution, the King, as the symbol of the nation and the protector of all religions, must be a Buddhist. The rest of the population is Christian or Muslim. Thailand has a long tradition of recognizing the Muslim religious law related to family and inheritance. This law is applied to the Muslim populations residing in four Southern provinces namely Satoon, Pattani, Yala and Naratiwat. Muslims in these provinces are exempted from the jurisdiction of the national Family and Inheritance Laws prescribed in the Civil and Commercial Code of Thailand.

Buddhist women in Thailand still encounter discrimination in religious practices, despite the original teaching of the Lord Buddha that sex is not a barrier to enlightenment. The Lord Buddha further stated that the strength and longevity of Buddhism rely on the joint-efforts of the Bhikku (male monks), Bhikunee (female monks), Ubasok (male disciples) and Ubasika (female disciples). According to traditional practices and Buddhist Temple's regulations only males can be ordained as novices or monks. In order to promote Buddhism, men in the civil services and public enterprises are entitled to an ordination leave which may last up to three months during the Buddhist Lent. Women, on the other hand, do not enjoy similar benefits despite their growing interest in Buddhism. Women are not allowed to be ordained as novices or monks. Although there were approximately 17,000 Buddhist nuns (Mae-chee) in 1992, these nuns have a dubious status and an entirely different image from that of the Buddhist monks. While society accepts and pays respect to the monks without questioning the real motives of their ordination, Buddhist nuns are perceived differently. They not only cannot command respect from the people, but they are even suspected as to their motives. While the monkhood is praised and promoted as a demonstration of spiritual faith in Buddhism, regardless of hidden motives, the nunhood is almost conclusively viewed as women's escape from ordinary life failures. The nuns are not treated by the state as laywomen as the government officials concerned have refused to issue them identification cards. They cannot cast their votes in any election. On the other hand, they have not received the same treatments and benefits as the Buddhist monks, e.g. they have to pay for public transportation fares etc.. If women want to become nuns they have to save their own money to be used to support themselves during the nunhood. The monks, on the other hand, do not have to worry about these matters.

The greatest disadvantage which Buddhist nuns as well as other Buddhist women experience from religious institution is lack of educational services as mentioned earlier.

## **4. ANALYSIS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **4.1 ANALYSIS AND CONCLUSION**

As a party of the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), Thailand is obliged to conform to its principles. In essence, the CEDAW recognizes women's equal opportunities in developing their potentialities and improving the quality of women's lives. It also recognizes equal opportunity of women in the participation of social development both as agents and as beneficiaries of development. The CEDAW views that discriminations or unequal treatments of women in the past, derived from social values, customs or laws, have not only created injustices to women but also have prevented the society to fully benefit from them. Moreover, the role of women for maternity and child rearing, considered as the most significant function to the procreation of human race, must be protected. Men and society must support and share such responsibilities with women. All state parties of the CEDAW must adopt all possible measure including the legislative and legal measures to guarantee women's equality and to render necessary protections to women.

Socio-economic and political changes in the last six decades, after the technocrat's revolution in 1932, have transformed Thailand from a traditional agricultural society into commercialized and industrialized country. Rapid expansion of a modern economy including the service sector concentrated in big cities has also changed the family structure from that of an extended to a nucleus family. Continuing imbalanced development policies which have given high priority to the industrial and commercial sectors have neglected the agricultural sector and led to rural impoverishment. Mass migration from the countryside to look for jobs in Bangkok and other big cities has been adopted as a quick solution by the rural people. Women from poor families with low education form the largest numbers among these migrants. They are engaged in every sector which does not require high education attainment or complicated skills. Women are employed in the industrial, commercial and the service sectors as well as in the informal sector. With the rapid growth and expansion of the commercial sex service sector, triggered by the Indo-China War and followed by government policies of promoting tourism, thousands of women have been drawn into prostitution.

Despite women's growing social and economic contributions to the national development, the legal status of women and the legal protection which women enjoy are not equal to those of men up to the present. Although the state's policy on the promotion of women's status may be clearer today than in the past, however, laws and regulations which are significant instruments in bringing about equality have not been thoroughly revised to reach the goal set in the CEDAW. The legal status of women in Thailand is still inferior to men's in various aspects as shall be summarized.

While wives are sharing economic responsibilities for the households, in addition to the domestic burdens and many women are actually the heads of the households, the laws related to family relationship are still based on stereotypes which view men as head and breadwinners. The laws still contain unequal provisions which treat women as husbands' properties as well as applying double sexual standard of fidelity. Some provisions place women in a more inferior status and have create unnecessary burdens on women. There are provisions which obviously promote polygamous behavior of the husbands which is one of the root causes of broken home families and lead to various social problems including prostitution.

An effective equality clause has just recently been included in the present constitution. As a result, discriminations against women in all aspects, including education and employment, prevail. Despite the fact that the

compulsory education law has been in effect since 1935 the women's illiteracy rate is twice as high as that of men. Men have not only benefited from the state's compulsory education but they have also enjoyed an exclusive access to education provided by the Buddhist temples. Lack of education or low education attainment make women's lives in modern literated society difficult. Access to education of men through both channels of state compulsory education and through the Buddhist temples have greatly assisted men in their social mobility. As the Buddhist temple is an exclusive male community, social services in terms of lodging, education and training are available for male laypersons only. Women do not enjoy similar privileges. Furthermore, women have fewer opportunities for religious practice. They have no right to be ordained as Buddhist women monks (Bhikuni). They may become nuns (Maechee), however, nuns are not equally respected as monks. Women in the government service and state enterprises are not given an equal right to the religious practice of leave of absence as men, despite growing interests. Unequal opportunity to Buddhist religious practice prevents women from improving their spiritual development as well as jeopardizing their faith in sustaining the Buddhist principles. As a consequence, the Buddhist temples have been dominated by the male outlook which is insensitive to women's issues and isolated from social realities. Without the recognition by the state and Buddhist temples of women's status as the Buddhist monks as well as other forms of religious practices, the role of women in Buddhism will not be accepted by the public.

In addition to lesser access to compulsory education, discrimination against women in higher education and training provided by the state still exists. women's disadvantage in education have led to lesser employment opportunities. Illiterate women or women with low education attainment must enter the labour market at a young age as unskilled workers or sex workers. They lack necessary information and knowledge which lead to lack of bargaining power with their employers. Lack of education is one of the main obstacles for women's advancement and make women vulnerable to all forms of exploitation. Such situation has led to serious social problems including child labour, child prostitution and the spread of HIV infection. Ironically, the state is using tremendous resources in coping with these problems.

Women with educational attainment equal to that of men are still facing employment discrimination due to the fact that a legislation guaranteeing equal employment opportunity does not exist. Discrimination against women in the civil service has been relaxed due to the policy of the Chuan Leekpai's administration. Nevertheless, such policy has not even been extended to employment in the state enterprises. Being only a policy, without the support from a specific law, equal employment opportunity for women in every sector is still uncertain.

In addition to inequality before the law, women still suffer from other legal issues. The legal provisions related to abortion are outdated and incompatible with rapid social changes. Induced abortion is still considered a crime. Abortions are allowed only incases where there is a need to protect the physical health of the mother and in cases where the mothers are victims of sexual crimes. These restrictions have led to illegal abortions by housewives, teenagers and the women engaged in commercial sex services. Making use of a legal loophole which does not punish "attempted abortion", many incompleted abortions cases are carried out by back-street abortionists and sent to state hospitals to be cared for at higher costs and greater risks for the women's lives. In addition to the legal problems, women, especially teenagers, are faced with a serious social stigma in attempting abortion while the fathers of the aborted fetus are never questioned. These outdated legal provisions have also caused medical doctors' personal risks when performing abortions for women suffering from certain kinds of diseases i.e. German measles, Thalassaemia or HIV infection.

Another group of outdated and unenforcable laws are those relating to sexual exploitation of women. Rape in marriage is still acceptable despite the advancing role of women and their social and economic contribution to the national development. Although there are numbers of laws and regulations relating to the prevention and the suppression of prostitution, women and children of both sexes continue to be exploited. Many of these laws and regulations are outdated and are being revised at a slow pace which cannot keep up with the rapid growth of the sex industry. This industry which has been supported by powerful and influential groups of people is destructive to the family institution, public health and morals. In addition, the state is now spending immense resources to battle the rapid increase of HIV infection.

Socio-economic transformation has, to a high extent, destroyed the traditional ties of the Thai society. Oppression by military regimes for several decades had widen the gap between the rich and the poor. Despite rapid economic changes from the agricultural to the modern sectors, the right to unionize has been suspended for almost 20 years. The military leaders have used the Communist Suppression Act to eradicate their political oppositions and they have led Thailand into the Indochina War. The political climate and the selfishness of economic leaders have prevented Thailand from adopting modern social security laws. The military leaders and some selfish and short-sighted ruling elites have usually associated socially oriented laws and policies to the Communist ideology. As a consequence, the only social security scheme provided after the 1932 revolution has been the workmen's compensation benefit which is part of the Labour Protection Law, effective since 1962. The law requires any employer who hires twenty employees onwards to contribute to the Workmen's Compensation Fund on an annual basis. The Funds are used to compensate for accidents, sicknesses and deaths related to the work of the employees. In order to tone down strong resistance of the employers, the law was initially applied in Bangkok and in a few other industrial cluster provinces and has gradually and recently been expanded to cover the whole Kingdom. Actually, the first Social Security Act was passed in 1954 but was never implemented for 36 years until another Social Security Act was passed in 1990. Social welfare, on the other hand, has always been dealt with by a piecemeal charity approach. Such approach cannot cope with growing social problems faced by the people amidst rapid socio-economic changes under repressive political climate. These changes have led to numbers of social problems including poverty, prostitution in general and child prostitution in particular.

Recent statistics show that women live longer than men and that the number of single women and women heads of households is also increasing. Women and their dependents are facing various social problems and are in a great need of social services and assistance from the state. However, laws and regulations related to social security are limited and not responsive to women's needs. Although the right to maternity leave with pay has been increased from 30 days to 90 days, the Social Security Act has just recently been revised to extend such right. The fact that more women are unemployed or underemployed has led to another question about the extent to which women will benefit from the Social Security Act. Despite a clear social policy statement, the Chuan Leekpai's administration had been surprisingly slow in processing the Social Welfare Bill and did not pass it.

Despite women's contribution to the social and economic development, women's participation in policy planning and decision making is very low and the whole area is dominated by men. As a consequence, women have very little say in laws and state policies which have direct effects on their lives as well as the future of the society. So policy planning and decision making at every level are dominated by men's concepts and attitudes. Women lack ways and means to reflect their needs and aspirations. Affirmative actions to speed up women's role in these aspects do not exist. A recommendation on applying affirmative actions are criticized and attacked as being against the principle of equality for which the women's movement have been fighting. Low participation in this area is one main obstacle for women to accomplish equality and total development.

The struggle for women's emancipation and equality in Thailand has been an on-going process and it was by no means a modern phenomenon influenced by Western feminism. It was triggered by the incidents of two indigenous Thai women, despite popular beliefs and accusations that well-educated middle class women imported feminism from the West. In the first incident, Amdaeng\* Muan made a complaint to King Rama IV (1851 - 1868) that she was forced to marry a man whom she did not love. In the second incident, Amdaeng Jan submitted a complaint to the same King that her husband had made her a debt-bondage without her consent. Rama IV ruled in 1865 that a woman commoner who had reached a legal age of 20 had a freedom to choose her own spouse and the consent of a wife was required if she became a debtbondage. In addition to these two incidents which, in effect, recognized the right to women's body and to women's self-determination, Rama IV himself set another example. He granted

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\* An ancient women's title commonly used by both single and married women.

permission to all of his minor wives who did not have any child with him to leave the royal court and to remarry. Apart from individuals' struggles and the royal initiatives, women started to organize during the reign of King Rama V (1868 - 1910) and since then the Thai women's movement has been engaged in the struggle to bring about women's emancipation and equality. Therefore, the role of individual women as well as women's organizations in shaping the laws and state policies cannot be neglected. On the contrary, they should be viewed as an important mechanism of bringing about changes.

## **4.2 RECOMMENDATIONS**

In order to bring about women's equality in the law and equal protection of women under the law, discriminatory laws and regulations must be revised. Nevertheless, law revision is not an easy task, particularly if the attitudes of the decision makers and policy planners are still against equality among sexes. Therefore a campaign to bring about legal equality of women must be carried out as a continuing process with a holistic approach. It must take into consideration all parties involved and adopt strategic measures. Policy recommendations and measures proposed which focus on laws and state's policies on women are presented below.

### **4.2.1 POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS**

(1) The state shall respect human dignity and human worth of every individual woman. The state shall provide equal guarantee and equal protection of the basic human rights of women.

(2) The state must realize that women from half of the population and women have equally contributed to national economic and social development. Women are a significant party in conserving the human race and the national heritage.

(3) The special roles of women as mothers propagating lives, as wives sacrificing personal happiness and self-advancement and as a free human being of equal worth and dignity shall be recognized by the state. Any actions, either by the state or other organizations which degrade women's dignity and reduces it to a mere sex object shall be condemned. Any actions which obstruct women from enjoying special protections due to marital or maternal status shall be prevented and suppressed by the state.

(4) As a respect to the human dignity of women, the state shall treat women fairly. The state shall not use sex or marital status as criteria to discriminate against women. The state has a duty to protect and to prevent women from discrimination by others.

(5) The state shall promote equality before the law and shall oversee that this principle is put into practice at every level. The state shall provide equal opportunities for women in developing their potentialities as well as participating in development process at the community, national and international levels.

(6) The state shall act as a pioneer and shall set the example for promoting and practicing the principle of equality. Such actions will provide a role model for the people. The state shall take initiatives in setting measures against discrimination and initiating affirmative actions.

(7) The state shall take into consideration any negative impact on women deriving from social, economic, political and cultural policies and shall refrain from making such policies or shall prevent such negative outcomes.

(8) The state shall provide opportunities for women to express their views on policies and laws which shall effect them. The state shall promote women's equal participation in policy-planning and decision-making.

(9) It is the state's duty to protect the roles and status of mothers and wives so women can fully fulfill their significant role in sustaining the society. The state shall provide social services and social welfare benefits to assist women in these roles and status. It is also the state's duty to create social attitudes and understanding about these matters in order to prevent society from using such roles and status to obstruct women's advancement.

## **4.2.2 RECOMMENDATIONS ON MEASURES**

### **4.2.2.1 Legislative Measures**

1) The enactment of law to ensure women's equal rights. Although the 1991 Constitution was revised to include a sex equality clause, there is still a need to enact a special legislation to safeguard equal rights and equal opportunities of women. This legislation should provide a meaning of discrimination and spell out equal rights, opportunities and treatments of women which the law aims to protect. Furthermore, other major principles of the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women i.e. equal responsibilities of men with women in the context of family life and social services needed for combining family obligations with work responsibilities and participation in public life should be included in this legislation. In addition to substantive clauses this legislation should also provide a complaint procedure. This legislation will be used as a guideline for authorized officials in charge of making judgement on discriminatory complaints which are new issues in Thailand. Furthermore if the Constitution is to be revised or suspended in the future due to political instability, at least this legislation will serve as a legal protection for women.

2) A thorough review and revision of laws, regulations and state's policies concerning the status of women as well as a new legislation beneficial to women's development should be undertaken. The revision should take into consideration points and highlights put forward in earlier sections. In line with this recommendation one major legislative measure is to organize activities among governmental and non-governmental sectors as part of a campaign for law reform. Among these activities are:

- (1) meetings and workshops among parties involved to reflect on the principles, rationales and solutions for the proposed drafts,
- (2) the drafting process,
- (3) dissemination of principles and rationales of the draft and lobbying work,
- (4) legal literacy campaign on the drafts
- (5) conducting follow-up studies on impacts of the laws for the purpose of revisions and law reform for more justice and to respond to social changes.

### **4.2.2.2 Administrative Measures**

Administrative measures include effective law enforcement which can be successful by identifying common problems and searching for collective solutions, ways and means among all state's law enforcers. They also include an improvement in the understanding and the effectiveness of law enforcing related to women, issuances of administrative orders or guidelines to reach the main objective.

### **4.2.2.3 Measures Related to the Criminal and Civil Justices on the Women's Issues**

These measures include the following activities:

- (1) A consultation and a study on establishing of an eligible body to review discriminatory complaints submitted by women. Should such new body be part of the Ministry of Justice or should it be a semi-judicial unit? What should be the roles of the National Commission on Women Affairs in this Matter?
- (2) Special activities organized for judicial and semi-judicial officers with the objectives of enhancing understanding, knowledge and changing attitudes on legal matters effecting women. These activities shall also provide fora for exchanging viewpoints related to policies on making judgements about crimes committed by or on women and the social impacts of the judgements on related parties and on society as a whole. The judgement on the penalties of all parties, including women, involved in prostitution is one concrete example of such crime.

### **4.2.2.4 Measures on Dissemination of Laws and State's Policies on Women**

Laws and state's policies on women as well as their intentions should be widely disseminated for common perception and understanding of all parties and the general public. The target groups for the dissemination are:

- (1) Agents of all state machineries at the policy as well as implementation levels. Among them are decision-makers and policy planners, state officers and employees of all state enterprises.
- (2) Representatives and staff of non-governmental organizations should aim at future collaboration.
- (3) All women's groups.
- (4) General public.

Dissemination activities selected should be appropriate for each target group. Nevertheless participatory approach should be emphasized as it is one of the most effective means of sharing and learning. Common understanding and knowledge on laws and state policies on women will effectively assist the state in making their policies and action plans meet the objectives.

#### **4.2.2.5 Measures on Legal Literacy Programmes on Women and for Women**

The target groups for the legal literacy programmes should be women as well as the general public. Information and knowledge gained through the programmes will assist women in their daily lives as well as safeguard them from exploitation. As for the general public, legal literacy on matters related to women or gender relations shall promote their awareness of existing measures, respect for women's rights and freedom, and recognition of women's contribution to the society. Such realization will lead to actions of individuals or groups to protect women or at least refrain from the violations of women's rights. The promotion of legal literacy and the dissemination of laws and state policies should make use of every possible channel and every level of education. Among them are the following suggestions:

- (1) integrating the content on the relationship of laws, and state policies and women in major subjects as Constitutional Law, Administrative Law, Family Law, Law of Succession, Law and Society and in relevant courses in the law schools and high school curricula.
- (2) Promoting all public and private law schools to include specific subjects in their curricula. Among these specific subjects are Law and State's Policies on Women, Feminist Legal Theory, Family Law from the Feminist Perspective etc..
- (3) promoting research projects on laws and state policies related to women
- (4) raising the consciousness of students and faculties of Law and Political Science and other disciplines of Social Sciences and Humanities to realize the significant of equality among sexes and, if possible, get engaged in concrete activities leading to such goal.
- (5) organizing activities for continuing education on laws and state policies for state officers and staff of the private sector.
- (6) promoting informal education on the same subjects.

#### **4.2.2.6 Measures Related to the Provision of Legal Aid and Other Social Services for Women**

The state should assist non-governmental organizations, educational institutions and professional associations in providing legal aid and other social services for needy women. The assistance should include funding which will enable these entities to work more effectively and continuously. The state should also review laws and regulations relating to the provision of such assistance in order to update them to keep up with the pace of social development.

#### **4.2.2.7 Measures Regarding Affirmative Action**

The state should resort to affirmative actions to increase participation of women in policy planning, decision making and law making. A concrete plan of action with specific objectives, the monitoring and an evaluation of the plan should be designed and implemented.

**4.2.2.8 Measures Related to Studies and Research**

Studies and research in this field are inadequate. Continuing studies and research on on-going interactions of women, laws and state policies as well as other related fields should be encouraged. The outcome will form a body of knowledge in this field which would be utilized in law reforms and policy formulations.

Details of these recommendations are demonstrated in the following Plan of Action.

**PLAN OF ACTIONS**

<b>Problems/Situations</b>	<b>Policy Recommendations</b>	<b>Rationale</b>	<b>Measures/Actions</b>	<b>Organizations in Charge</b>
<p>1. Situations and trend of policy on women's development</p> <p>1.1 Although the state's policies on improving and promoting women's status have gradually become clearer, a definite constitutional guarantee for women's equality has just recently been included in the Constitution. Discriminatory laws and regulations still exist. A comprehensive subordinate legislation conforming to the equality clause does not exist.</p> <p>1.2 Women have been lacking equal opportunities resulting in lagging behind men in every aspect.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Enacting a comprehensive subordinate legislation to elaborate equal rights, opportunities and treatments of women</li> <li>- Eliminating discriminatory laws and regulations</li> <li>- A special legislation to guarantee equal rights and equal opportunities of women should be enacted</li> <li>- Set a role model for the public to eradicate sexual bias and sexual exploitation by government officials, particularly in the fields of law, politics and public administration.</li> <li>- Affirmative actions to speed up women's equality and advancement should be implemented by the state. Such actions shall not be</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- To create a secured guarantee for women's equality which will not be subjected to political changes.</li> <li>- To bring about sex equality</li> <li>- To create another alternative guarantee for women's equality because a constitutional revision may not be feasible.</li> <li>- Affirmative actions will assist women to speed up their advancement and bring it close to the advancement of men.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- enacting a special legislation</li> <li>- revising discriminatory laws and regulations</li> <li>- enact a special legislation</li> <li>- create plans of actions to promote and develop women's equality in governmental and non-governmental units, starting first in the Office of the Prime</li> </ul>	<p>The National Commission on Women's Affairs (NCWA) in collaboration with all concerned parties</p> <p>NCWA and the Office of Judicial Council (OJC), political parties interested in Women's equality.</p> <p>NCWA, the Office of the Civil Service (OCS), employers' and employees' organizations of every level.</p>

Problems/Situations	Policy Recommendations	Rationale	Measures/Actions	Organizations in Charge
<p>1.3 An authorized body in charge of reviewing discriminatory complaints does not exist.</p> <p>1.4 Most political parties have not paid adequate interests to the women's issues.</p>	<p>viewed as discriminatory against men as men have been treated as the "privilege class" for a long period.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Explore the feasibility of setting up an authorized body in charge of reviewing discriminatory complaints.</li> <li>- Disseminate the women's and gender issues to political parties. Stimulate their in - depth and continuing interests on the issues.</li> <li>- See details in item 1</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Sex discrimination is a special problem which should be dealt with by a specialized body with special procedures. Existing bodies are inappropriate.</li> <li>- Political parties' interests on women and gender issues will lead to policy formulation and legislation which are more responsive to the needs of women.</li> </ul>	<p>Minister where the National Commission on Women's Affair sits.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- A comparative studies of foreign countries where such body exists with an aim to establish similar body in Thailand.</li> <li>- Disseminate problem affecting women, the work of NCWA, collaborate with political parties in organizing relevant activities.</li> <li>- Conduct studies and research on the roles of women political candidates, women members of parliament. The studies should include issues on their motivations in political involvement, status and roles, problems and needs.</li> </ul>	<p>NCWA, OCS, Ministry of Justice, OJC and the Standing Committees on Youth, Women and the Elderly Affairs of the Parliament.</p> <p>NCWA, political parties, educational institutes, concerned Ministries and other governmental units</p>
<p>2. Situations and trends related to legislation and Law Enforcement</p> <p>2.1 Lack of basic law which guarantees women's equality</p> <p>2.2 Legal provisions on family relationship, access to educa-</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Revising laws and regulations to meet women's equality and</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- To bring about women's equality and protection of</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- revise discriminatory and out-</li> </ul>	<p>NCWA, political parties, educational institutes and all concerned</p>

Problems/Situations	Policy Recommendations	Rationale	Measures/Actions	Organizations in Charge
<p>tion and employment are discriminatory. Abortion law is outdated, laws related to prevention and suppression of trafficking in women and children are scattered, confusing and complicated for law enforcement etc..</p> <p>2.3 Social security laws are inadequate, outdated.</p> <p>2.4 Lack of systematic understanding of government officials on laws related to women and the influence of traditional values have led to discriminatory law enforcement.</p> <p>3. Situations and Trends on Women and Surrounding Factors.</p> <p>3.1 Traditional values which views laws and politics as male's matters have disassociate women from this area. Women lack equal access to information and knowledge on laws and politics resulting in ignorance on how laws and</p>	<p>to protect the rights and liberties of women.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Enacting laws on social security of women, i.e. Social Welfare Act.</li> <li>- Promoting understanding and knowledge of government officials on women</li> <li>- Promoting understanding and knowledge of women on laws and politics.</li> </ul>	<p>women's rights and liberties.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- To make women's lives more-secure which will also affect the lives of women's dependents.</li> <li>- To improve perceptions and attitudes of government officials which will improve work efficiency and productivity and render more justice to women.</li> <li>- Women can utilize information and knowledge acquired in their daily life. Preventing the exploitation of women. Stimulating women's interest and active roles in political participation which may lead to women's</li> </ul>	<p>dated laws, regulations and orders, etc..</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- conduct research on impact of Social Security Act on different women groups.</li> <li>- Organize meetings, seminars workshops and training programmes</li> <li>- organize educational activities in various forms.</li> </ul>	<p>governmental agencies.</p> <p>NCWA, the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare, NGOs and educational institutions.</p> <p>NCWA and concerned governmental units i.e. OCS, the Police Department, the Supreme Public Prosecutorial Office (SPPO), Ministry of Justice and other governmental agencies</p> <p>NCWA, NGOs, educational institutes, the Parliament, Ministry of Justice, SPPO, the law Council of Thailand etc..</p>

Problems/Situations	Policy Recommendations	Rationale	Measures/Actions	Organizations in Charge
<p>politics are related to their lives. Due to this ignorance women may not see the need of their political participation. In addition, it may lead to being exploited or victimized</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Stimulating women's interest on the significance of the legislative process and the impacts of the laws on their lives. Searching for concrete ways and means to increase women's roles and participation in these fields.</li> </ul>	<p>role in decision-making. Such role will have impact on lives and the future of society.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Legislation and decision-making at every level of political and administrative structures have a significant impact on the lives of the people. They are directly related to distribution and management of resources. Women should play an equal role in order to bring about a more balanced social development policy.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- organize educational activities to broaden the perspective and enriching working experiences of women leaders. The objective is to increase women's participation in these areas.</li> <li>- encourage women to be candidates in every level of election.</li> <li>- adjusting political and administrative structure which is aimed at decentralization of power and resources to benefit local people and communities.</li> </ul>	<p>NCWA, people's organizations, NGOs, political parties and people's organizations</p>
<p>3.2 Women's participation in the law-making bodies at the local and national level is low due to limited numbers of women political candidates.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Increasing numbers of women senators and women appointees in policy making and planning of other units.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- To bring about a more balanced role of two sexes in decision-making and policy planning</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- conduct mass campaigns to stimulate the public interest in seeing the need for supporting more women candidates in every level.</li> <li>- applying a quota system</li> <li>- searching for ways and means to increase women law makers and law enforcers.</li> </ul>	<p>Office of the Prime Minister, NCWA and other authorized bodies.</p>
<p>3.3 The numbers of women senators and women appointees in policy-making and planning are small</p> <p>3.4 The numbers of women as law-enforcers at every level are small Most law enforcers are</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Promoting women's role in law enforcement.</li> <li>- Promoting and enhancing</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- In general, women should have better understanding about women's situations and</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- applying a quota system</li> <li>- searching for ways and means to increase women law makers and law enforcers.</li> </ul>	<p>NCWA, and law enforcement agencies i.e. the Police Department, SPPO, Ministry of</p>

Problems/Situations	Policy Recommendations	Rationale	Measures/Actions	Organizations in Charge
<p>male who lack interest in women's equality. Gender bias as well as sexual exploitation still prevail in the legal profession.</p>	<p>understanding and knowledge on women and gender issues among law enforcers.</p>	<p>problems. Such understanding can be useful to their work as law enforcers, particularly in gender related cases. Nevertheless, gender bias of women law enforcers should also be cautioned. Additionally, There is a need to disseminate and promote understanding on women and gender issues among male law enforcers which still are the majority.</p>	<p>- Organizing educational activities to male law enforcers</p>	<p>Justice, NGOs i.e. women's organizations, the Law Council of Thailand</p>
<p>3.5 Women legislatures and law-enforcers still lack opportunity in participating in educational activities which enhance understanding on the women's issues.</p>	<p>- Promoting and enhancing women law enforcers on the women's issues.</p>	<p>- To expand women's perception and to improve women's potentialities which will lead to acceptance and recognition of women's role. Such recognition will encourage women who are still a small minority to be more committed to their work.</p>	<p>- organize educational activities for female law enforcers. - Conducting research on needs and problems and inspirations of female law enforcers</p>	<p>NCWA and concerned GOs and NGOs agencies</p>
<p>3.6 It is still unclear as to the level of consciousness on women's equality among a large number of women students in the fields of Law and Political Science. This issue is related to the con-</p>	<p>- Stimulating interest of students and faculties in Law and Political Science and related fields on women's rights and equality. Revising teaching courses to respond to this</p>	<p>- These groups of people should be more receptive to the principles of rights and equality since these are fundamental principles of the disciplines. However, they</p>	<p>- Promote teaching and learning on women's rights and equality in formal and non - formal education. - Integration of women and gender issues in existing courses of</p>	<p>NCWA should encourage and co-organize activities with GOs and NGOs educational agencies.</p>

Problems/Situations	Policy Recommendations	Rationale	Measures/Actions	Organizations in Charge
<p>sciousness of the faculties and the content of the courses.</p>	<p>issue.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Conducting studies and surveys to find out about the situations and to find ways and means to stimulate interest.</li> </ul>	<p>may have not paid interests to women's rights and sex equality. Interest in these issues of the groups will broaden the people's base which will eventually can be a driving force to bring about equality.</p>	<p>Social Science and Humanities, particularly in the fields of Legal and Political Sciences.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Initiate specific courses related to Women, Law and State Policies and other relevant courses.</li> <li>- Conduct surveys and research on the level of consciousness on equality of students and faculties.</li> <li>- Conduct research on related topics in order to build up the body of knowledge in these fields in the socio-economic context of Thailand.</li> </ul>	
<p>3.7 There may be numbers of women interested in becoming law-makers and law-enforcers but there are still a lack of guidance and support.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Promoting opportunities to develop intellectual potentialities of women in these groups.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Law and Political Science are fields of study which will stimulate women's role in administrative and legislative works. These are two significant fields which vitally influence women's role and status as well as making decisions on distribution of national resources. Despite their significance, women's participation in these fields are surprisingly low. This may be one of the reason</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Provision of orientation to the study and work in legal education/profession/legislation for interested women.</li> </ul>	<p>NCWA and Women's studies Committees of existing Universities</p>

Problems/Situations	Policy Recommendations	Rationale	Measures/Actions	Organizations in Charge
<p>3.8 Legal literacy programmes and legal aid service organized by governmental and non-governmental sectors are inadequate and have not been carried out on a continuing basis.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Promoting legal literacy and legal aid service programmes on women and for women.</li> </ul>	<p>why women population have not captured the state's interest and have not been given due recognition by the society.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Information and knowledge about law will enhance women's intellectual development which will improve the quality of the population. It will also secure women from being exploited.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- promote legal literacy programmes on women and for women by co-ordinating efforts of women's organizations and educational institutes.</li> <li>- promoting and supporting legal aid service for women.</li> <li>- encouraging preventive and curative measures on legal problems affecting women.</li> </ul>	<p>NCWA, non-governmental development organizations, women's organizations and educational institutions.</p>
<p>4. Situation and Trend on Women's Rights Organizations.</p> <p>4.1 The number of this type of organizations are still limited and mostly concentrated in big cities.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Promoting and supporting formation of groups and organizing activities aimed at bringing about women's rights and equality. Such groups and activities should spread out in different localities throughout the kingdom.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- These organizations will take active roles in providing access to educational activities as well as social services to women in a broader basis. These organizations, up to a certain extent, can respond to the growing needs of women. They may be able to prevent future social problems.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- conduct follow-up and evaluation studies on women's organizations and groups which have been formed. The purpose of the studies is to find out about their status and activities. Educational activities on laws and states policies on women should be organized for these organizations so they can disseminate this information to a</li> </ul>	<p>NCWA and GOs and NGOs working with local women's groups.</p>

<b>Problems/Situations</b>	<b>Policy Recommendations</b>	<b>Rationale</b>	<b>Measures/Actions</b>	<b>Organizations in Charge</b>
<p>4.2 Most of these organizations are voluntary. They have not been supported by the government and still lack material and human resources.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Providing and facilitating working resources for these organizations. Collaborating work efforts and exchanging views and working experiences among these organizations and between the government sector.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- These organizations play vital role in disseminating information and knowledge on laws, politics and administration. They also provide social services for women. So the government should provide support to their activities.</li> </ul>	<p>wider public. Training of trainers programmes on "Women and the Law and State Policies" should be conducted.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- support women and others interested in women's rights and equality to form groups or organizations.</li> <li>- campaign for the enactment of the Social Welfare Act.</li> </ul>	<p>NCWA and the National Social Welfare Committee, The Inter-governmental and Non-governmental Social committee, The Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare</p>

## APPENDIX

### RESERVATIONS OF THE ROYAL THAI GOVERNMENT

#### **DECLARATION :**

“The Royal Thai Government wishes to express its understanding that the purposes of the Convention are to eliminate discrimination against women and to accord to every person, men and women alike, equality before the law, and are in accordance with the principles prescribed by the Constitution of the Kingdom of Thailand.”

#### **RESERVATIONS :**

“1. In all matters which concern national security, maintenance of public order and service or employment in the military or paramilitary forces, the Royal Thai Government reserves its right to apply the provisions of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, in particular articles 7 and 10, only within the limits established by national laws, regulations and practices.

2. With regard to article 9, paragraph 2 and article 11, paragraph 1 (b) as far as night work of women and special protection of working women are concerned, the Royal Thai Government considers that the application of the said provisions shall be subject to the limits and criteria established by national laws, regulations and practices.

3. The Royal Thai Government does not consider itself bound by the provisions of article 15, paragraph 3, article 16 and article 29, paragraph 1, of the Convention.”

Note : Later, the Royal Thai Government withdrew reservations on Article 9, paragraph 2, Article 11, paragraph 1 (b) and Article 15, paragraph 3.

CONVENTION  
ON THE ELIMINATION OF  
ALL FORMS OF  
DISCRIMINATION AGAINST WOMEN

“...the full and complete development of a country, the welfare of the world and the cause of peace require the maximum participation of women on equal terms with men in all fields.”

## INTRODUCTION

A major step towards the attainment of the goal of equal rights for women was taken on 18 December 1979, when the General Assembly adopted the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women. The 30-article Convention sets out in legally binding form internationally accepted principles and measures to achieve equal rights for women everywhere. Its adoption climaxed consultations over a five-year period by various working groups, the Commission on the Status of Women and the General Assembly.

The comprehensive Convention reflects the depth of the exclusion and restriction practised against women solely on the basis of their sex, by calling for equal rights for women, regardless of their marital status, in all fields—political, economic, social, cultural and civil. It calls for national legislation to ban discrimination; recommends temporary special measures to speed equality in fact between men and women, and action to modify social and cultural patterns that perpetuate discrimination.

Other measures provide for equal right for women in political and public life; equal access to education and the same choice of curricula; non-discrimination in employment and pay; and guarantees of job security in the event of marriage and maternity. The Convention underlines the equal responsibilities of men with women in the context of family life. It also stresses the social services needed—especially child-care facilities—for combining family obligations with work responsibilities and participation in public life.

Additional articles of the Convention call for non-discriminatory health services to women, including services related to family planning; and a legal capacity identical to that of men, with States parties agreeing that all contracts and other private instruments that restrict the legal capacity of women “shall be deemed null and void”. Special attention is given to the problems of rural women.

The Convention sets up machinery for the international supervision of the obligations accepted by States. A committee of experts, to be elected by States parties and serving in a personal capacity, will consider the progress made.

Opened for signature on 1 March 1980, the Convention will enter into force after 20 States have consented to be bound by its provisions, either through ratification or accession.

The full text of the Convention is set out in the pages that follow.

CONVENTION ON THE ELIMINATION  
OF ALL FORMS OF  
DISCRIMINATION AGAINST WOMEN

**THE STATES PARTIES TO THE PRESENT CONVENTION,**

**Noting** that the Charter of the United Nations reaffirms faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person and in the equal rights of men and women,

**Noting** that the Universal Declaration of Human Rights affirms the principle of the inadmissibility of discrimination and proclaims that all human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights and that everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth therein, without distinction of any kind, including distinction based on sex,

**Noting** that the States Parties to the International Covenant on Human Rights have the obligation to ensure the equal right of men and women to enjoy all economic, social, cultural, civil and political rights,

**Considering** the international conventions concluded under the auspices of the United Nations and the specialized agencies promoting equality of rights of men and women,

**Noting also** the resolutions, declarations and recommendations adopted by the United Nations and the specialized agencies promoting equality of rights of men and women,

**Concerned**, however, that despite these various instruments extensive discrimination against women continues to exist,

**Recalling** that discrimination against women violates the principles of equality of rights and respect for human dignity, is an obstacle to the participation of women, on equal terms with men, in the political, social, economic and cultural life of their countries, hampers the growth of the prosperity of society and the family and makes more difficult the full development of the potentialities of women in the service of their countries and of humanity.

**Concerned** that in situations of poverty women have the least access to food, health, education, training and opportunities for employment and other needs,

**Convinced** that the establishment of the new international economic order based on equity and justice will contribute significantly towards the promotion of equality between men and women,

**Emphasizing** that the eradication of **apartheid**, of all forms of racism, racial discrimination, colonialism, neo-colonialism, aggression, foreign occupation and domination and interference in the internal affairs of States is essential to the full enjoyment of the rights of men and women,

**Affirming** that the strengthening of international peace and security, relaxation of international tension, mutual co-operation among all States irrespective of their social and economic systems, general and complete disarmament, and in particular nuclear disarmament under strict and effective international control, the affirmation of the principles of justice, equality and mutual benefit in relations among countries and the realization of the right of peoples under alien and colonial domination and foreign occupation to self-determination and independence, as well as respect for national sovereignty and territorial integrity, will promote social progress and development and as a consequence will contribute to the attainment of full equality between men and women,

**Convinced** that the full and complete development of a country, the welfare of the world and the cause of peace require the maximum participation of women on equal terms with men in all fields,

**Bearing in mind** the great contribution of women to the welfare of the family and to the development of society, so far not fully recognized, the social significance of maternity and the role of both parents in the family and in the upbringing of children, and aware that the role of women in procreation should not be a basis for discrimination but that the upbringing of children requires a sharing of responsibility between men and women and society as a whole,

**Aware** that a change in the traditional role of men as well as the role of women in society and in the family is needed to achieve full equality between men and women,

**Determined** to implement the principles set forth in the Declaration on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women and, for that purpose, to adopt the measures required for the elimination of such discrimination in all its forms and manifestations,

**Have agreed** on the following:

## PART I

### ARTICLE 1

For the purposes of the present Convention, the term “discrimination against women” shall mean any distinction, exclusion or restriction made on the basis of sex which has the effect or purpose of impairing or nullifying the recognition, enjoyment or exercise by women, irrespective of their marital status, on a basis of equality of men and women, of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, civil or any other field.

### ARTICLE 2

States Parties condemn discrimination against women in all its forms, agree to pursue by all appropriate means and without delay a policy of eliminating discrimination against women and, to this end, undertake:

(a) To embody the principle of the equality of men and women in their national constitutions or other appropriate legislation if not yet incorporated therein and to ensure, through law and other appropriate means, the practical realization of this principle;

(b) To adopt appropriate legislative and other measures, including sanctions where appropriate, prohibiting all discrimination against women;

(c) To establish legal protection of the rights of women on an equal basis with men and to ensure through competent national tribunals and other public institutions the effective protection of women against any act of discrimination;

(d) To refrain from engaging in any act or practice of discrimination against women and to ensure that public authorities and institutions shall act in conformity with this obligation;

(e) To take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women by any person, organization or enterprise;

(f) To take all appropriate measures, including legislation, to modify or abolish existing laws, regulations, customs and practices which constitute discrimination against women;

(g) To repeal all national penal provisions which constitute discrimination against women.

### ARTICLE 3

States Parties shall take in all fields, in particular in the political, social, economic and cultural fields, all appropriate measures, including legislation, to ensure the full development and advancement of women, for the purpose of guaranteeing them the exercise and enjoyment of human rights and fundamental freedoms on a basis of equality with men.

### ARTICLE 4

1. Adoption by States Parties of temporary special measures aimed at accelerating **de facto** equality between men and women shall not be considered discrimination as defined in the present Convention, but shall in no way entail as a consequence the maintenance of unequal or separate standards; these measures shall be discontinued when the objectives of equality of opportunity and treatment have been achieved.

2. Adoption by States Parties of special measures, including those measures contained in the present Convention, aimed at protecting maternity shall not be considered discriminatory.

### **ARTICLE 5**

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures:

(a) To modify the social and cultural patterns of conduct of men and women, with a view to achieving the elimination of prejudices and customary and all other practices which are based on the idea of the inferiority or the superiority of either of the sexes or on stereotyped roles for men and women:

(b) To ensure that family education includes a proper understanding of maternity as a social function and the recognition of the common responsibility of men and women in the upbringing and development of their children, it being understood that the interest of the children is the primordial consideration in all cases.

### **ARTICLE 6**

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures, including legislation, to suppress all forms of traffic in women and exploitation of prostitution of women.

## **PART II**

### **ARTICLE 7**

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in the political and public life of the country and, in particular, shall ensure to women, on equal terms with men, the right:

(a) To vote in all elections and public referenda and to be eligible for election to all publicly elected bodies;

(b) To participate in the formulation of government policy and the implementation thereof and to hold public office and perform all public functions at all levels of government;

(c) To participate in non-governmental organizations and associations concerned with the public and political life of the country.

### **ARTICLE 8**

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to ensure to women, on equal terms with men and without any discrimination, the opportunity to represent their Governments at the international level and to participate in the work of international organizations.

### **ARTICLE 9**

1. States Parties shall grant women equal rights with men to acquire, change or retain their nationality. They shall ensure in particular that neither marriage to an alien nor change of nationality by the husband during

marriage shall automatically change the nationality of the wife, render her stateless or force upon her the nationality of the husband.

2. States Parties shall grant women equal rights with men with respect to the nationality of their children.

### PART III

#### ARTICLE 10

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in order to ensure to them equal rights with men in the field of education and in particular to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women:

(a) The same conditions for career and vocational guidance, for access to studies and for the achievement of diplomas in educational establishments of all categories in rural as well as in urban areas; this equality shall be ensured in pre-school, general, technical, professional and higher technical education, as well as in all types of vocational training;

(b) Access to the same curricula, the same examinations, teaching staff with qualifications of the same standard and school premises and equipment of the same quality;

(c) The elimination of any stereotyped concept of the roles of men and women at all levels and in all forms of education by encouraging coeducation and other types of education which will help to achieve this aim and, in particular, by the revision of textbooks and school programmes and the adaptation of teaching methods;

(d) The same opportunities to benefit from scholarships and other study grants;

(e) The same opportunities for access to programmes of continuing education, including adult and functional literacy programmes, particularly those aimed at reducing, at the earliest possible time, any gap in education existing between men and women;

(f) The reduction of female student drop-out rates and the organization of programmes for girls and women who have left school prematurely;

(g) The same opportunities to participate actively in sports and physical education;

(h) Access to specific educational information to help to ensure the health and well-being of families, including information and advice on family planning.

#### ARTICLE 11

1. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in the field of employment in order to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women, the same rights, in particular :

(a) The right to work as an inalienable right of all human beings;

(b) The right to the same employment opportunities, including the application of the same criteria for selection in matters of employment;

(c) The right to free choice of profession and employment, the right to promotion, job security and all benefits and conditions of service and the right to receive vocational training and retraining, including apprenticeships, advanced vocational training and recurrent training;

(d) The right to equal remuneration, including benefits, and to equal treatment in respect of work of equal value, as well as equality of treatment in the evaluation of the quality of work;

(e) The right to social security, particularly in cases of retirement, unemployment, sickness, invalidity and old age and other incapacity to work, as well as the right to paid leave;

(f) The right to protection of health and to safety in working conditions, including the safeguarding of the function of reproduction.

2. In order to prevent discrimination against women on the grounds of marriage or maternity and to ensure their effective right to work, States Parties shall take appropriate measures:

(a) To prohibit, subject to the imposition of sanctions, dismissal on the grounds of pregnancy or of maternity leave and discrimination in dismissals on the basis of marital status;

(b) To introduce maternity leave with pay or with comparable social benefits without loss of former employment, seniority or social allowances;

(c) To encourage the provision of the necessary supporting social services to enable parents to combine family obligations with work responsibilities and participation in public life, in particular through promoting the establishment and development of a network of child-care facilities;

(d) To provide special protection to women during pregnancy in types of work proved to be harmful to them.

3. Protective legislation relating to matters covered in this article shall be reviewed periodically in the light of scientific and technological knowledge and shall be revised, repealed or extended as necessary.

## ARTICLE 12

1. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in the field of health care in order to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women, access to health care services, including those related to family planning.

2. Notwithstanding the provisions of paragraph 1 of this article, States Parties shall ensure to women appropriate services in connexion with pregnancy, confinement and the post-natal period, granting free services where necessary, as well as adequate nutrition during pregnancy and lactation.

## ARTICLE 13

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in other areas of economic and social life in order to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women, the same rights, in particular:

(a) The right to family benefits;

(b) The right to bank loans, mortgages and other forms of financial credit;

(c) The right to participate in recreational activities, sports and all aspects of cultural life.

## ARTICLE 14

1. States Parties shall take into account the particular problems faced by rural women and the significant roles which rural women play in the economic survival of their families, including their work in the non-monetized sectors of the economy, and shall take all appropriate measures to ensure the application of the provisions of the present Convention to women in rural areas.

2. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in rural areas in order to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women, that they participate in and benefit from rural development and, in particular, shall ensure to such women the right :

- (a) To participate in the elaboration and implementation of development planning at all levels;
- (b) To have access to adequate health care facilities, including information, counselling and services in family planning;
- (c) To benefit directly from social security programmes;
- (d) To obtain all types of training and education, formal and non-formal, including that relating to functional literacy, as well as, **inter alia**, the benefit of all community and extension services, in order to increase their technical proficiency;
- (e) To organize self-help groups and co-operatives in order to obtain equal access to economic opportunities through employment or self-employment;
- (f) To participate in all community activities;
- (g) To have access to agricultural credit and loans, marketing facilities, appropriate technology and equal treatment in land and agrarian reform as well as in land resettlement schemes ;
- (h) To enjoy adequate living conditions, particularly in relation to housing, sanitation, electricity and water supply, transport and communications.

## PART IV

### ARTICLE 15

1. States Parties shall accord to women equality with men before the law.
2. States Parties shall accord to women, in civil matters, a legal capacity identical to that of men and the same opportunities to exercise that capacity. In particular, they shall give women equal rights to conclude contracts and to administer property and shall treat them equally in all stages of procedure in courts and tribunals.
3. States Parties agree that all contracts and all other private instruments of any kind with a legal effect which is directed at restricting the legal capacity of women shall be deemed null and void.
4. States Parties shall accord to men and women the same rights with regard to the law relating to the movement of persons and the freedom to choose their residence and domicile.

### ARTICLE 16

1. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in all matters relating to marriage and family relations and in particular shall ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women:
  - (a) The same right to enter into marriage;
  - (b) The same right freely to choose a spouse and to enter into marriage only with their free and full consent;
  - (c) The same rights and responsibilities during marriage and at its dissolution;
  - (d) The same rights and responsibilities as parents, irrespective of their marital status, in matters relating to their children; in all cases the interests of the children shall be paramount;
  - (e) The same rights to decide freely and responsibly on the number and spacing of their children and to have access to the information, education and means to enable them to exercise these rights;

(f) The same rights and responsibilities with regard to guardianship, wardship, trusteeship and adoption of children, or similar institutions where these concepts exist in national legislation; in all cases the interests of the children shall be paramount;

(g) The same personal rights as husband and wife, including the right to choose a family name, a profession and an occupation;

(h) The same rights for both spouses in respect of the ownership, acquisition, management, administration, enjoyment and disposition of property, whether free of charge or for a valuable consideration.

2. The betrothal and the marriage of a child shall have no legal effect, and all necessary action, including legislation, shall be taken to specify a minimum age for marriage and to make the registration of marriages in an official registry compulsory.

## PART V

### ARTICLE 17

1. For the purpose of considering the progress made in the implementation of the present Convention, there shall be established a Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (hereinafter referred to as the Committee) consisting, at the time of entry into force of the Convention, of eighteen and, after ratification of or accession to the Convention by the thirty-fifth State Party, of twenty-three experts of high moral standing and competence in the field covered by the Convention. The experts shall be elected by States Parties from among their nationals and shall serve in their personal capacity, consideration being given to equitable geographical distribution and to the representation of the different forms of civilization as well as the principal legal systems.

2. The members of the Committee shall be elected by secret ballot from a list of persons nominated by States Parties. Each State Party may nominate one person from among its own nationals.

3. The initial election shall be held six months after the date of the entry into force of the present Convention. At least three months before the date of each election the Secretary-General of the United Nations shall address a letter to the States Parties inviting them to submit their nominations within two months. The Secretary - General shall prepare a list in alphabetical order of all persons thus nominated, indicating the States Parties which have nominated them, and shall submit it to the States Parties.

4. Elections of the members of the Committee shall be held at a meeting of States Parties convened by the Secretary-General at United Nations Headquarters. At that meeting, for which two thirds of the States Parties shall constitute a quorum, the persons elected to the Committee shall be those nominees who obtain the largest number of votes and an absolute majority of the votes of the representatives of States Parties present and voting.

5. The members of the Committee shall be elected for a term of four years. However, the terms of nine of the members elected at the first election shall expire at the end of two years; immediately after the first election the names of these nine members shall be chosen by lot by the Chairman of the Committee.

6. The election of the five additional members of the Committee shall be held in accordance with the provisions of paragraph 2, 3 and 4 of this article, following the thirty-fifth ratification or accession. The terms of two of the additional members elected on this occasion shall expire at the end of two years, the names of these two members having been chosen by lot by the Chairman of the Committee.

7. For the filling of casual vacancies, the State Party whose expert has ceased to function as a member of the Committee shall appoint another expert from among its nationals, subject to the approval of the Committee.

8. The members of the Committee shall, with the approval of the General Assembly, receive emoluments from United Nations resources on such terms and conditions as the Assembly may decide, having regard to the importance of the Committee's responsibilities.

9. The Secretary-General of the United Nations shall provide the necessary staff and facilities for the effective performance of the functions of the Committee under the present Convention.

### **ARTICLE 18**

1. States Parties undertake to submit to the Secretary-General of the United Nations, for consideration by the Committee, a report on the legislative, judicial, administrative or other measures which they have adopted to give effect to the provisions of the present Convention and on the progress made in this respect:

(a) Within one year after the entry into force for the State concerned; and

(b) Thereafter at least every four years and further whenever the Committee so requests.

2. Reports may indicate factors and difficulties affecting the degree of fulfilment of obligations under the present Convention.

### **ARTICLE 19**

1. The Committee shall adopt its own rules of procedure.

2. The Committee shall elect its officers for a term of two years.

### **ARTICLE 20**

1. The Committee shall normally meet for a period of not more than two weeks annually in order to consider the reports submitted in accordance with article 18 of the present Convention.

2. The meetings of the Committee shall normally be held at United Nations Headquarters or at any other convenient place as determined by the Committee.

### **ARTICLE 21**

1. The Committee shall, through the Economic and Social Council, report annually to the General Assembly of the United Nations on its activities and may make suggestions and general recommendations based on the examination of reports and information received from the States Parties. Such suggestions and general recommendations shall be included in the report of the Committee together with comments, if any, from States Parties.

2. The Secretary-General shall transmit the reports of the Committee to the Commission on the Status of Women for its information.

### **ARTICLE 22**

The specialized agencies shall be entitled to be represented at the consideration of the implementation of such provisions of the present Convention as fall within the scope of their activities. The Committee may invite the Specialized agencies to submit reports on the implementation of the Convention in areas falling within the scope of their activities.

## PART VI

### ARTICLE 23

Nothing in this Convention shall affect any provisions that are more conducive to the achievement of equality between men and women which may be contained:

- (a) In the legislation of a State Party; or
- (b) In any other international convention, treaty or agreement in force for that State.

### ARTICLE 24

States Parties undertake to adopt all necessary measures at the national level aimed at achieving the full realization of the rights recognized in the present Convention.

### ARTICLE 25

1. The present Convention shall be open for signature by all States.
2. The Secretary-General of the United Nations is designated as the depositary of the present Convention.
3. The present Convention is subject to ratification. Instruments of ratification shall be deposited with the Secretary-General of the United Nations.
4. The present Convention shall be open to accession by all States. Accession shall be effected by the deposit of an instrument of accession with the Secretary-General of the United Nations.

### ARTICLE 26

1. A request for the revision of the present Convention may be made at any time by any State Party by means of a notification in writing addressed to the Secretary-General of the United Nations.
2. The General Assembly of the United Nations shall decide upon the steps, if any, to be taken in respect of such a request.

### ARTICLE 27

1. The present Convention shall enter into force on the thirtieth day after the date of deposit with the Secretary-General of the United Nations of the twentieth instrument of ratification or accession.
2. For each State ratifying the present Convention or acceding to it after the deposit of the twentieth instrument of ratification or accession, the Convention shall enter into force on the thirtieth day after the date of the deposit of its own instrument of ratification or accession.

### ARTICLE 28

1. The Secretary-General of the United Nations shall receive and circulate to all States the text of reservations made by States at the time of ratification or accession.
2. A reservation incompatible with the object and purpose of the present Convention shall not be permitted.

3. Reservations may be withdrawn at any time by notification to this effect addressed to the Secretary-General of the United Nations, who shall then inform all States thereof. Such notification shall take effect on the date on which it is received.

#### **ARTICLE 29**

1. Any dispute between two or more States Parties Concerning the interpretation or application of the present Convention which is not settled by negotiation shall, at the request of one of them, be submitted to arbitration. If within six months from the date of the request for arbitration the parties are unable to agree on the organization of the arbitration, any one of those parties may refer the dispute to the International Court of Justice by request in conformity with the Statute of the Court.

2. Each State Party may at the time of signature or ratification of this Convention or accession thereto declare that it does not consider itself bound by paragraph 1 of this article. The other States Parties shall not be bound by that paragraph with respect to any State Party which has made such a reservation.

3. Any State Party which has made a reservation in accordance with paragraph 2 of this article may at any time withdraw that reservation by notification to the Secretary-General of the United Nations.

#### **ARTICLE 30**

The present Convention, the Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Russian and Spanish texts of which are equally authentic, shall be deposited with the Secretary-General of the United Nations.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF the undersigned, duly authorized, have signed the present Convention.

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## CHAPTER 13

# **ROLES OF GOVERNMENT AND NON-GOVERNMENT ORGANIZATIONS IN WOMEN'S DEVELOPMENT**

## CHAPTER 13

### ROLES OF GOVERNMENT AND NON-GOVERNMENT ORGANIZATIONS IN WOMEN'S DEVELOPMENT

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

Since 1975, with the International Women's Year and the Decade of Women (1976 - 1985) government and non-government organizations have become alert in promotion women's development activities. At the government level the Prime Minister appointed an administrative committee for the International Women's Year celebrations and assigned the Ministry of Education to run the activities.

In 1979, the Prime Minister, the Chairperson of the National Economic and Social Development Board (NESDB), erected the Sub-Committee on the Development of Women's Roles and Status. The functions of the Sub Committee are: women's development planning, women research extension, monitoring and promoting the coordination of government and non-government organizations in women's development.

The sub-committee focused on planning as the first priority by formulating the Women's Development Plan between 1982-1986. The Long-Term Women's Development Plan (1982-2001), as a guideline for the various agencies in women's development, has also been prepared by the sub-committee.

In 1983, the members of parliament proposed to the Government to erect the National Commission on Women's Affairs (NCWA) under the Office of the Secretary of the Prime Minister with the Community Development Department. The commission was chaired by the Deputy Prime Minister (Mr. Pichai Rattakul) with the Director-General (DG) of the Community Development Department (CDD) as member and secretary of the commission. The function of the commission was to be responsible for women's development in accordance with the Government's policy. This commission functioned until the end of the period of that Government.

In 1986, the Government appointed the new National Commission on Women's Affairs. This commission was still chaired by the Deputy Prime Minister (Mr. Pichai Rattakul) with the DG of the CDD as member and secretary. It also included 25 distinguished representatives from related GOs and NGOs as members. The commission tried to induce the government sectors to promulgate procedures to support women's development activities continuously and efficiently. Two sub-committees were appointed i.e., the sub-committee on improving structure and mechanism in women's development and the sub-committee on laws and regulations concerning women's development. These sub-committees were to promulgate the rule of the Office of the Prime Minister concerning national women's development. Following the dissolution of parliament on April 29, 1988, the mandate of the National Commission on Women's Affairs was terminated.

The Minister to the Office of the Prime Minister of the next government (Khunying Supatra Masdit) proposed to reinstate the former National Commission on Women's Affairs for promulgating the rule of the Office of the Prime Minister on National Promotion and Coordination of Women's Affairs. A seminar was thus organized on December 22, 1988. The seminar concluded that a permanent organization should be set up in the Office of the Permanent Secretary of the Office of the Prime Minister. The major role of the organization was to coordinate all related women's development agencies to work continuously and accordingly.

On January 10, 1989. The Cabinet approved the "Rule of the Office of the Prime Minister on National Promotion and Coordination of Women's Affairs" proposed by the Minister to the Office of the Prime Minister

(Khunying Supatra Masdit). The Cabinet also approved the Office of the Permanent Secretary of the Office of the Prime Minister to establish the permanent secretary's office of the NCWA by proposing the details of the structure of the administration, manpower and budget under the advice of the Civil Service Commission (CSC) and the Budget Bureau.

On March 8, 1989, General Chatichai Choonhavan Prime Minister, signed the Rule of the Office of the Prime Minister on National Promotion and Coordination of Women's Affairs, 1989, which was promulgated in Government gazette on March 8, 1989, The rule was amended three times. In 1991, it was dissolved and a new rule was signed by Prime Minister (Mr. Anand Panyarachun) on June 6, 1991.

Basically this rule is to control "The National Commission on Women's Affairs (NCWA) chaired by the Prime Minister or a Deputy Prime Minister appointed by the Prime Minister. The vice-chairperson is the Minister of the Office of the Prime Minister appointed by the Prime Minister. Other members include representatives from Gos and NGOs, individual experts and the Deputy Permanent Secretary of the Office of the Prime Minister as member and secretary. The secretariat office of the NCWA is the Office of the National Commission on Women's Affairs, which is one of divisions of the Office of the Permanent Secretary of the Office of the Prime Minister.

As the Government pays special attention to women's development by providing a mechanism for women's activities coordination and extension as mentioned above, various GOs, especially the Ministries concerning rural development such as the Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives, the Ministry of Commerce and the Ministry of Industry, have set up more programmes and projects for women's development. Although the programmes and projects of these agencies may be different in the details, they all focus on education, basic knowledge, basic income generating activities, roles and status of women, and other activities concerning the protection of the rights and welfare of women.

Although there have been government procedures such as long-term planning for women's development, the rule of the Office of the Prime Minister concerning women's affairs, and the establishment of the NCWA in order to be a mechanism for various agencies both GOs and NGOs accordingly, women's development activities of the GOs and NGOs still lack effective coordination and clear procedures for each agency.

## **2. CURRENT CONDITIONS PROBLEMS, CAUSES AND TRENDS OF THE ROLES OF GOs AND NGOs IN WOMEN'S DEVELOPMENT**

### **A. CURRENT CONDITIONS**

#### **ROLES OF GOVERNMENT ORGANIZATIONS (GOs)**

##### **1. GOs DEALING WITH WOMEN'S DEVELOPMENT**

GOs dealing with women's development can be classified as follows:<sup>1</sup>

##### **1.1 Agencies concerned with policy setting, planning plan intergration, and monitoring and evaluation:**

The Office of the National Commission on Women's Affairs (ONCWA) set up as a division in the Office of the Permanent Secretary of the Office of the Prime Minister, and the Social Project Division functioning under the National Economic and Social Development Board (NESDB) which considers the procedures for women's development and compounds the procedures in the National Economic and Social Development Plan.

The ministries concerned with rural development include such departments as the Agricultural Economic Bureau under the Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives, the Office of the Permanent Secretary of the

Ministry of Education, the Office of the Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of the Public Health, the Department of Business Economics under the Ministry of Commerce, the Department of Industrial Economics under the Ministry of Industry and the Policy and Planning Office of the Ministry of Interior. Furthermore, the Department of Technical and Economic Cooperation (DTEC) under the Office of the Prime Minister and the Department of International Organizations under the Ministry of Foreign Affairs also coordinate activities for women's development with other countries.

**1.2 Agencies concerned with operations in women's development projects:** the Agricultural Extension Department, the Cooperative Extension Department, the Community Development Department, the Public Welfare Department, the Department of Labour, the Office of Accelerated Rural Development, the Industrial Promotion Department, the Health Department and the National Housing Authority. These agencies participate in programmes and projects which directly affect target groups in training for income generating activities and women leadership, nutrition, mother and child care activities etc.

**1.3 Agencies concerned with study and research in women's development:** various educational institutes such as Social Research Institute, Population Study Institute of Chulalongkorn University, Women's Study Project under the Faculty of Social Science of Chiangmai University, Women and Youth Study Projects of Thammasat University and Behavioral Research Institute of the Srinakarindravirodh Prasarnmitr etc. Moreover, there are a number of technicians interested in women research and study both in educational institutions and government agencies.

## **2. ACTIVITIES AND PROCEDURES**

### **2.1 TYPES OF ACTIVITIES AND PROCEDURES OF EACH AGENCY**

**2.1.1 Activities Concerning Policy.** These include the GOs at the national level which take major roles in policy and programme setting, plans and programmes integration, monitoring and evaluation as follows:

**The National Commission on Women's Affairs (NCWA)** which is chaired by the Prime Minister with the Deputy Permanent Secretary of the Office of Prime Minister as secretary. The activities of the NCWA concerning the rule of the Office of the Prime Minister on the National Promotion and Coordination of Women's Affairs<sup>2</sup> include (1) proposing policy and master plan for the promotion of women's roles and status (2) considering the procedures of women's development in correlation with the approval of the Cabinet and the National Economic and Social Development Plan. (3) coordinating monitoring and evaluating policy, master plan and programme implementation (4) supporting the activities of GOs and NGOs (5) proposing to the government law improvement to help the promotion of women's roles and status. (6) reporting on the situation of women within the country to the government at least biennially (7) other activities assigned by the Cabinet.

The National Commission on Women's Affairs has set ten national committees as follows:

- (1) The National Committee on Health and Environment.
- (2) The National Committee on Education, Employment and Culture.
- (3) The National Committee on Social and Political Participation.
- (4) The National Committee on Laws and Regulations.
- (5) The National Committee on International Cooperation.
- (6) The National Committee on the Development of Women's Information System.
- (7) The National Committee for the Elimination of Involuntary Prostitution.
- (8) The National Committee on the Perspective Plan and Policies for Women's Development.
- (9) The National Committee on the Use of Gender-Based Analysis in Development.
- (10) The National Committee on the Family.

Activities conducted by the NCWA are as follows:

- (1) The NCWA proposed 7 laws and regulations improvement concerning women's roles and status such as legislation in prohibiting prostitutes, improvement of the village committee structure in order to include the committee concerning women's development etc.

(2) The NCWA has drafted the master plan for women's development (1992 - 2011) to be used as principles of long-term planning for the GOs and NGOs.

(3) The NCWA also deals with information gathering and public relations by establishing a Women Information Centre. The information gathering is also included in baseline survey at the village level.

(4) The NCWA has sent Thai delegates to participate in various meeting in other countries in order to share ideas and integrate these for the improvement of women's development.

(5) The NCWA has set up a working group to develop strategies for the solution of the commercial sex business problem including the acceleration of the enforcement of the law.

**The National Economic and Social Development Board (NESDB)** is another main agency dealing with women's development, especially the Social Project Division. The activities of this agency are; women's development planning in the National Economic and Social Development Plan, analysing programmes and projects concerning women's development of various agencies.

**The Department of Technical and Economic Cooperation (DTEC)** plays major roles in negotiating between agencies which need financial and technical supports.

**Department of International Organizations, Ministry of Foreign Affairs.** This department coordinates international organizations and GOs in women's development.

### 2.1.2 Operational Activities Directly Affecting Women

Based on data obtained from various government agencies, the activities of GOs directly affecting various target groups of women can be classified into 8 categories:

(1) Training and necessary information transfer to educate women in basic knowledge for better living.

(2) Training women in basic knowledge of specific income generating activities.

(3) Skill training in income generating activities for women.

(4) Health and sanitation extension for women.

(5) Education concerning rights and equality of women.

(6) Rights protection campaigning.

(7) Women leadership promotion.

(8) Political participation promotion for women.

Moreover, other activities are also provided by some agencies such as credit for women, women's welfare, women's quality of life promotion etc.

Activities implementation mentioned above, 73 per cent of all agencies giving information are dealing with skill training for women in income generating activities, health and sanitation promotion for women, and women leadership promotion.

Another 63.6 per cent of the agencies are dealing with training women in basic knowledge of specific income generating activities and educational training and necessary information transfer to train women in basic knowledge for good living in society. Forty six per cent of the agencies deal with political participation promotion for women. Thirty six per cent of the agencies deal with laws concerning rights and equality of women and right protection for women. Other activities such as labour protection, credit for women and women's welfare are run by 27 per cent of the agencies. (Table 13-1)

### 2.1.3 Research activities

These activities are mostly run by educational institutions such as the Women Study Project of the Social Research Institute, Chulalongkorn University, Population Study Institute, Chulalongkorn University and Women Study Project, Faculty of Social Science, Chiangmai University. Moreover, other operational agencies also deal

with research on women such as Community Development Department, Department of Labour, Department of Agricultural Extension etc. Most research are mainly focused on women employment, problems of women's occupation, women's participation in economic, social and political activities. The research aims at gathering information for the management level of related agencies to improve their programmes, projects and activities.

In conclusion, activities concerning women run by GOs can be classified into 3 types: (1) policy setting, planning, programme coordination, follow-up and evaluating (2) operational activities directly concerning target groups of deal mostly with women's occupational promotion and health and sanitation extension. (3) research and study on women.

## **2.2 PLANNING FOR WOMEN'S DEVELOPMENT**

### **2.2.1 Programmes and Projects for Women's Development**

According to the survey, 50.5 per cent of the agencies giving information have specific programmes and projects of target women's group. The other 50 per cent have no specific programmes and projects but they are expected to include women's development in their existing programmes. (Table 13-2)

### **2.2.2 Target Group Identification**

About 41.7 per cent of the agencies have clear cut target women's groups such as women in working age between 14-25 years (Department of Labour) women as cooperatives members wife (Department of Cooperative Extension). Landless female farmers (Community Development Department). Women of reproductive-age (Health Department) etc. The other 57.3 per cent of the agencies have no clear target women's groups but they expect to benefit women indirectly.

### **2.2.3 The Process of Policy, Planning and Project Setting**

Except for the agencies concerned with research, all agencies have similar processes of policy, planning and project setting: after an analysis of the current situation and problem a policy framework is developed. Such framework is submitted to the proper authority for approval and then is announced as the agency's policy. Concerned officials use the policy as guideline for master plans and for the annual women programme and project setting. However, some agencies do not set a master plan. They just the guideline for annual women programme and project setting. The survey shows the following concerning policy plan and project setting of GOs:

(1) Policy setting; 41.7 per cent of all the agencies, use the long term women's development plan (1982-2001) as principles for the agencies policy setting. (Table 13-3)

(2) Policy, programme and project concerning women are mostly initiated by officials such as technicians dealing with analysis and experts. The officials propose the policy framework to the Director for screening and improval before submitting it to the Director-General who takes decisions. This process is done by more than half or 67 per cent of the agencies. There are only two agencies setting up committees to lay out policies before submitting them to the decision makers. (Table 13-3)

(3) In terms of women's participation in the process of policy, programme and project setting, 58.3 per cent of the agencies provide mechanisms for women's opportunity to participate in proposing problems and projects for solutions. The other 41.7 per cent have not established such mechanisms.

(4) Agencies provide opportunities only for women's participations in giving information and ideas concerning problems. The degree of participation in setting procedures of selecting projects to solve their own problems is still very low. (Table 13-3)

## **2.3 FOLLOW-UP AND EVALUATION**

The follow-up system used by most agencies is to schedule reports mostly once in four months. Some agencies may schedule reports monthly and annually. In addition to the reports, many agencies send officials at

various levels to do follow-up both in inspecting and supervising. Some agencies set up meetings monthly or once every four months in order to get information about progress, problems and obstacles.

Evaluation is done in various ways. Some agencies do "before" evaluations, some do on-going evaluations, some do "after" evaluations and some do summative evaluations.

The agencies doing evaluations are those concerned with planning such as Technical and Planning Divisions or Research and Evaluation Divisions etc.

In conclusion, the follow-up and evaluation procedures are set up by each agency as an instrument to determine the progress of programme and project and to evaluate results in terms of objectives. However, agencies seldom evaluate whole women's activities for which they are responsible.

## **2.4 COORDINATING SYSTEM**

There are three factors which contribute to effective coordination within and between agencies: women's information system, clear-cut planning, channels of communication or media used in the organizations.

In the information system, the current information commonly used by GOs especially concerned with rural development is "Village Baseline Data (NRDC 2C)." The survey is done once every two years by the Tambon Advisory Team and the Thai quality of life data in "Basic Minimum Needs" or "BMN". The two sources of information are effective mechanisms for the coordination of women's development programmes and projects between agencies. However, the two sources of information cannot perfectly meet the needs various agencies in analysing other important factors such as roles, status and potentialities of women, including related problems. The agencies must find out information themselves which sometimes causes duplications and conflicts that affect problems identification, plan and project setting and also affects the coordination among agencies concerned.

In conclusion, the GOs still lack common systematic data to be used in problem identification, planning, programming and follow-up resulting in different considerations and also affecting coordination among agencies dealing with women.

In terms of programming for women, 58.3 per cent of the GOs have no direct women's development master plan for the internal sectors of the agencies to use guideline to identify annual women's development programmes and projects.

The internal sectors of GOs dealing with coordination of women's development mostly are the divisions concerning programme planning such as the Technical and Planning Divisions found in every GOs.

With regard to communication system, most GOs prefer to use printed matters as a first priority in channels of communication.

The second major types of channels of communication are meetings, press conferences, mass communication and telephones. (Table 13-5) These channels of communication have helped the system of coordination within and among agencies to function fairly well. (Table 13-4)

## **ROLES OF NON-GOVERNMENT ORGANIZATIONS (NGOs)**

### **1. NGOs DEALING WITH WOMEN'S ACTIVITIES**

There are many NGOs taking part in promoting roles, status and potentials of women. Moreover, there are women's organizations in rural areas which are organized in the form of village and Tambon women's development committees; there are more than 39,426 villages<sup>4</sup> and 3,000 Tambons. There are also many women's groups organized by various agencies.

However, the role analysis of NGOs will be defined only in the 46 agencies concerned with women promotion and development in the form of change agent or service for women. These agencies are:

1. The National Council of Women of Thailand under the Royal Patronage of Her Majesty the Queen.

2. The International Council of Women in Thailand.
3. The Red Cross Council of Thailand.
4. The National Council on Social Welfare of Thailand under the Royal Patronage of His Majesty the King.
5. The Catholic Council of Thailand.
6. The Christian Council of Thailand.
7. The Girl Guides Association of Thailand under the Royal Patronage of Her Majesty the Queen.
8. The Women Lawyers Association of Thailand under the Royal Patronage of Her Majesty the Queen.
9. The Women Volunteers' Association of Thailand.
10. The Population and Community Development Association.
11. The Thai Association of University Women under the Patronage of H.R.H. Princess Galyani Vadhana.
12. The Planned Parenthood Association of Thailand under the Patronage of H.R.H. the Princess Mother.
13. The Association for the Promotion of the Status of Women.
14. The Thai Women's Farmer Association.
15. The Navy's Wives Association.
16. The Army's Wives Association.
17. The Federation of Women Volunteers for Civil Defence Association.
18. The Thai Women Association.
19. The Women Secretaries' Association of Thailand.
20. The Friends of Women's World Banking Association in Thailand.
21. The Thai Medical Women Association of Thailand under the Royal Patronage of Her Majesty the Queen.
22. The Thai Home Economics Association under the Royal Patronage of Her Majesty the Queen.
23. The Thai Muslim Women Association of Thailand.
24. The Pan Pacific and Southeast Asia Women's Association of Thailand under the Royal Patronage of Her Majesty the Queen.
25. Y.W.C.A.
26. The Thai Women's Culture Club.
27. The Business and Professional Women's Association of Thailand.
28. The Thai Foundation for the Development of Human Resources.
29. The Foundation for Women.
30. The Thai Nun's Foundation under the Royal Patronage of Her Majesty the Queen.
31. The Piriya Foundation.
32. The SVITA Foundation.
33. The Border Patrol Police's Families Foundation.
34. The Coordination Centre for Rural Development Foundation.
35. The Foundation for Children.
36. The Good Shepherd Sisters.
37. The Peace of Mind Nun's Foundation.
38. The Foundation for the Promotion of Welfare for Women and Youth.
39. The Women Problem's Study Group, Ramkamhaeng University.
40. The Women's Group for Social Development, Thammasat University.
41. The Women's Group for Social Development, Mahidol University.
42. The Women Problems' Study Group.
43. The Friends of Women Group.
44. The Women's Status Promotion Group.
45. The Women's Club for Social Development.
46. The Women Attorney's Club.

## **2. ACTIVITIES AND PROCEDURES**

### **2.1 TYPES OF NGOS' ACTIVITIES**

Based on data obtained from the survey, the activities of NGOs directly dealing with target women groups concern mainly training, income generation, right and equality promotion in both law and practice for women. The activities can be classified in the same way as those run by GOs.

The activities run by NGOs such as training, aim at providing necessary information for helping women have a better living in society. Another type of activities provided for women by most agencies (81.8 per cent) is specific and basic skill training for income generation.

The second priority (72.7 per cent) for activities is the promotion of income generating activities and of leadership for women. The third priority (54.5 per cent) is health and sanitation promotion and rights and security protection for women. The last priority (27.3 per cent) is political participation.

In the comparison of NGOs with GOs, there are few differences in the activities directly aimed at women. The difference is that while many GOs focus on skill training in income generating activities, NGOs focus on education, necessary information provision for good living in society and the provision of basic knowledge in various income generating activities that women can adapt and use of their income. Some activities such as health and sanitation, and women leadership promotion are run by both GOs than NGOs. However, NGOs have focused more on rights and security protection for women.

### **2.2 PLANNING AND PROJECT IMPLEMENTATION**

#### **2.2.1 Programmes and projects for women development**

Most NGOs can identify specific programmes and projects for women. Ten from the 11 surveyed agencies have such programmes and projects while only 50 per cent of GOs have direct and specific women programme. (Table 13-2)

#### **2.2.2 Target Group Identification**

Nine out of the 11 surveyed agencies or 81.8 per cent have identified clear cut target groups such as young women, farmers' housewives, women of reproductive-age, women in service sectors, poor women, ill - treated or abused women in families etc. while only 42 per cent of the GOs surveyed have identified target groups. (Table 13-2 )

#### **2.2.3 The Process of Policy Making, Programming and Project Planning**

The process followed by the NGOs is mainly identification of problems by the administrative level of the agencies. The distinctive point is that most of the agencies have used the long-term women's development plan (1982-2001) as guideline in programme and project formulation. About 36.4 per cent of the agencies have moderately used the plan. Twenty seven per cent have slightly used it. Eighteen per cent of the agencies have mainly used the plan as a major guideline. Nine per cent have totally used the plan as the principal guideline in programme and project formulation. Compared with GOs, NGOs have used the long-term women's development plan as guideline for policy, programme and project formulation more than GOs. In other words, 91.9 per cent of NGOs have used the long range plan while only 42 per cent of GOs have.

In terms of women's participation in policy making and planning, NGOs have given much more attention to this point. Ninety one per cent of NGOs open opportunities for women to participate in the process of decision-making such as problems and needs identification and suggestion for problem solutions and various activities implementation (Table 13-3) while only 58.3 per cent of the GOs give such opportunities to women.

### **2.3 FOLLOW-UP AND EVALUATION**

The follow-up system employed by NGOs is that of scheduled report. Moreover, many agencies send their staff at various levels to do follow-up regularly while some agencies use the meetings as an instrument evaluate progress, problems and obstructions.

The evaluation system used in mostly the summative evaluation including research by identifying particular indicators.

### **2.4 COORDINATION SYSTEM**

Although NGOs are generally flexible in various levels of staff's operation which help the coordination system within and between agencies to be more efficient than the GOs, when the basic factors of coordination of NGOs are taken into consideration. The general climate of coordination among NGOs is not much different from that of GOs. NGOs still lack an adequate information system of women. The data used by the NGOs come from research conducted by each NGO itself. The data are not correlated with that of other agencies. In terms of master plan for women, however, only one out of eleven studied agencies had not used the plan as a mechanism for coordination among various agencies. There is moreover, an outstanding performance of NGOs in that NGOs appoint coordinators of internal sector to deal with public relations and coordination in women's development.

The channels of communication mostly used by NGOs are printed matters, meetings, public relations through mass media, telephone, telex accordingly. The media is not different from those used by the GOs.

## **IMPACT ON THE TARGET GROUP**

The roles of GOs and NGOs in various mentioned activities affect women in many areas:

### **1. IMPACT ON RAISING WOMEN'S QUALITY OF LIFE ACCORDING TO THE INDICATED BASIC NEEDS.**

According to the survey on the Thai families in 1991, the quality of life of the Thais is still low when the indicators of basic needs are taken into consideration. (17 out of 32 indicators of the quality of life of rural Thais are still lower than the minimum).<sup>5</sup> However, in terms of health and sanitation, GOs and NGOs have improved the women's quality of life at the level of standard basic needs, especially at the time pregnancy and after giving birth period. Other quality of life areas are not still clearly effective.

### **2. ECONOMIC IMPACT**

While women have been primarily concerned with raising their families, still interventions of GOs and NGOs, especially training in income generating and provision of necessary information, have affected the women's role in the family's economy.

The result of various agencies' activities, however, have helped women to become skillful or knowledgeable labour. Moreover information transfer has also helped women to systematically penetrate integrate themselves into the labour market to a certain degree.

In rural areas, women supported by various agencies can be income generating group leaders in more than fifty per cent of the surveyed groups such as production credit groups which help financial mobilization as capital for income generating and investment among villagers; there, women participate as chairpersons, secretaries and administration committee members in seventy per cent of the total groups.<sup>6</sup>

### **3. IMPACT ON SOCIAL, POLITICAL AND GOVERNMENT ASPECT**

The activities of GOs and NGOs have very little effect on Women in the social, political and government aspects especially in government administration at the national and local levels. According to the information gathered by the NCWA, at the national level, women account for 1.9 per cent of the House of the Representatives, 7 per cent in Judicial system, 2.2 per cent of the ministers and 3.9 per cent of government officials at the administrative level (level 9). At the provincial level, women account for 5.6 per cent of provincial council committees, 3.8 per cent of municipal council committees, 0.3 per cent of Tambon headmen, 0.2 per cent of herb doctor in Tambon and 0.4 per cent of village headmen. Data indicated that GOs and NGOs have not succeeded in promoting women's role and status. However, women are taking more important roles because of the activities implemented by GOs and NGOs. According to the study, women at the village level are taking more important roles in rural development. The women's organizations set up by various GOs are systematic political bases at many levels including elections for village headmen and provincial council committees. Women leaders have played an increasing role both as local and national politicians. The bargaining power of women has thus increased benefitting both the community and the women themselves. Women leaders will be an important political power in the future.<sup>7</sup>

## **B. IMPORTANT PROBLEMS AND CAUSED IN IMPLEMENTATION OF WOMEN'S DEVELOPMENT**

### **NATIONAL POLICY AND PLAN FOR WOMEN'S DEVELOPMENT**

Although the long-term women's development plan (1982-2001) and the fifth five-year plan have identified women as an important issue for development, information from all agencies surveyed indicates that the major problem affecting women's development is the shortage of a clear national policy and plan. The long-term women's development plan is neither well known nor popular. The plan is not widely understood or accepted by various agencies which causes each agency to identify its own procedures and programmes in accordance with its role. The NCWA, thus, finds it difficult to integrate policy and programme among agencies. Such difficulty results in the following problems.

1. As each agency has set up its own policy and programme, there is no effective coordination in resource access and utilization for women's development. There follows a risk of duplication of roles and duties of various GOs and NGO. Data on the types of activities as shown in table 13-1 reflect such situation; for example, 8 out of 11 surveyed agencies deal with skill promotion in income generating activities. The number has been increasing in NGOs. Every NGOs deals with education and information transfer for women while 80 per cent of all NGOs train women in income generating activities. Although activities of various agencies are believed to be cooperatively and integrally implemented, they duplicate efforts to and waste resources.

2. Without explicit national women policies, administrations of agencies do consult and cooperate in considering budgets, manpower and material settings for women's development.

Various agencies do not apply the policy and master plan because of a lack of strong and effective mechanism. For example, the NCWA's capability is still limited because it is only a division functioning under the Office of the Permanent Secretary of the Office of the Prime Minister. Manpower is thus limited and this affects capability for policy analysis and efficient coordination.

### **RESOURCES**

The problem of resources is due to a lack of explicit policy and principles at the national level. As a result the GOs cannot submit budget and request manpower for women's development. There is only one agency from the

total surveyed where the Civil Service Commission has approved women's development technicians including programme formulation and budget support for women's development.

The problem of manpower faced by various agencies can be summed up from the data gathered from 23 GOs and NGOs as follows:

- 1) Limited manpower but many areas of responsibility.
- 2) No specific manpower for women's development.
- 3) Lack of experts in women's development.

The problem of budget can be summarized as follows:

- 1) Budget support is not continuous.
- 2) The Government cannot allocate budget to help NGOs. Thus NGOs rely on foreign budget sources which is still not enough.
- 3) Budget allocations are not directly for women's development. Rather, they are included in other sectors of the budget.

In conclusion, the resources used in women's development or related women activities are still limited among agencies such as budget, manpower and integration in resources utilization. Even though the NCWA's secretariat office's role is the main agent for the promotion and integration of resources, it still cannot operate fully as it should because of constraints in budget and manpower.

### **TARGET GROUP IDENTIFICATION**

Previous analyses have indicated that most agencies, especially GOs, have not identified specific target women groups. The activities conducted by GOs and NGOs thus, cannot fully respond to the problems and needs of women. The prospective target groups gain less benefit. Rural women who have less opportunity cannot benefit from the income generating activities. On the contrary, only some groups of the better-off women can gain major benefits.

The major cause of this problem is a lack of systematic policy, principal programme and data to pinpoint the problem of various target women groups in each agency.

### **COORDINATION AND COOPERATION AMONG AGENCIES**

The information gathered from 23 GOs and NGOs indicates problems of coordination and cooperation among agencies as follows:

<b>Information</b>	<b>Number of Replies (per cent)</b>
1. Have similar projects with other agencies in the area.	91.5
2. Do not know other agency programmes and projects.	81.1
3. Information (data) used is different and from different sources.	70.7
4. Neither know nor understand functions of other agencies in women's development.	63.2
5. Cannot gain cooperation from other agencies.	44.5
6. Have no direct women's development programmes and projects.	34.8
7. Scarcely communicate or have meeting with various agencies concerning women (generally not more than once a year)	12.0

In conclusion, the problem of coordination and cooperation among GOs and NGOs still exists. The problem is due to a lack of national policy, principal programme, information system and public relations concerning women's activities.

## **INFORMATION CONCERNING WOMEN**

The study of various agencies' implementation concerning women shows that the information itself is not scarce but that it is not systematically gathered for each agency. Some of the information has to be gathered from various sources. There is a problem of scattering of information concerning women (mentioned by every agency). Moreover, 71.5 per cent of the agencies replied that the information is neither up-to-date nor correct; 63.4 per cent of the agencies replied that they have no such information and that it is not yet collected such as on women in the service sector and information of poor women etc.

In conclusion, there is a problem of lack of systematic and specific information for planning and programming. The reason is that there is no central agency responsible for coordination and setting an information system, including the lack of systematic study, research, follow-up and evaluation which help the information be up-to-date.

## **GOVERNMENT SUPPORT**

1. GOs and NGOs have raised the problem of government support. The government still does not provide support for women's development promotion especially in improving various law concerning women such as:

1.1 The law of rights in education. Though, there is no law which limits the rights of women in education, some GOs still identify qualifications only for men such as the Ministry of Defense, the Police Department, the Harbour Department and the Customs Department etc.

1.2 The law of rights in the economy. Thailand still lacks of important laws as a mechanism to promote the full participation of women in the economy. There is no law to guarantee in two aspects:

1.2.1 Guarantee in equality in working opportunity as compared to men.

1.2.2 Guarantee in security of work. The employers usually select men before women or even abolish employment of married women, pregnant women of during maternity leaves.

The problem concerning laws creates some constraints for various agencies in promotion women's roles and status.

2. The problem caused by a lack of earnest support from the government is that a national agency which is responsible for women's development has not been explicitly identified. The Ministry of Education was originally responsible. Later it was changed to be National Economic and Social Development Board, Community Development Department; today the Office of the Permanent Secretary of the Office of the Prime Minister assumes this role. This is an important cause of weakness in resources, status and output. It also results in discouraging participative and operational lines. Women in the target groups often feel hopeless. Many of them, as a results, end up in the group of women who constitute various problems such as young prostitutes, women in slum areas and women in risky jobs.

3. The lack of support from the government for women study and research affects policy identification and suitable procedures. It also affects the feminists' philosophy, way of thought and procedures having an impact on women's development and on fights for equal rights between men and women. Although government action has had some positive impact such as property right and divorce etc., still it has had save negative impact because of lack of correlation between change of values and ways of life of women such as raising families, broken families etc.

## **OTHERS**

Other problems mentioned by 23 and NGOs are:

1. The agencies's public relations concerning women's activities are still scarce resulting in a lack of understanding among the public. Various agencies, also, have no opportunity to acknowledge other agencies' activities. Consequently, cooperation, support and coordination among agencies is difficult.

2. Lack of direct and indirect support from the government such as budget, tax discount for those who contribute funds for women's activities promotion; the results is that raising funds for women's activities for develop is inadequate.

3. Women's right protection implementation of NGOs, is sometime misunderstood by government officials as if it were mass mobilization to mistrust the GOs.

4. Lack of indicators to measure the success of women's activities and women's quality of life. It is, thus, very difficult to do evaluation.

5. Administrators of many agencies do not focus on the importance of women's development and activities. Consequently, it is not fully supported in manpower, budget and materials.

6. In rural areas, there are too many duplications of the same target women groups and the same activities among agencies, resulting in wastes of budget allocations.

7. People trust NGOs more than GOs. This may be due to prompt implementation by NGOs. The result is that GOs often meet with lack of interest or apprehension where approaching villagers.

8. Local politicians sometimes use women organizations as a mechanism for election campaign causing conflicts between politicians of opposite parties. The result is that women's activities, sometimes, are not supported by the opposite parties.

### **C. EXPECTATIONS FROM ROLES OF GOs AND NGOs IN WOMEN'S ACTIVITIES**

Economic, social, political, cultural, scientific and technological changes as well as current needs of manpower point out to the necessity of adaptation among GOs and NGOs on promoting women's role and status to respond more effectively to the needs of women.

#### **1. ECONOMIC CHANGE**

A distinct economic change in the last decade has been the changing production structure of the country.

The country's economic development indicates the tendency to change from agricultural production to the industrial and service sectors. The ratio of value in agricultural produce is gradually decreasing while the industrial sector plays a growing role in economic development. The ratio of the value of industrial produce increased from 16.42 per cent of the national income in the second national social and economic development plan to 21.37 per cent in the fifth plan while the agricultural produce decreased from 23.85 per cent in the second plan to 19.69 per cent in the fifth plan.<sup>8</sup>

Moreover, the service sector also plays a more important role. The ratio of value of the service in national income has increased from 43.23 per cent in the final year of the second plan to 46.65 per cent in the fifth plan.<sup>9</sup>

During the first two years of the sixth plan (1987-1988) there was a distinct change in the production structure. The industry and service sectors played a visible role by increasing the value of production from 22.72 and 48.33 per cent of the national income in 1987 to 23.02 and 48.85 per cent in 1988 accordingly while the agriculture sector decreased from 17.29 per cent to 16.91 per cent in the same period.<sup>10</sup>

The rate of economic growth of the country in 1988 was 11 per cent.<sup>11</sup> 10.46 per cent in 1989 and 9.86 per cent in 1990. This may be the highest rate of economic growth among Asian countries and the world. In 1991-1992 the rate of economic growth was expected to be 9.86 per cent. These happening are expected to cause

production structure change in the future. The agriculture sector will decrease to 13 per cent of the national income while the industry sector will increase to 35 per cent in 1992.<sup>12</sup> This will cause the price of commodities and services to fluctuate not less than 10 per cent.

Such economic change affects society as follows:

1. The gap of income between the people in agriculture and the industry and service sectors will be broadened. This will cause a lot of labour migrations from the agriculture sector to urban areas especially in the industry and service sector. It is expected that women labourers will be 40 per cent of the labour migrations. These women labourers need skill training and information transfers.

2. The high rate of economic growth including the increasing price of commodities will affect the adaptation of a higher cost of living which will cause women to move outside their villages.

3. Adaptation in accordance with the cost of living, impact on the family economy, advance in technology and medicine and the success of family planning, all these are factors resulting in a decreasing rate of population growth; in 1981-1983 the number of new born babies throughout the country was 1.0-1.1 million. The number decreased to 860,000 in 1987. In 1988, it was found that there was no new born baby in 1040 villages (or 1.8 per cent of the village throughout the country). This shows that the number of senior citizens will increase especially women whose average age is longer than that of men.

## **2. THE ADVANCE IN TECHNOLOGY**

The advance in technology, especially communication systems, which help villagers gain information from the outside, including comfortable transportation facilities, all these are playing an important role for daily life and income generation. These will cause the villagers to rely more on technology and information. It is thus necessary to transfer knowledge of science and technology to educate the people throughout the country including women in order that they can adopt themselves and meet their personal needs in accordance with such change.

## **3. THE CHANGE FROM RURAL TO URBAN SOCIETY**

According to the official definition urban community is the municipal area which includes a population of not less than 5,000 and where the density of the population is more than 1,000 per square kilometres. If this indicator is used, at the end of the final year of the sixth social and economic development plan (1991), the population in urban areas was estimated to be 16 million or 29 per cent and it will increase to 32 per cent by the year 2,000. The rural way of life will gradually diminish; extended families will be replaced by nuclear families. The problems of senior women living longer will increase. The GOs and NGOs, therefore, should prepare welfare schemes for senior citizens as the target groups in the future.

The important problems of senior citizens identified in the national senior citizens long-term plan (1982 - 2001) are ranked as follows:

1. Economic problems due to unsteady incomes.
2. Health and sanitation problems.
3. Problem of isolation and hopelessness.
4. Problem of family cohesion and properties.

## **4. CULTURAL TRANSFERS**

As urban societies grow and develop and as the country become more exposed to outside influence through tourism and prompt communication systems, the culture, belief and value systems will be affected. The urban life will

emphasise personal success, competition, consumption, entertainment. If this happens too rapidly it will affect the moral life of the people, resulting in problems of sexual crime, prostitution, women abuse etc.. The government needs to have explicit policies and strategies to face these coming problems.

### **5. POLITICAL CHANGE**

The Thai explicit political change is change of power from the military and the bureaucracy to the economic powers. Such changes will have to lead to an integration of power among the military, the bureaucrats and the businessmen. Major political parties, once organized in major entities are now split into medium size and small parties. These political parties will tend once more to become incorporated into large ones when the three sources of power integrate.

Through the process of divisions, conflicts and integration the use of military power in the forms of revolution, coup d'état reformation, national peace keeping and rebellion has taken place. These happenings have well educated people and political problems are likely to decrease. There is a greater political awareness of the people especially women. In the past elections, women played a greater role in politics. Women will also be the political base at various levels of elections. Women will have more relationships with politicians at various levels. These will cause more bargaining power as the route to more important political power of women.

### **6. NATURAL AND ENVIRONMENTAL CHANGE**

The development of industry and agriculture in the past decades has caused pollution and environmental and natural imbalance as seen in the high deterioration of natural resources. The forest areas, 4.8 million rai, have been destroyed while substitute reforestation is going on at the rate of only 40,000 rai per year. The forest areas left is only 93.1 million rai or 29 per cent of the total land of the country. In the northeast, for example, the forest areas of the region is only 14 per cent of the total. Moreover, various water resources have been destroyed while the production process of the industrial sectors and transportation vehicles have also caused air pollution by releasing polluted smoke.

Pollution is expected to be a serious problem which will affect women's and the population's quality of life.

The six areas discussed above are factors affecting the whole country. As for the rural sector which is the major part of the country and counts per cent of the population, the future holds also dramatic changes as described below:

### **7. RURAL SOCIAL CHANGE**

(1) Farmers will change roles from that of landowners to that of tenant farmers or wage labours because of increasing debts. Because of increasing debts, farmers will have to sell their land to financial bankers or borrow money when the mortgage period is over lands are foreclosed or confiscated. Irrigated areas will also be bought by investors and distributed for sale to urban people. Farmers, thus, will become wage labours or employees in new forms of agricultural farms.

(2) The agricultural sectors will change from that of many small farms to that of large to rich farms. The agricultural produce will be for marketing or exporting with specific purchasers. Small farmers will sell their small lands because the cost of agricultural produce will not be profitable while the high cost of land will also motivate farmers near urban and irrigated areas to sell their lands and buy ones far from urban areas which are non-irrigated areas.

(3) Small farmers or tenant farmers will still face marketing problems for their agricultural produce. They will take rise in types of plants they grow, market mechanisms, costs of chemical fertilizers, higher costs of seeds. These will result in a lower quality of life for small farmers.

(4) There will be more surplus rural male and female labours because of the mechanized agricultural machinery and also the droughty agricultural areas, the lack of water for agriculture being caused by the deterioration of forest areas in the past decades. Agricultural will be impossible in some areas. These surplus labours will migrate to factories and towns including Bangkok.

(5) The tendency of agriculture will be more in livestock especially cattle and dairy farms. These kinds of livestock will help farmers have more income than plantation. The produce from dairy farm will be increased and the Thais will consequently drink more milk.

(6) The income of rural people will be increased but the increased sum of money will not proportionately correlate with the income of the urban people. There will be wider gap of income between the rural and the urban people.

(7) The urban capitalists, especially in Bangkok, the local businessmen and international capitalists will more cooperatively invest in industries for exports. The rural labourers will be employed more in factories including agro-industry and handicraft. There will be a large number of surplus labourers. These labourers, thus, will get less than the official minimum wage.

(8) The hilltribes and the various minorities in the villages with comfortable transportation will migrate more to find their employment in urban areas especially in sanitary and municipal areas. Another number of these labourers will be employed in the agriculture and industrial sectors. The remote hilltribes will not change much in their ways of life.

(9) Though there are formal prohibitions for cutting trees there will still be illegal forest destruction in the forms of employing village labourers to gradually cut lumber and transport it in small amount. If these villagers and hilltribes cannot find other employment for substitution, they will still be wood cutters to supply the urban people.

(10) Businessmen and the private sector will start renting land in order to grow forest substitutes. This new activity will employ some part of the rural labourers.

(11) More tourism in rural areas will be developed especially in local culture. This will motivate Thai and foreign tourists in various place and activities such as local festivals, antiques and archaeological finds. Tourism will slightly increase the income of rural people.

(12) People's organizations such as farmer' group or cooperatives will have more specific roles because of free economic competition. These organizations will not be able to rely on their own and complete the cycle of production and marketing by themselves. Only few organizations will succeed in the process.

(13) Due to the progress of technology, good communication systems and comfortable transportation, the values and ways of life of the rural villages will not remain isolated. Only few people will emphasize self-reliance and solitude. The way of life of the rural people will gradually rely more on outside society. Finally, the rural society will accept that it must rely on the outside community as an unavoidable way of life.

(14) The loan and deposit system in rural areas will informally deal with the urban businessmen in the municipal and sanitary areas. If the guarantee and rate of interest are specified in the same forms and rates as with the urban people, the rural people will rely more on informal monetary systems because the informal system will provide opportunities for small farmers and medium ones. The small farmers will be more indebted. Such system helps only in short term but in the long run the farmers will be over indebted.

(15) The rural people will be more aware of politics. They will begin to understand more about the roles of politicians which is different from the roles regulated in laws. There will be greater understanding because of the motivation to learn from elections political campaigns especially the exchange for their votes including the utilization

of political bases of the local politicians and leaders. It is believed that money will be used in political campaigns and elections at various levels.

(16) The rural people will call for more facilities such as water for agriculture, water for consumption, reasonable prices of agricultural produce, asphalted and cemented roads to substitute the non-surfaced or laterite roads, free public health services, permanent bridges. Telephones at the village level will be a necessary channel of communication for the rural people not only for economic purposes but also in other transactions such as politics, gambling and underground lotteries etc.

(17) The rural people will consequently have a better health and live longer. The ratio of senior citizens will be higher. The problem of welfare of senior citizens will be increased in all families because the young people will not stay at their homes. The problem of senior citizens will take place and will need to be solved if members of the family migrate to work outside the agricultural sector. There will be only senior citizens and children left in villages

(18) Schools will have to extend their education from the primary to secondary levels (grade 9). The people will call for free secondary schools at the same schools their children gained primary education especially in the remote areas. Curricula will have to be improved to meet the community problems. The three years of extended education will help the villagers (children) to help themselves and their families.

(19) Well-being male and female youth in rural areas both near and far from the urban but can comfortably communitation, among out-of-school youth and those finishing vocational school there will be a high probability of addiction to various forms of drugs or narcotics. If the suppression of immoral places of entertainment such as gambling houses, in districts and villages near urban areas is not efficient, unemployed youth still depending on their parents will show a high tendency to visit those places.

(20) Women will take more important roles in their communities. They will be political bases for various levels of election. They will share power which has long been controlled by local leaders. The women leaders will gradually have relations with local and national politicians. The bargaining power of women leaders will tend to give them community benefits and women activities. Politicians will select and recruit leaders from new generations to substitute the previous generations. Women leaders will thus be an important source of political power but the power will not be fully explicit in the community.

(21) Relations between national and local politicians will be closer when they are in the same party. The will start to have conflicts if they are in different parties. The two types of relations will affect project approval and budget allocation for village development. The call for rural development projects will probably be sent directly from the political bases at village level to the national politicians which unnecessarily will pass the bureaucratic system at district provincial and departmental levels.

(22) There will be more conflicts of interests in rural societies which have fertile natural resources. The urban people will use monetary influence to take advantage of natural resources for their own various businesses. The local leaders will be used as the channel for communication and relations. This will not satisfy the whole population in the community and the government agencies which deal with law protection. This situation will create more conflicts of interests.

(23) The role Buddhism especially in the wealthy areas near urban centres will be gradually decreased. In times of progress of the technology and free competition, religious institutions will not adapt themselves to keep up with the changing situation; temples and monks will be respected by only few people such as groups of senior citizens and groups of women. The roles of temples and monks in spiritual centres will be gradually decreased in this social change.

In the mists of such changes and the expected impact on ways of life there will be a necessity to develop people both personally and as members of organizations and societies in order to provide them with the ability to adapt themselves suitably. This will also help to make changes to go on smoothly and according to the limited

resource conditions and needs of persons, community and society. Such preparation is a duty of the government which will need to set mechanisms in order to gain the desired direction of human development.

Human development, however, has been focused on only specific target groups. The important human resources, especially women, has not been continuously given enough attention. The government will have to be responsible and emphasize the development of women power in building the future of the nation, especially in aspects:

**(A) Women Leadership Development**

Women from wealthy families who do not always look after their children by themselves. They may have less influence in the decision making process as head of the families and also of community activities. There is, thus, a need to develop their understanding of basic political systems which affect their daily life. There is also a need to create right attitudes towards politics because women will gradually have roles and relations with politicians at various levels.

**(B) Education for Young Women**

Young women of marrying age should be educated in child care practices, health care, in general good citizenship, and how to educate their children in order to promote attitudes of being creative, sincere, diligent, community conscious and self-reliant.

**(C) Skill Development**

Women of working age from poor families should be provided training to become skilled labour both in agriculture and home industry according to local conditions, situations and resources. The curriculum does not need to be uniform throughout the country.

An analysis of social and economic changes, including information gathered from GOs and NGOs, indicates that the roles of GOs and NGOs are expected be as follows:

**EXPECTED ROLES OF GOs**

1. The role of GOs should be to specify the policies and national plans of women's development to be followed by related agencies. Such role should contribute to upgrade the Office of the NCWA to the same status as that of the Office of the National Education Commission or the National Youth Bureau. This role is expected to be supported by all related GOs and NGOs.

2. GOs should constitute sources of research, findings as well as information systems related to women information. It is expected that GOs will gather related women's information systems collected from research, and systems of monitoring and evaluation of all related agencies. There should be an Women Information Centre at the national level. This role is expected to be carried out by all related GOs and NGOs.

3. There should be organizations for the promotion and coordination of women's development among agencies at various levels including national, provincial, district, tambon, and village level by using an information system and a master plan and various laws as to mechanisms of promotion and coordination.

4. In implementation towards target groups of women, the role of GOs should be focused on establishing women's organizations at various levels, organizing women's groups in specific activities of particular interest to women, conscientizing women in various aspects including rights and welfare protection for women rather than just income generating promotion.

5. GOs should assume the role of coordinating with foreign affairs agencies and international organizations dealing with women. It seems that it is more appropriate for GOs to do this than NGOs do.

6. There should be monitoring, follow-up and evaluation in order to improve the policies and master plans including support to the activities of various agencies searching for solutions to the problems encountered.

7. Public relations activities through all media under the authority of the government should be promoted extend information on women's status promotion and development including creating positive image towards Thai women.

### **EXPECTED ROLES OF NGOs**

GOs and NGOs have formulated expectations on the NGOs role in implementing activities for target groups concerning the problems and needs of women.

Activities of NGOs should be as follows:

1. To conscientize men and women on women's role and status, including women's participation.
2. To conscientize men and women on human rights issues.
3. To educate women on legal matters and provide them support in activities concerning laws.
4. To provide psychological services and advice in order to decrease present social tensions.
5. To provide training for women in business and management.
6. To protect women's rights, freedom and welfare especially women who face problems such as unemployment, abuse, assault, etc.
7. To promote women's participation in economic, social and political organizations.
8. To educate women with regards to economic information and production and marketing technology, an area where NGOs seem to be more progressive than GOs.
9. To do research in specific areas.

In conclusion, the roles of GOs should focus on policy setting, programme planning, coordination and support of NGOs, including doing research and setting information systems concerning women, while the roles of NGOs should aim at activities which directly affect women including research on specific topics in accordance with the purpose set for each agency.

## **3. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR POLICIES AND STRATEGIES CONCERNING THE ROLES OF GOs AND NGOs IN WOMEN'S DEVELOPMENT**

### **A. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR POLICY SETTING**

#### **1. RECOMMENDATION TO REMEDY THE LACK OF NATIONAL POLICIES AND MASTER PLAN IN WOMEN'S DEVELOPMENT**

GOs and NGOs set their own policies, programmes, projects and activities. However it is thus difficult to effectively and efficiently integrate and promote women's development in many aspects such as budgeting, manpower and cooperation and coordination among agencies. The national policy for women's development, therefore, needs to be clearly specified. There should be an approved master women's development plan included in national social and economic development plans. Each agency should also include a women's development programme in its master plan coordinated with the national plan.

If each agency has clear policies, programmes and projects for women's development according to national policy and master plans all agencies will have a clear and common approach for women's development. There will be better resource mobilization and utilization so that the women's development, both physical and psychological will be properly carried on by all agencies concerned in a complementary and cooperatively fashion.

## **2. RECOMMENDATIONS TO SOLVE THE PROBLEM OF LACK OF RESOURCES**

The problem of lack of resources has been a problem for GOs as well as for NGOs. Many recommendations have been mentioned in the section concerning resources. The promotion of GOs and NGOs roles in women development, moreover, should be supported in the following ways:

- 2.1 Enable GOs dealing with women's development to have more sections and positions concerned with women's development.
- 2.2 Allocate more budget to GOs with women's development programmes and projects.
- 2.3 Allocate budget to support NGOs involvement in women's development.

## **3. RECOMMENDATIONS CONCERNING THE PROBLEM OF IDENTIFYING TARGET WOMEN'S GROUPS AND GOALS OF WOMEN'S DEVELOPMENT**

3.1 Although all Thai women are the target of development, each agency should clearly identify priority of target women's groups in order that each agency can suitably identify programme and activities according to limited available resources, problems and needs of each target groups. GOs have focused on the following deprived women's groups:

1. Poor Women in the agricultural sectors and wage labourers in the rural areas.
2. Poor Women in urban areas who are wage labourers in various enterprises.
3. Young Women who finish compulsory education and have no opportunity to study further.

In addition to this NGOs are encouraged to identify target women's group according to their functions.

3.2 Government should clearly identify national women's development goal in accordance with the Thais' social change.

## **4. RECOMMENDATIONS ON THE PROBLEM OF INFORMATION SYSTEMS FOR WOMEN'S DEVELOPMENT**

GOs and NGOs have faced serious problems in women's development due to the fact information and data are scattered among various agencies, plans, implementation schemes, follow-up and evaluation programmes, due to a lack of integration, cooperation and coordination.

Policies for information systems concerning women should, therefore, be clearly identified in order that all agencies be able to use the same sources of information in identifying, problems and needs, programmes, projects, implementation schemes including follow-up and evaluation activities. There should be a specific organization responsible for gathering information. The information should cover various aspects such as health and sanitation, education, occupation, governmental participation.

## **5. RECOMMENDATIONS CONCERNING GOVERNMENT'S SUPPORT**

Due to a lack of stable central agencies for the promotion and coordination of women development and a lack of government support in improving laws which obstruct women's development and also poor public relations, the following top policies have been set up:

5.1 To improve that status, structure and function of the agencies in the Office of the Permanent Secretary of the Office of the Prime Minister to become a permanent national core for the promotion and coordination of women development.

5.2 To accelerate the amendment and improvement of laws obstructing the promotion of the status, roles and activities of women, such as laws concerning the rights of women in education and training, government agencies, business enterprises, etc..

5.3 To encourage all agencies to continuously publicize their women development activities.

## **6. RECOMMENDATIONS CONCERNING IMPROVEMENT TO FOLLOW-UP AND EVALUATION ACTIVITIES IN WOMEN'S DEVELOPMENT**

Follow-up and evaluation in women's development are implemented according to the capability, manpower and budget of each agency. Such implementation has been useful for the internal improvement of each agency. National follow-up and evaluation, however, has not been able to determine whether the country as a whole has achieved goals. There should, therefore, be a clear national system of follow-up and evaluation for women's development.

### **B. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR STRATEGY SETTING**

#### **1. SOLUTIONS FOR THE LACK OF NATIONAL POLICY AND MASTER PLAN IN WOMEN'S DEVELOPMENT**

1.1 The NCWA should be responsible for identifying and proposing to the government main policies for women promotion. It should propose women programmes according to social changes and national economic and social development plans in order that GOs and NGOs use such policies as guidelines for their related programmes and projects including budget and target group identification.

1.2 Ministries, bureaus and departments should identify women promotion plans in accordance with their functions and the national master plan. The organizations should submit their plans to the NCWA in order that they be supported in the following areas:

- (1) To monitor and supervise related agencies to run their programmes in accordance with national policies and master women plans.
- (2) To coordinate women's development plans among agencies in order to utilize resource cooperatively, economically and efficiently.
- (3) To support all agencies with suitable budget, manpower and organizations in order that they be able to efficiently implement their procedures in accordance with women's development policies, and programmes.
- (4) To provide the needed Management Information System and related information in identifying programmes, programme implementation, follow-up, evaluation, coordination and publications dealing with women.

1.3 Office of the NCWA should identify the procedures and guidelines to help the NGOs to earnestly participate in the women master plan especially with regard to roles and status of women, including manpower, budget and technology, coordination with international organizations and prompt implementation to solve women's problems such as the protection of women's rights, freedom and welfare.

1.4 Office of the NCWA should make more efforts to work along with related agencies and support them in doing research concerning women in order to identify policies, programmes and projects for the development and promotion of women's activities, roles and status.

#### **2. SOLUTION FOR THE LACK OF RESOURCES**

2.1 Office of the NCWA and related agencies should consider having more agencies concerning women's development and distributing more manpower and budget in accordance with their functions.

2.2 Office of the NCWA should provide annual budget allocations to support NGOs in women's development in accordance with identified criteria and conditions.

### **3. SOLUTIONS FOR IDENTIFYING TARGET WOMEN GROUPS AND GOALS OF WOMEN'S DEVELOPMENT**

3.1 The NCWA should propose that the government specify special target women groups such as poor women in the agricultural sector and in urban areas and young women who have no opportunity for further education after compulsory schooling.

3.2 The NCWA should propose that the government clearly announce goals of development, especially the expected characteristic and qualifications of women. This announcement should serve as the policy of women's development.

3.3 The NCWA should publicize the goals of women's development concerning the expected characteristics and qualifications in order that all related agencies use these as the guidelines to identify their women development programmes and projects.

### **4. SOLUTIONS TO ENHANCE THE INFORMATION SYSTEM FOR WOMEN'S DEVELOPMENT**

4.1 The NCWA should promptly assign specific the National Committees in coordinating information system and management concerning women's development by organizing a seminar to mobilize points of views of GOs and NGOs on needed information, including identification of indicators and criteria for Thai women's quality of life.

4.2 The NCWA should propose that the government include information concerning women in the national information gathering activities such as village baseline data, data on the quality of life in accordance with basic needs and population census etc.

4.3 There should be permanent operational agencies responsible for gathering women's information not included in national information.

4.4 There should be a national women information centre or a section department responsible for gathering and analysing women's information in the Office of the NCWA in order to set programmes, manpower needs, and budget, in information collection and analysis.

### **5. SOLUTIONS FOR THE LACK OF CONTINUITY OF GOVERNMENT SUPPORT**

5.1 Mechanisms for GOs and NGOs in women's development should be improved. The Civil Service Commission and the Budget Bureau should consider the improvement of the Office of the NCWA in the Office of the Permanent Secretary of the Office of the Prime Minister. The Office should be structured at the departmental level along the model of the National Youth Bureau in order to promote and coordinate women development at national level.

5.2 The NCWA in cooperation with the Ministry of Interior and related agencies should set up a structure and a system in promoting and coordinating agencies concerning women's development at the national, provincial, district, tambon and village level.

5.3 The National Committee on Laws and Regulations and related agencies should gather laws which obstruct the promotion of women's role, status and women development activities.

## **6. IMPROVEMENT OF EFFICIENCY OF FOLLOW-UP AND EVALUATION OF WOMEN DEVELOPMENT**

6.1 The NCWA should develop appropriate forms, systems and methods of follow-up and evaluation of women promotion and development activities in order that these could be used among agencies.

6.2 GOs and NGOs should supervise and take care of the women's is roles and status promotion activities in correlation with the policy and programme and the NCWA should be reported as in the 6.1 in order that the NCWA report to the cabinet at least once a year.

6.3 Every agency should publicize as much as possible, women's development through various methods.

## **4. CONCLUSION**

### **4.1 ROLES OF GOs AND NGOs**

There are at least 70 GOs and NGOs clearly dealing with women's development including 21 GOs, 46 non-profit NGOs (not including rural women's organizations) and 11 international organizations.

- GOs generally deal with women in three aspects:

1. To set policies, master plans, coordination, follow-up and evaluation
2. To directly implement activities with target groups of women.
3. To study, conduct research and gather information.

- Most NGOs deal with activities directly benefiting target groups, without expectation profit, while some NGOs include study and research with such activities.

### **4.2 PROBLEMS OF IMPLEMENTATION OF GOs AND NGOs**

#### **Major problems:**

1) There is no clear national policy and master plan. The present long-term women's development plan is not widely accepted. Each organization, thus, identifies procedures and programmes according to its role. This causes difficulties to the NCWA in integrating policies and programmes among agencies. This causes inturn other problems such as lack of coordination in seeking and utilizing resources for women's development. Thus there are duplications in implementation among GOs and NGOs. This also causes ignorance at the administrative level in allocating resources for women promotion.

2) There are not enough resources for GOs and NGOs to efficiently implement activities dealing with women. The main problems are lack of knowledgeable manpower, lack of budget, although various sources both within and outside the country, have been mobilized.

3) There are problems of target group and national goal identification in women's development. Target groups have not been clearly identified. Consequently, the activities implemented by the various GOs and NGOs cannot fully respond to the needs of women. National goals of women's development, moreover, are not clearly identified and widely accepted among related agencies.

4) The implementation of women activities usually lacks systematic information on women. There is no continuous study, research, follow-up and evaluation; this situation affects policy and programme identification of related agencies.

5) There is a lack of coordination and cooperation. The information obtained from various agencies indicates that there are duplications of projects because each agency's plans and projects are not known among

agencies. There are also many other problems such as differences in women information, lack of understanding of the roles among agencies, lack of cooperation among agencies, lack of meeting or channels of communication among agencies etc..

6) Lack of support of the government such as in laws and regulations improvement concerning practices for women; this also causes problems and obstacles for implementing agencies.

7) Self-monitoring, follow-up and evaluation of each agency cannot provide feedback on the total image of national women's development.

### **4.3 EXPECTATIONS FOR THE ROLES OF GOs AND NGOs**

The roles of GOs should include the followings:

1. National policy and master plan identification.
2. Study, research, follow-up, evaluation and setting an information system.
3. Promotion and coordination in women's development among agencies, using women's organizations at various levels and the plans as mechanisms.
4. Activities directly implemented for target women groups should be focussed on organizing activities for the protection of rights of women rather than occupation development.
5. Coordination with international organizations.
6. Publicize women's activities/development.
7. Follow-up and evaluation of women's activities/development for policy and programme improvement.

NGOs are expected to take major roles in implementing activities which directly affect the target groups especially in conscientizing men and women on status and role of women in economic, social and political activities, informing and educating women to enable them to production and income through capital mobilization and technology of production and marketing, and, finally, protecting women's rights, freedom, welfare and security.

### **4.4 RECOMMENDATIONS IN DEVELOPING POLICY AND STRATEGIES FOR WOMEN'S DEVELOPMENT**

In order to integrate GOs and NGOs in women's development, the following recommendations should be implemented:

**SUMMARY OF RECOMMENDATIONS, SUGGESTIONS ON WOMEN'S DEVELOPMENT AFFAIRS**

<b>Problems</b>	<b>Recommended Policy</b>	<b>Rationale</b>	<b>Strategy</b>	<b>Recommended Agencies/ Implementing Agencies</b>
<p>1. Lack of national policy for women's development/the women's development plan has not been well known and widely accepted.</p>	<p>1) Identifying the national policy and master plan for women's development 2) Programmes and projects of women's development among agencies should be coordinated with the national policy and master plan and the principal programme of each agency.</p>	<p>1) GOs and NGOs will have a clear common procedure. 2) There will be integration in order to solve problems of coordination. This will help the mobilization of resources for women's development both within and without the country be efficient.</p>	<p>1) The NCWA including related agencies should cooperatively identify policies and master plans to match current problems and the national social and economic development plan. 2) Ministries, bureaus, departments identify women's development programmes in accordance with national policy and send programmes to NCWA in order to coordinate plan, supervise and support.</p>	<p>Office of the NCWA  - Agencies related in women's development</p>
<p>2. Lack of resources</p>	<p>1) Supporting GOs dealing with women's development with manpower, budget and by setting up more GOs for women's development</p>	<p>1) More special personnel in women's development 2) It is more effective to let some competent and flexible NGOs implement some particular activities such as occupational training rather than let the GOs do.</p>	<p>1) Improve or increase GOs responsible for women's development 2) Set up annual budget to support NGOs with clear conditions and criteria.</p>	<p>- Civil Service Commission. - Budget Bureau - related agencies dealing with women's development</p>
<p>3. Lack of a clear target women groups and goals for women's development</p>	<p>1) Government should identify appropriate national goals for women's development according to social change.</p>	<p>1) Clear national goals for women's development will help GOs and NGOs to follow the same direction.</p>	<p>1) Government should identify clear national goals and standards from women's development. 2) Government should identify the three</p>	<p>- GOs and NGOs dealing with women - NCWA</p>

Problems	Recommended Policy	Rationale	Strategy	Recommended Agencies/ Implementing Agencies
<p>4) Lack of efficient information system for women's development</p> <p>4.1 Unsystematic scattering of information is difficult to be used for decision making, policy identification, operation planning and evaluation in women's development</p> <p>4.2 Lack of some women's development information on topics such as problems of women in the service</p>	<p>2) Stress on developing and supporting special target groups such as poor women in rural areas both inside and outside the agricultural sector and poor women and young women in urban areas with no education after compulsory education.</p> <p>- Information system for women's development should be improved by setting up National Women's Development Information Centre.</p> <p>- Support more critical research or case studies.</p>	<p>2) Clear target women groups will help women's development activities to directly respond to problems and needs of women.</p> <p>- National information centre will help related agencies have the same source of information.</p> <p>- The coordination in planning and operation including integration among agencies will consequently be improved.</p> <p>- Critical research and case study will help in finding some scarce information.</p>	<p>target women groups who need help: poor women in rural areas both inside and outside the agricultural sector, poor women in urban areas, poor young women in urban areas with no education after compulsory education.</p> <p>3) Related agencies should clearly identify their target groups in accordance with those identified at the national level.</p> <p>- Organizing seminars to mobilize ideas and identify indicators of rural and urban quality of life for women.</p> <p>- Identify baseline data for women including in village baseline data.</p> <p>- Distribute budget for researchers.</p>	<p>- NCWA.</p> <p>- Ministry of Interior</p> <p>- related agencies dealing with women.</p> <p>- The Research Council</p> <p>- NGOs</p> <p>- International organizations</p> <p>- Universities.</p>

Problems	Recommended Policy	Rationale	Strategy	Recommended Agencies/ Implementing Agencies
<p>sector.</p> <p>5. Problem of government support.</p> <p>5.1 Lack of continuity of the principal agency for coordination and promotion for women.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Improve government mechanisms responsible for women policy in various agencies especially NCWA in order that it will have greater potential in analysing and developing policy for women's development in accordance with problems and taking into account implementing agencies.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- If there is a central permanent agency for women's development the government will have continuous and acceptable women's development policy and programme among agencies.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Improve the structure and roles of the Office of the NCWA in the Office of the Permanent Secretary of the Office of the Prime Minister by upgrading the status to at least the department level in order to be directly responsible for the national policy and plan for women's development such as the National Youth Bureau</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Civil Service Commission</li> <li>- Office of the Prime Minister</li> <li>- NCWA</li> </ul>
<p>5.2 Lack of earnest support from the government in law improvement in order to promote women's development of GOs and NGOs support.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Improve laws which hinder the promotion of women's status and activities such as laws on rights of women in training, education, business some sections of the government service, etc.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Without legal restrictions, the promotion of women's role, status and activities will be more flexible and efficient.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The National Committee on Laws and Regulations should seriously study and propose improvements to the government.</li> </ul>	<p>NCWA</p>
<p>6. Lack of systematic follow-up and evaluation of women development</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Set up systematic follow-up and evaluation of women's development at every level.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- To help solving the problem of women's development among agencies in order that the women's development be improved.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Form, system and method of follow-up and evaluation among agencies should be developed and commonly used.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- NCWA</li> <li>- related agencies dealing with women's development</li> </ul>

## APPENDIX

**Table 13-1** Types of activities implemented by GOs and NGOs in order to promote women's role, status and potential

Types of activities	Agencies implementing (%)	
	NGOs (n=11)	GOs (n=11)*
Educating women on essential information to live in society	100.0	63.6
Educating/Providing basic specific occupations for women	81.8	63.6
Providing occupational skills promotion	72.7	72.7
Providing women leadership promotion	72.7	72.7
Sanitary and health promotion	54.5	72.7
Laws for women's rights, security and equal protection	54.5	36.3
Women's rights and security protection	54.5	36.3
Political participation promotion	27.3	45.5
Others such as social welfare, credit and labour protection	11.4	27.0

\* There were 12 agencies answering the questionnaire. This table presents data from 11 agencies; the twelfth one did not answer this question.

**Table 13-2** Identification of programmes, projects and target groups in women's development (n=12)

Types of activities	Agencies implementing (%)	
	NGOs (n=11)	GOs (n=12)
<b>Programme and Project dealing with women</b>		
- Specific identification of programme and project in women's development.	90.9	50.5
- No specific identification	0.1	50.0
<b>Target group</b>		
- No specifically identified target group	18.2	58.3
- Identified target groups	81.8	41.7
- Landless women farmers		
- Poor women		
- Wives of cooperatives' members		
- Working age women (15-25 yrs)		

**Table 13-3** Process of policy programme and project identification of GOs and NGOs

Types of activities	Agencies implementing (%)	
	NGOs (n=11)	GOs (n=12)
<b>The use of long-term women development plan as the principal guideline in policy and programme identification among agencies</b>		
- No use of the long-term women's development plan	9.9	58.3
- Little use	27.2	25.0
- Average use (about 50%)	36.4	0.0
- Much use (51-75%)	18.2	16.7
- Great use (more than 75%)	9.9	0.0
<b>Creators (originators) in policy and programme identification</b>		
- Minister	-	16.6
- Director-General or equivalent	-	16.6
- Director	-	83.3
- Experts (consultants)	-	83.3
- Policy analyst	-	83.3
- Committee	-	16.6
- Supporters (international organization)	-	8.3
<b>Participation of Target Groups</b>		
- Without participation	9.0	41.7
- Participation in various aspects such as	90.9	58.3
- Proposing information including problems and needs		
- Decision-making to select the project for problem solution		
- Proposing various ideas		
- Programme and project preparation and implementation		
- Identification of research topics		

**Table 13-4** Mechanisms setting for coordination in women's development among GOs and NGOs

Types of activities	Agencies implementing (%)	
	NGOs (n=11)	GOs (n=12)
<b>Information system</b>		
- Specific women information within the agencies	0.0	0.0
- No specific women information within the agencies	100.0	100.0
- Use village baseline information	30.1	41.7
- Use Basic Minimum Needs (BMN)	28.4	33.3
- Information from time to time	100.0	100.0
<b>Principle Programme for women</b>		
- None	9.1	58.3
- Have	90.3	41.7
<b>Organization for women coordination</b>		
- None	0.0	0.0
- Have programme division	100.0	100.0
<b>Channels of communication mostly used in organizations</b>		
- Document, news letter, printed matter	100.0	100.0
- Meeting	95.1	91.7
- Mass media	94.7	83.3
- Telephone	74.4	66.7

## FOOTNOTES

1. The National Committee for International Cooperation, National Commission on Women's Affairs, **Directory of Personnel and Organizations Concerned with Women's Development in Thailand** (Bangkok: Perm Serm Kij Publishing, 1987), p. 69-165.
2. Rule of the Office of the Prime Minister on the National Promotion and Coordination of Women's Affairs B.E. 2534 (1991), item 8.
3. The National Commission on Women's Affairs and the Women's Project, TDRI, **The International Women's Day, March 8, 1990: Women and Work** (Bangkok: The Task Force Committee for International Women's day, 1990), p. 9-14.
4. Community Development Department, **The Annual Report: 1989** (Bangkok: Perm Serm Kij Publishing, 1990), p. 27.
5. Community Development Department, **The Survey Report on Basic Minimum Needs (BMN), 1991** (Bangkok : Research and Evaluation Division, 1991), p. 1-5.
6. Research and Evaluation Division, Community Development Department, **The Mid-Term Evaluation of the Development of People's Organization Project** , 1991, p. 65.
7. Pairat Decharin, **Rural Thailand: Prospect After Development** (Chiangmai: P.A. Living Co., Ltd., 1989), p. 190.
8. The Economic and Social Study and Extension Division, Production Distribution: "The Strong Point of Thailand's Economy", **Journal of Economic and Social Development** Vol.26 no. 1 (January-February, 1989), p. 31.
9. **Ibid.**, p. 31
10. **Ibid.**, p. 32
11. NESDB, "Mid-Term Evaluation of the Sixth National Social and Economic Development Plan: Economic Facts", **Journal of Economic and Social Development**. Vol.26, no. 1 (January-February, 1989), p. 13.
12. TDRI, The Seminar Report on "Thailand in the International Economic System," **National**, December 17, 1989
13. Bancha Kheawcha-em, "Family : Planning: Picture of Success", **Journal of Social and Economic Development**. Vol. 26, no. 5 September-October 1989, p. 10-11.
14. Pairat Decharin, **op.cit.**, p. 16.
15. **Ibid.**

CHAPTER 14

**RESOURCES FOR WOMEN  
DEVELOPMENT**

## CHAPTER 14

### RESOURCES FOR WOMEN DEVELOPMENT

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Women constitute a valuable resource in the national socio-economic development process and in human resources development in general. But in the past, women have not been encouraged to develop to their full potential. They also have had less access to basic social services and have been socially discriminated against. The first guidelines for women development appeared in the Third National Economic and Social Development Plan (1972-1976). In the Fifth National Development Plan (1980-1984), women were regarded as a special target group for social development. Guidelines had been set for women in education, health and policies. In the Sixth National Development Plan (1987-1991), the first Five Year Women Development Plan was drawn up and the National Commission on Women's Affairs appointed a task force to formulate the Women Development Perspective Plan (1982-2001). This perspective plan was to be used as a guideline for implementation of women development.

1.2 The objectives of the present research on resources for women development is to find out the quantity and amount of resources used by both GOs and NGOs regarding women development and to analyse the efficiency of resources allocations in order to eliminate the gap or overlap in utilization so that resources available can be maximized.

1.3 Resources for women development in the present study will be limited to **budget** and **personnel**.

1.4 The scope of the study will be limited to budget expenditures for programmes and projects for women development conducted by the GOs or NGOs in the past five years.

1.5 The data collected are from questionnaires answered by the GOs and NGOs and from secondary sources such as annual budgets, research papers etc. .

1.6 Limitations of the study: since the topic of women development resources is rather new and there has been no specific study in this area, gathering of data presents problems such as follow:

1.6.1 Several programmes and projects cannot be attributed to women alone as a specific target group, because they were intended for the whole population such as education, health, vocational training. Hence these budget allocations must be excluded in analyzing budgets for women development projects.

1.6.2 Most budget allocations are done according to line of administration such as general administration, public utilities. Thus, such allocations cannot be identified as development or nondevelopment.

#### 2. TYPES AND SOURCES OF RESOURCES

##### 2.1 BUDGET

###### 2.1.1 Budget Allocations in Government Budgets

- 1) The annual budget allocations system of the government is divided into 2 types:
  - (1) Allocations by programmes and project structures,
  - (2) Allocations by government organization.

2) Budgets allocated by programmes and project structures are divided into sectors: programmes and sub-programmes which are separated into 12 sectors such as agriculture, education, social service etc. .

3) Budgets allocated by government agency sub-projects. These are divided among 17 organizations such as Central Budget, Prime Minister's Office, Ministries, Independent Public Agencies, State Enterprises etc. .

4) As budgets allocated by a sectoral approach, covering 12 sectors, the system does not specify the types of target groups such as women, children, the elderly.

5) However, many government organizations are concerned with women development such as the Department of Health, the Department of Labour and the Department of Public Welfare. They all aim at improving the potential of women development in various aspects such as education, occupations, political participation.

### 2.1.2 Sources of Budgets

#### 1. Government Agencies

- **National Budget** : most government agencies receive an annual budget allocation according to programmes and projects.
- **Foreign Aids** : many foreign organizations are involved in women development in Thailand: UNDP, ILO, WELD, CCF etc. . Such aid comes in various forms such as financial assistance, equipment, technical experts, etc. . Usually the assistance is channeled through the Department of Technical and Economic Cooperation, Office of the Prime Minister.

#### 2. Non-Government Organizations

Allocations are from four sources:

- **Income of the Organization** from various activities such as product promotion, music foundations etc.
- **Donations** from individuals, groups etc.
- **Government Subsidies**: three-fourth of the NGOs receive some government subsidies but in very small amounts when compared to the scope of the work; in 1989, the National Council for Women received a government subsidy of only 100,000. (about 4.3% of the council budget expenditures).
- **Foreign Assistance** : this is a very important source of funding because many of NGOs must rely on such sources.

### 2.1.3 The Amount of Allocations for Women Development

#### 1) Government Budget

Government budget allocations for women development can be into 3 types as follows:

##### (1.1) Direct Women Development Budget Allocations

Such allocations are for Women Occupation Promotion in the Women and Children Development Division, Community Development Department. In 1987 this project received an allocation of 5.5 million baht and in 1988 5.9 million baht (an increase of 7.37%). Then in 1989, the amount was 5.5 million baht, at the same level as in 1990, in 1991, the allocation was 9.2 million (an increase of 53.93%).

##### (1.2) Indirect Women Development Budget

The data collected from eight programmes of nine organizations show that the 1987 allocations of 738.6 million baht increased to 808.6 million baht in 1988 (an increase of 9.48%); in 1989 - 1990 allocations increased to 892.3 baht and 1,143.3 million baht respectively.

### **(1.3) Social Service Budget**

Such budget is used for the whole population, regardless of sex, such as for education and public health. The growth rate of this budget is rather stable at about 5-7% between 1988-1990.

In brief, allocations for specific women development programmes and other social development programmes (including women) increased at the rate between 7.5 and 5.5% during the years 1988-1990.

### **2) Non Government Organizations (NGOs)/Budgets**

The only available data on such budgets is from The National Council for Women (NCW). It was found that:

(2.1) In 1990, 62.2% of the total budget allocations came from agencies, organizations and individuals and only 2.5% from government subsidies.

(2.2) The budget of the NCW between 1986-1990 increased at the rate of 11.2%, 103.9%, -35.4% and 70.6% respectively.

## **2.2 PERSONNEL**

Personnel assigned to women development projects cannot be separated as such since they always work for other types of projects as well, whether they be government officials or workers in private organizations.

In government agencies, officers working for women development projects, including division heads or persons at the decision making level, are mostly female. Volunteers and temporary workers represent a very small number because of regulations, legal problems and lack of budget. As for the private sector, most field workers and volunteers and only a small number (about one out of six) work in offices. Most of the staff are female. At present, there has been a policy in the government agencies to emphasis popular participation so that in many projects local volunteers are involved in projects specifically aimed at women development.

## **3. RESOURCES UTILIZATION AND DISTRIBUTION**

### **3.1 RESOURCES UTILIZATION**

In the first three years 1988-1990 of the Sixth National Development Plan the following projects were aimed directly at women development:

3.1.1 In the Sixth National Development Plan, out of 273 women development projects, 221 are to be carried out by the government and 52 by the NGOs. Three-fourth of such projects are for quality of life development. Apart from that, there are projects for women development status, distribution of justice and security and women development mechanisms.

3.1.2 Up to the first half of the Sixth National Development Plan 159 projects (58%) had been implemented, the remaining 42% to be implemented during the second half of the plan. The projects implemented consist of 93 projects by the government (42%) and 66 projects by the NGOs (27%).

### **3.2 PROJECT DISTRIBUTION**

Even though more than half of all government development projects are to be distributed in all areas of the country, still 20% concentrated on the Bangkok metropolitan area. It was found that most projects are for the entire population regardless of gender. As for projects specific to women development most are implemented by the Department of Public Welfare, the Department of Agricultural Promotion and the Community Development Department.

As for NGOs women development projects, most are implemented in the Northeast Region; some projects are implemented in the Central and Northern Regions while the Southern Region received the least number of projects.

### **3.3 COMPARISON OF RESOURCE ALLOCATIONS OF GOs AND NGOs**

3.3.1 A comparison by programmes, projects and activities, shows that the government has set a priority for those concerned with the protection of women's rights and security, religious and cultural promotion, health promotion, family relations promotion and income generating activities respectively. As for NGOs, the priority is for projects to upgrade knowledge and skills for occupation, health and family promotion, protection of women's rights, cultural promotion and income generating activities respectively.

3.3.2 As for types of projects, it was found that 82% are development projects such as vocational training, improvement of quality of life, promotion of group training for women, seminars and research etc. . More than half of these projects are implemented by government agencies (60% of development projects and 54% of the welfare projects), the rest are implemented by NGOs.

### **3.4 PER HEAD COST FOR WOMEN DEVELOPMENT**

The highest government expenditures per head for women development programmes are those for the Community Development Department, between 400 - 500 baht per head. Next come skill promotion and basic training.

## **4. PROBLEMS IN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT BY THE IMPLEMENTING AGENCIES**

In the past there were problems due to the lack of awareness of the importance of women development from the policy level down to the implementation level.

Answers to the questionnaire show that problems are as follow:

1. Inadequate budget allocations for women development as well as inappropriate budget allocations. At the moment more budget allocations are needed for supplementary funds for the NGOs concerned.
2. Inadequate personnel due to lack of budget allocations which result in work overload and less efficiency. Officers have less opportunities to upgrade their potential and skills and the NGOs staff members have less educational qualifications.
3. Regulations, rules, conditions and steps in management and implementation have caused inefficiency problems while policy and decision makers have been less concerned with issues of women development.
4. Lack of an efficient coordinating system among government organizations and NGOs horizontally and vertically.

## **5. RECOMMENDATIONS AND GUIDELINES IN SOLVING PROBLEMS CONCERNING RESOURCES FOR WOMEN DEVELOPMENT**

In order to maximize efficiency and potential in allocating resources for women development the following recommendations are made:

## **5.1 POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS**

5.1.1 Promote resources for women development from various sources : national budget, foreign assistance and donations.

5.1.2 More annual budget allocations for National Commission on Women's Affairs (NCWA).

5.1.3 Allocate more resources for women development to rural areas and for women with special problems in order to serve the needs of the target groups.

5.1.4 Increase personnel for women development work and promote personnel training to increase efficiency.

5.1.5 Improve administrative and coordinating systems among women development organizations in order to maximize resource utilization.

5.1.6 Encourage the involvement of community and women group participation in the rural areas to solve local women problems.

5.1.7 Promote an analysis of present women situations including forecasting future problems in order to prioritize resource allocations.

## **5.2 MEASURES RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **5.2.1 Budget**

(1) There must be a Women Development Plan both at the long range (20 years) and at the five year plan level in accordance with each the National Economic and Social Development Plans. This must be submitted to the cabinet for approval and integrated in the National Plan.

(2) The NCWA must communicate to the concerned implementing agencies the women development policy framework for each five years so that such policy framework can be used as guidelines for their Ministry Operational Plan.

(3) The NCWA must inform the concerned agencies including the National Economic and Social Development Board and the Budget Bureau about the annual women development policy framework in order that their budget requests and allocations conform to such policy.

(4) The NCWA must disseminate technical knowledge on planning programmes and project formulation concerning women development including project ideas to the concerned agencies in order that they develop "good" programmes and projects in women development.

(5) The NCWA must request the cabinet approval for women development subsidies to be allocated to the NCWA in order that the NCWA may distribute such subsidies to the appropriate NGOs.

(6) Women Development Guidelines should be formulated at the area level and communicated to the provincial authorities and then to the central unit in order to serve the local needs of the women.

(7) The NCWA should urge the Ministry of Finance to provide tax deduction regulations to the donors to projects concerning women development and tax exemption to the non-organizations that do the work.

### **5.2.2 Personnel**

(1) All the implementing agencies concerned must have an operational plan for women development personnel requirements and co-ordinate with the Civil Service Commission for their approval.

(2) Seminars, workshops and training must be made for women development personnel, whether they be government officials or NGOs officers, to acquaint them with the knowledge, concepts, ideas and policies for women development including elimination of women discrimination.

(3) Incentives for women development volunteers must be made strengthen their morale.

### **5.2.3 Management and Co-ordination**

(1) There is a need for a co-ordination plan for implementation and resources allocation among agencies concerned maximize the use and distribution of resources to insure coverage of the various target groups of women.

(2) Simultaneous and periodical monitoring and evaluation must be made for women development programmes and projects for any adjustment needed to maximize the efficiency.

(3) Establishment of a National Women Information Center must be encouraged in order to serve as a center for women data and information and a centre for national networking.

## **5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESOURCES ALLOCATIONS**

Resources should be allocated to the followings:

5.3.1 Welfare services for deserted urban elderly women.

5.3.2 Assistance for single women who head households with dependents in terms of tax deduction (according to number of children) and child care services.

5.3.3 Promotion for women activities in solving problems of environment.

5.3.4 Campaign for special education for women in rural deprived areas and urban slums by encouraging young girls to further their education and to develop their potential.

5.3.5 Legal knowledge and assistance for women should be promoted continuously and organizations for women rights and equality should be promoted.

5.3.6 Foster the participation of the mass media, especially educational mass media, in developing disadvantaged women such as rural women, women workers, women in slums.

5.3.7 Welfare and assistance should be made for women in the sex trade, eradication of child prostitution, international women trade and women with HIV, especially pregnant women. These must include law amendment and enforcement, protect and control sexually transmitted diseases including rehabilitation services.

## **5.4 FUTURE RESEARCH RECOMMENDATIONS**

In order to promote better knowledge in women development resources the following recommendations are made for further research:

5.4.1 Study costs and benefits returns per head by development sector and target group for women development.

5.4.2 Evaluation of efficiency and outcome of resources allocation for women development.

5.4.3 Women potential as resources in women development.

5.4.4 Quantity and quality of women development personnel in GOs and NGOs.

5.4.5 Gender analysis in social development programmes.

**Table 14-1** Budget Allocations for Women's Development Plans during 1985-1990

(Unit: Million baht)

Year	Budget for Women's Development Plan (1)	Budget for Social Services (2)	% (1) of (2)
1985	5.90	7,155.6	0.09
1986	5.54	6,404.8	0.09
1987	5.54	8,478.1	0.07
1988	5.95	9,621.9	0.07
1989	5.95	10,993.1	0.06
1990	9.16	20,389.4	0.05

**Source :** Report of Budget Vol. I, The Bureau of the Budget, Office of the Prime Minister.**Note :** The budget proportion of the Women's Development Plan in relation to the whole budget between 1985-1990 is 0.01%**Table 14-2** Budget on Women's Development of the Community Development Department and of the Office of the Permanent Secretary, The Prime Minister's Office during 1985-1990

(Unit: Million baht)

Year	Budget of the Community Development Department	Budget for Office of the Permanent Secretary The Prime Minister's Office	Total
1985	5.90	-	5.90
1986	5.54	-	5.54
1987	5.54	-	5.54
1988	5.95	-	5.95
1989	5.95	-	5.95
1990	9.16	1.09	10.25

**Source:** 1. Report of Budget Vol. I, The Budget Bureau  
2. Women's Affairs Sub-Division (NCWA Secretariat), General Affairs Division.**Note:** In 1989, the NCWA Secretariat was allocated a budget of 267,890 baht which came from budget allocations on Women's Development Plan of the Community Development which included in 5.95 million baht.

**Table 14-3** Projects and Budgets from Foreign Assistance and International Organizations for Women's Development during 1987-1990

No.	Project	Assistance Organizations	Number of Projects	Budget (Thousand baht)
1	Women Occupational Implement Product Center Project	UNDP	1	1,056.6
2	Women Occupational Implement Swine Feeding Project	UNDP	1	448.4
3	Self-employed Implementation of Rural Women Project	ILO	1	2,038.4
4	Participation of Women in Population Development (women ASEAN)	Australia Government	1	2,051.8
5	Project to Prepare Manuals and Material for Rural Women Development	WELD	1	999.9
6	Project to Train Officials on Rural Women Development	CODY	1	52.9
7	Children Development Project by their Families	CCF	3,469	90,489.2*

\* Occupational promotion for families of poor children

**Source:** Women and Child Development Division, The Community Development Department, in 1991

**Table 14-4** Source of Assistance for Women Development Budget of Non-Government Organizations (N = 17)

Source of Assistance	Number of Organizations
1. Donation from Internal Organizations	16
2. Assistance from Foreign Organizations	12
3. Income from own Organizations	16
4. Assistance from Government	12

**Source:** Questionnaire Answers

**Note:** Some organizations received assistance from more than one source

**Table 14-5** Estimated Budget in The Seventh National Economic and Social Development Plan (1992-1996) of the Women's Affairs Sub-Division, Office of The Permanent Secretary, The Prime Minister's Office

(Unit: thousand baht)

Program/Project	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	Total
1. Policy Principle Plan and Operation Plan on Women's Development Programme	321.6	-	-	-	321.6	642.3
2. Follow-up and Evaluation Programme	-	60.0	260.0	60.0	260.0	640.0
3. Reformation and Regulation on Women's Law Programme	55.6	55.6	55.6	55.6	55.6	278.0
4. Research on women's Policies, Data Collection and Information Programme	144.4	2,800.0	2,800.0	2,800.0	2,800.0	11,344.4
5. Coordination for Government and Non-Government Organization Assistance on Women's Development Programme	5,316.9	5,292.5	5,292.5	5,292.5	5,292.5	93,109.5
6. Dissemination and Public Relations on Women's Data Programme	22,765.2	22,573.8	22,573.8	22,573.8	22,573.8	113,060.6
7. Cooperation with Women International Organizations Programme	1,340.2	1,340.2	1,340.2	1,340.2	1,340.2	6,701.0
<b>Total</b>	29,966.5	32,122.2	32,322.2	32,122.2	32,643.8	159,176.9

Table 14-6 Women Development's Budget of Some Government Organizations during 1987-1990

Organizations	Budget (million baht)				Note
	1987	1988	1989	1990	
<b>1. Women Development's Budget</b>	<b>5.54</b>	<b>5.95</b>	<b>6.22</b>	<b>10.25</b>	- Women's Affairs Sub-Division, Office of The Permanent Secretary, The Prime Minister's Office, was established in 1989
1.1 The Community Development Department	5.54	5.95	5.95	9.16	
1.2 Office of the Permanent Secretary, The Prime Minister's Office	-	-	0.27	1.09	
<b>2. Other Development Budget Related to Women Development</b>	<b>738.62</b>	<b>808.62</b>	<b>895.28</b>	<b>1,143.29</b>	- Child and Youth Welfare, Welfare for the Destitutes Women Welfare Protection and Development - Concerning women labor protection - Encouragement for farmer house-wives - Household industry and handicrafts by local women
2.1 Social Welfare Department	172.13	210.43	222.85	285.41	
2.2 Department of Labor	10.09	10.82	11.21	14.86	
2.3 Department of Agriculture Extension	25.04	25.41	25.10	27.79	
2.4 Department of Industrial Promotion	31.21	32.72	35.72	55.89	
2.5 Department of Physical Education	20.57	17.76	11.50	18.48	
2.6 Department of Medical Sciences and The Food and Drug Administration	5.46	6.19	6.69	7.69	
2.7 Department of Health	382.67	403.23	471.27	598.31	
2.8 The Central Juvenile Court	83.89	96.13	101.99	125.69	- Vocational Training for young women at Ban Pranee
<b>3. Social Development Budget for both genders</b>	<b>53,076.48</b>	<b>56,306.81</b>	<b>60,507.12</b>	<b>63,643.07</b>	
3.1 Education	42,678.21	44,637.75	46,896.86	49,244.15	
3.2 Health	10,398.21	11,669.07	13,612.26	14,398.92	
Total 1 = 3	53,820.58	57,121.39	61,407.62	64,796.61	

Sources: 1. The Budget Bureau, Office of The Prime Minister, Budget Report 1987-1990

2. Office of The National Education Commission, Office of The Prime Minister, The Sixth National Education Development Plan (1987-1991)

3. Public Health Development Committee, Ministry of Public Health, Public Health Development Plan in the Sixth National Economic and Social Development Plan (1987-1991)

**Table 14-7** Budget of Women's Affairs Sub-Division (NWCA Secretariat) during 1989-1996 and Increase Rate

(Unit: baht)

Year	Budget	Increase Rate (%)
1989	267,890	-
1990	1,094,500	308.6
1991	2,117,500	93.5
1992	29,956,567	1,314.7

**Source:** Women's Affairs Sub-Division (NWCA Secretariat) in 1991

**Table 14-8** Women Development Budget of Non-Government Organizations (National Council of Women of Thailand) During 1986-1990, Classified by Budget Sources

(Unit: Thousand baht)

Assistance Source	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
Government	-	-	-	100.0	100.0
Foreign Assistance	-	-	-	-	579.9
Domestic Donations	1,212.6	1,276.1	3,083.0	1,466.2	2,455.7
Income such as dividends, interests	367.5	481.5	502.2	750.2	797.5
Total	1,580.1	1,757.6	3,585.2	2,316.2	3,951.1
(Increase Rate)	-	(11.2)	(103.9)	(-35.4)	(70.6)

**Source:** National Council of women of Thailand, in 1990

**Table 14-9** Project on the Decentralization of Government Organizations classified by Area, Target Group and Organization during 1987-1989

Classification of Project	Number of Projects	%
<b>1. Types of project</b>	<b>93</b>	<b>100</b>
1.1 Women's development project	63	67.7
1.2 Projects for both genders	30	32.3
<b>2. Operation Area</b>	<b>93</b>	<b>100</b>
2.1 Whole Kingdom	54	58.1
2.2 Target province	20	21.5
2.3 Bangkok	19	20.4
<b>3. Target Group</b>	<b>93</b>	<b>100</b>
3.1 Women representatives in the area	15	16.1
3.2 Rural Women/Farmers Wives	12	12.9
3.3 Girl/Women in Institutions	7	7.5
3.4 Women Employee and Child	6	6.4
3.5 Prostitutes	2	2.2
3.6 Women in Slums	10	10.8
3.7 Women	12	12.9
3.8 Males and Females	29	31.2
<b>4. Areas</b>	<b>93</b>	<b>100</b>
4.1 Urban areas	29	31.2
4.2 Rural areas	29	31.2
4.3 Any areas	35	37.6
<b>5. Organizations</b>		
<b>Ministry of Interior</b>	<b>59</b>	<b>63.3</b>
1. The Community Development Department	20	21.5
2. Department of Public Welfare	23	24.7
3. Department of Labor	4	4.3
4. Department of Local Administration	7	7.5
5. National Housing Authority	5	5.3
<b>Ministry of Public Health</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2.2</b>
1. Division of Occupational Health	2	2.2
<b>Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives</b>	<b>27</b>	<b>29.1</b>
1. Department of Agriculture Extension	21	22.6
2. The Cooperatives Promotion Department	4	4.3
3. Department of Agriculture	2	2.2
<b>Ministry of Education</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>1.1</b>
1. Department of Non-Formal Education	1	1.1
<b>Ministry of University Affairs</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>4.3</b>

Source: Answers to Questionnaire

**Table 14-10** Budget Distribution of Non-Government Organizations Classified by Geographic Region during 1986-1990

Region	Budget (Million baht)	%
- Northeastern Region	52.64	31.1
- Central Region	47.90	28.3
Northern Region	38.59	22.8
Southern Region	14.72	8.7
No specific area	15.40	9.1
Total	169.25	100.0

**Source:** Answers to Questionnaire

**Table 14-11** Comparison of Resources Distributions Between Government Organizations and Non-Government Organizations, Classified by Project/Job/Activities

Project/Job/Activities	Government Organizations		Non-Government Organizations	
	Number of Project	%	Number of Project	%
1. Protection of Women Rights and Welfare	26	27.96	13	19.70
2. Promotion of Family Health Care	12	12.90	13	19.70
3. Encouragement and Promotion of Economic Activities	7	7.53	7	10.61
4. Increasing Occupational Skills and Knowledge	35	37.63	26	39.40
5. Promotion of Religion, Culture and Social Work	13	13.98	7	10.91
Total	93	100.0	66	100.0

**Source :** Answers to Questionnaire

**Table 14-12** Comparison of Distribution between Government Organizations and Non-Government Organizations Classified by Development Project and Assistance Project.

(Unit : Project)

Project	GO	NGO	Total
<b>Development Project</b>	<b>78 (59.6) (83.9)</b>	<b>53 (40.5) (80.3)</b>	<b>131 (100.0) (82.4)</b>
- Promote/Founding/Group Activities Training/ Women Organizations	27	7	34
- Promote/Vocational Training/Upgrade skills Quality of life	34	15	49
- Community Development/Voluntary	-	2	2
- Law of Knowledge/Promotion of Education/ Scholarship	-	10	10
- Promotion on Nutrition	2	1	3
- Promotion on Family Planning/Child Foster Training 5	8	13	
- Ethnic/Cultural Promotion	1	5	6
- Seminar/Research/Study	9	5	14
- Assistance and Protection/Women Hostel Child Centre	8	8	16
- Counselling/Work Placement	2	1	3
- Medical and Social Services	5	4	9
Total	93 (58.5) (100.0)	66 (41.5) (100.0)	159 (100.0) (100.0)

**Source:** Answers to Questionnaire

**Note:** Numbers in parenthesis are percentages

**Table 14-13** Budget for Promotion and Development on Women Occupation and Expenditures per Head of Women and Child Development Division, The Community Development Department

Project	1987			1988			1989			1990		
	Budget million (B)	Population	Per head (B)	Budget million (B)	Population	Per head (B)	Budget million (B)	Population	Per head (B)	Budget million (B)	Population	Per head (B)
1. Basic Training	1.7	12,298	139.1	1.1	6,277	171.8	1.1	5,547	207.9	2.9	10,074	285.7
2. Skill Training	1.7	10,313	168.8	2.1	11,817	174.4	1.4	6,704	211.5	1.4	4,576	306.2
3. Business Promotion	-	-	-	-	-	-	.9	1,544	587.3	1.2	2,454	494.9

**Source:** Report in 1990, Women and Child Development Division, The Community development Department

## ANNEX I

### DETAILS OF REVENUES AND EXPENSES IN ANNUAL BUDGET ALLOCATIONS

The Thai government budget system is classified by income and expenses:

#### **1. Income comes from two source:**

- 1.1 Internal Income such as taxes, income from services, commercial organizations and others.
- 1.2 Domestic loans in the form of loans from the Bank of Thailand, the Government Savings Bank, Commercial Banks, Monetary Institutions and the Private Sector.

#### **2. Expenses in the annual budget are classified into two main types:**

- 2.1 Planning Structure consists of sector/programme/sub-programme/project.

In the 1990 annual budget there are 12 sectors as follow:

- (1) Agriculture
- (2) Mines and Industry
- (3) Communications and Transport
- (4) Commerce and Tourism
- (5) Science, Technology, Energy and Environment
- (6) Education
- (7) Public Health
- (8) Social Services
- (9) National Security
- (10) Internal Peace
- (11) Government Administration
- (12) Loan payments

- 2.2 Government Organizations include programmes and projects according to ministries and departments. In the 1990 annual budget there were 17 Ministries as follows:

- (1) Central budget
- (2) Office of the Prime Minister
- (3) Ministry of Defence
- (4) Ministry of Finance
- (5) Ministry of Foreign Affairs
- (6) Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives
- (7) Ministry of Transport and Communications
- (8) Ministry of Commerce
- (9) Ministry of Interior
- (10) Ministry of Justice
- (11) Ministry of Science, Technology and Energy
- (12) Ministry of Education
- (13) Ministry of Public Health
- (14) Ministry of Industry
- (15) Ministry of University Affairs
- (16) Independent Public Agencies
- (17) State Enterprises

ANNEX II

LIST OF WOMEN DEVELOPMENT ORGANIZATIONS RESPONDING TO THE  
QUESTIONNAIRE

**1. Government Organizations**

**Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives**

- 1.1 Department of Agriculture Extension
- 1.2 The Cooperatives Promotion Department
- 1.3 Department of Agriculture

**Ministry of Interior**

- 1.4 Department of Local Administration
- 1.5 The Community Development Department
- 1.6 Department of Public Welfare
- 1.7 Department of Labor
- 1.8 National Housing Authority

**Ministry of Education**

- 1.9 Department of Non-Formal Education

**Ministry of Public Health**

- 1.10 Department of Health

**Ministry of University Affairs**

**2. Non-Government Organizations**

- 2.1 Women Lawyer Association of Thailand
- 2.2 Thai Women's Farmer Association
- 2.3 Business and Professional Women's Association of Thailand
- 2.4 The Women Secretaries' Association of Thailand
- 2.5 The Thai Association of University Women
- 2.6 Thai Home Economics Association
- 2.7 Peace of Mind Nun's Foundation
- 2.8 Population and Community Development Association
- 2.9 Thai Nun's Foundation
- 2.10 Foundation for Promotion of Welfare for Women and Youth
- 2.11 Good Shepherd Sisters
- 2.12 Thai Women's Culture Club
- 2.13 The Thai Medical Women Association of Thailand
- 2.14 The Planned Parenthood Association of Thailand
- 2.15 Foundation for Women
- 2.16 Friends of Women's World Banking Association
- 2.17 The Pan Pacific and Southeast Asia Women's Association
- 2.18 The National Council of Women of Thailand Under the Royal Patronage of Her Majesty the Queen

CHAPTER 15

**INDICATORS  
ON THE STATUS OF WOMEN  
AND RESEARCH TOPICS  
ON WOMEN'S DEVELOPMENT**

## CHAPTER 15

### PART ONE : INDICATORS ON THE STATUS OF WOMEN

#### 1. SOCIAL INDICATORS

##### 1.1 DEFINITION OF SOCIAL INDICATORS

According to UNESCO "Social indicators are usually employed by planners as "good statistics" to record the success or failure of governmental programmes translated into a series of efforts to attain targets and eventually the goal formulated; social indicators should be formulated on the basis of a systematic approach so that they can operate as supra-sets of variables"<sup>1</sup>

Barnard Cazes says that "A social indicators is a measurement of social phenomena, which are trans-economic. It is normative (of finalized), and is integrated in a self-consistent in formative system."<sup>2</sup>

According to Sheldon and Freeman "Social indicator is a statistics of direct normative interest which facilitates conoise, comprehensive and balanced judgements about the condition of major aspects of society"<sup>3</sup>

Mukherjee states that "That role of social indicators is to indicate whether or not the goal or the targets are on the way to attainment".<sup>4</sup>

The NESDB defines social indicators as:<sup>5</sup>

- a social index
- an instrument to guide to the right and desirable direction
- a sign of social change

Sithapthim Phanitphan defines social indicators as an instrument to measure normative characters, i.e., measurement of social needs and social change, which help to identify social goals, evaluate impacts of past activities, and define future activities.<sup>6</sup>

Pensri Suroj defines indicators as a demonstration of condition of variables at a certain time and place.<sup>7</sup>

Thus, summarizing the above definitions, one can say that social indicators are indexes or statistics which describe the current state of social situations and problems and measure changes in trends of social development as well as different social aspects in the future, usually using quantitative and qualitative approaches, to measure socio-economic conditions of life in contemporary societies.

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<sup>1</sup> UNESCO, **Socio-economic indicators for planning : methodological aspects and selected examples**. Imprimerie de la Manutention, Mayenne, France, 1981.

<sup>2</sup> Barnard Cazes, "The Development of Social Indicators : A Survey" **Social Indicators**, Dept. of Health and Social Security, P. 14.

<sup>3</sup> E.B. Sheldon & H.E. Freeman, **Notes of Social Indicators: Premises and Potential Policy Sciences**, 1970, P. 5.

<sup>4</sup> Ramkrishna Mukherjee, **Use of social indicators for planning**. Indian Statistical Institute Calcutta, India.

<sup>5</sup> National Economic and Social Development Board, **Socio-Economic Journal**, Vol. 17 No. 4 July - August 1980, P. 52.

<sup>6</sup> Sithapthim Phanitphan, Dr., "Macro Social Work", **Curriculum of Public Welfare Administrator**, No. 1, Department of Public Welfare 1980, P. 85.

<sup>7</sup> Pensri Suroj, **Policy Formulation, Planning and Evaluation of Public Health Development**, second editon, 1986, P. 86.

## 1.2 CLASSIFYING SOCIAL INDICATORS<sup>8</sup>

Social Indicators may be classified as follows:

### A. OBJECTIVE AND SUBJECTIVE INDICATORS

Objective indicators are the occurrences of given phenomena, such as environmental stimuli and behavioural responses, which are measurable on an interval or ratio scale, and amenable to the usual methods of data analysis.

Subjective indicators are those based on reports from individuals on the “meaning” aspects of their reality and as such represent psychological variables which are usually presented on an ordinal scale. As an example, time-series, arrest statistics, or money-income levels, are objective social indicators, while feelings and perceptions of individuals about street safety, or relative deprivation, are subjective social indicators. The specific study of well-being as defined by subjective social indicators is often called “quality-of-life” research.

### B. QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE INDICATORS

A few authors (Henderson, 1974; Mindlin, 1974) have used the terms **quantitative** and **qualitative** indicators instead of objective and subjective respectively. Their motivation for this is understandable but the terms themselves are confusing, for subjective ordinal rankings are often manipulated in a quantitative, statistical manner. Further, as Bunge (1975) points out, this distinction may partly reflect more on the backward state of the field of social indicator research than on the actual subjectivity of the conditions being investigated.

### C. INPUT, THROUGHPUT AND OUTPUT INDICATORS

Social indicators may be measures of input, throughput, or output. Input measures are the resources available to some process affecting well-being in the social environment, for example, number of doctors per unit of population. Secondly, throughput indicators are usually based on workload or caseload measures e.g. numbers of doctor visits for flu shots or tons of refuse collected per man-hour, for example. Thirdly, there are intermediate output indicators which are measures of the results of specific activities performed, for example, extension of life expectancy, reduction in morbidity, or infant mortality. These constitute some of the most policy useful social indicators. They do, however, represent **quantity**, not quality, of life. Lastly, there are final output measures of such concepts as a “healthy” population to a “better” environment. The latter are often measured by subjective social indicators; most objective social indicators are of the input, throughput, or intermediate output variety.

### D. DESCRIPTIVE AND DIAGNOSTIC EVALUATIVE INDICATORS

**Descriptive** social indicators consist of collections of apparent fact—they are not based on any explicit model of cause and effect, on any means-end relationships, or any prospective theory about the allocation of resources (Davies, 1977). Normative, or **evaluative**, social indicators, on the other hand, are usually based on a model and either draw a conclusion on the relationship of two or more factors in the past (evaluation) or attempt to predict the relationship between two or more factors in the future. Normative indicators often suggest that some social effect is good or bad, better or worse, or may indicate a potential allocation of resources. Such normative indicators have also been called **analytic** or **diagnostic**.

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<sup>8</sup> UNICEF and ESCAP, Outline on Classifying Social Indicators. Second UNICEF/ESCAP Training Workshop on Social Indicators for Children and Women in the Asia-Pacific.

## E. INFORMATIVE, PREDICATIVE, PROBLEM-ORIENTED, PROGRAM EVALUATION INDICATORS

In Carlisle's scheme social indicators are classified according to their policy use:

**INFORMATIVE INDICATORS** - which are intended to describe the social system and the changes taking place within it. These are social statistics subject to regular production as a time-series and which can be disaggregated by relevant variables. For example, data on recreational facility use, disaggregated by age-groupings, provide important background information to our policy problem.

**PREDICATIVE INDICATORS** - which are informative indicators fitting in-to explicit formal models of subsystems of the social system. For example, a model consisting of a series of indicators of various environmental factors (family income levels, urban recreational facility location, spare time usage) which might be variables in a model which attempts to predict potential levels of juvenile crime in particular neighbourhoods.

**PROBLEM-ORIENTED INDICATORS** - which point towards policy situations and actions on specific social problems, like measures of high juvenile crime rates in areas with, among other factors, little or no recreational facilities.

**PROGRAM EVALUATION INDICATORS** - which are operationalised policy goals to monitor the progress and effectiveness of particular policies. For example, a policy may be instituted which actively seeks to increase recreational facility use by teenagers in certain neighbourhoods. The success of such a programme would be evaluated by reference to increase in the number and type of user.

### 1.3 HOW SOCIAL INDICATORS ARE MEASURED

As statistical indexes, social indicators are usually defined in one of the following ways.

First, in what may be called **state-occupancy indexes**, the indicators consist of **numbers** or **proportions** (often called **rates**) of persons in a population or sub-population of a society, who occupy specified social states or who possess specified social attributes at a given point in time. A classical example of a socio-economic indicator of this type is the unemployment rate which is usually defined as the proportion of persons in the civilian labour force who do not have jobs but are actively looking for work.

Second, in what may be called **state-transition indexes**, the indicators consist of **numbers** or **proportions** (often called **rates**) of persons in a population or sub-population of a society who make a transition from one specified social state or attribute to another within a specified time interval. An example of this type of indicator is the number or proportion of persons enrolled in a particular type of schooling institution who graduate in a given year.

Often it is the case that statistical information on transitions between social states are produced in the form of vital statistics rates or ratios which cannot be directly interpreted as state-transition indexes. Vital statistics rates take the form of **occurrence/exposure rates**, in which the numerator represents the number of occurrences of a specified vital event, or more generally, the number of moves between two states, during a given time interval. The denominator represents, exactly or approximately, the size of the population within which the event or movement took place. On the other hand, if the denominator represents the number of occurrences during the same time interval of some other event or movement between states, which may or may not include the one represented by the numerator as a subclass, then the quotient is usually described as a vital statistics ratio. These two types of statistics yield two additional classes of social indicators which may be called **state-movement rates** and **state-movement ratios**, respectively.

## **2. SOCIAL INDICATORS ON THE STATUS OF WOMEN**

### **2.1 DEFINITION OF SOCIAL INDICATORS ON THE STATUS OF WOMEN**

Social indicators on the status of women are indexes or statistics which describe the current state of a social situation and the problems of women to measure women's development and the changing trends in quantitative terms from the past to the present of the composition in socio-economic conditions related.

### **2.2 UTILIZATION OF SOCIAL INDICATORS ON THE STATUS OF WOMEN<sup>9</sup>**

Social indicators on the status of women can be utilized at four levels, each of which is described below.

#### **(a) Integration of social, economic and related statistics**

The development of statistics and specification of indicators on the status of women will provide an important reference point and data collection guidelines for the more general process of developing integrated social, economic and related statistics. The purpose of social statistics-exemplified by the population census is to provide a nation-wide information system sustained by regular time-series data. Collected at long-term intervals, such data allow comparisons of long-term trends as well as the registration of significant fluctuations in broad demographic, social and economic characteristics of total populations. Such data are crucial to analysing long-term patterns and determining the direction of change in women's and men's lives over extended periods. However, because of their infrequency, long gestation period and restricted format, censuses by themselves are less useful for monitoring purposes and for policy action. Thus, household surveys and other sources of integrated social, economic and related statistics are also discussed in this paper.

#### **(b) Monitoring trends**

Social statistics are necessary for monitoring and evaluating changes in the role of women resulting from socio-economic transformation and for assessing the impact of development programs and projects formulated and implemented on behalf of women.

With respect to monitoring the impact of modernization on the role of women, there is further need to develop statistics to monitor more closely what is occurring in women's lives as a result of migration, family fragmentation, urbanization and modification of domestic structures.

#### **(c) Social reporting**

The identification and the compilation of social indicators and statistics on women are particularly important for social reporting, the objective of which is to identify areas and groups as targets for policy action. Appropriate statistics can reflect special needs, such as those of women, the elderly, refugees and migrants.

#### **(d) Assessing the status of women**

Despite past efforts to assess the status of women, there is a continuing need to identify and compile more sensitive indicators to reflect the relationship between the sexes in terms of gaps between male and female rates, representation ratios and segregation indexes.

The objectives of assessing the status of women are conceptually distinct from those of social monitoring and social reporting in that the status of women is an equity-oriented rather than a development-oriented

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<sup>9</sup> United Nations, **Improving Concepts and Methods For Statistics and Indicators on the Situations of Women**, New York 1984, p. 3-4

or welfare-oriented concept, although the three are clearly interrelated. Indicators of the status of women thus place greater emphasis on equality of opportunity and define sex differentials in terms of the resource and options available to men and women which constitute the determinants of their status. All social statistics related to the measurement to the status of women must express the relative position of women versus men. Ideally, in collecting data for that purpose, similar formats should be used for men and women, and the same time period and geographical locations should be covered.

In addition, social indicators can be used for such purposes as social analysis, development planning and the construction of an "index of well-being for women."

### **3. COMPILING SOCIAL INDICATORS ON THE STATUS OF WOMEN**

#### **3.1 PROGRESS REPORT ON COMPILATION OF SOCIAL INDICATORS ON THE STATUS OF WOMEN**

This part, reports on social indicators compiled on the status of women at the international and national levels, as follows:

##### **(1) International level**

In recent years, many inter-organizations and regional organizations have studied and identified social indicators on the status of women which can be divided into many approaches such as :-

A) United Nations, 1984 identified and classified social indicators on the situation of women into 5 following areas: (1) population (2) family formation, families and households (3) learning and the educational services (4) earning activities and the inactive and (5) health, health services and nutrition. However, the illustrative examples of social indicators on the situation of women are distributed in 3 levels by different types of countries: (a) least developed countries (b) developing countries and (c) developed countries.

B) UNICEF identified social indicators on women which affect children and reported annually indexes and statistics on the state of the world's children. The report includes 7 major indicators as follows: (1) life expectancy (2) literacy (3) enrollment in school (4) contraceptive use (5) tetanus immunization (6) trained attendance at birth and (7) maternal mortality.

C) United Nations-Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP), 1989 identified data and indicators on the topic "Selected Statistical Data and Indicators on the Status of Women for Asia and the Pacific" to compare the status of women in Asia countries and the Pacific region. These data and indicators can be classified into 13 areas as follows: (1) population composition, distribution and change (2) households and families, marital status, fertility (3) economic participation and population not economically active, and employment (4) national and household income and expenditure (5) education and literacy (6) health and health services; disabled persons (7) housing conditions and human settlements (8) public affairs and political participation (9) crime and criminal justice (10) legal issues pertaining to women (11) access to loans, credit and ownership issues (12) women's access to health and social services (13) women at special risk.

D) Women's Information Network for Asia and the Pacific (WINAP), 1987 studied and identified the indicators for monitoring the situation of women and classified them into 8 areas as follows: (1) demographic and health indicators (2) educational indicators (3) economic participation (4) legal rights (5) political participation (6) access to social services (7) government allocation of resources for women's concerns and (8) social indicators for women at special risk.

## (2) National level

In Thailand, there are many organizations and agencies which have studied and identified social indicators for women's development that can be summarized as follows:

A) The Task Force on Long Term Women's Development Plan under the Thailand National Commission on Women's Affairs, 1981 which formulated the Long Term Women's Development Plan (1982-2001), identified social indicators on the status of women into 8 categories as follows : (1) situation of population (2) roles of women in labour participation and income earning (3) status of women in education (4) status and roles of women in religion and culture (5) women's health (6) roles of women in the family (7) roles and status of women in politics and administration and social organizations and (8) women's problems.

B) The National Economic and Social Development Board (NESDB) collected statistics and indicators on women status from secondary sources and developed into women status indicators for 1982-1986, covering 7 sectors as follows : (1) population (2) health and nutrition (3) education (4) economic status (5) social status (6) politics and administration (7) religion and culture.

C) The National Rural Development Co-ordination Centre, NESDB, the Information Processing Institute for Education and Development, Thammasat University and the Community Development Department have identified indicators on basic minimum needs (BMN) and collected basic data on household and community levels since 1984. There are only 3 indicators of BMN, which are classified into 8 categories and 32 indicators, concerned with women's affairs directly. These indicators are (1) pregnant women's adequate food consumption or food supplies (2) pregnant women receiving antenatal care and (3) breast-feeding mothers receiving natal care after childbirth.

D) The Thailand Development Research Institute Foundation (TDRI) collected information about women according to categories as follows: population, fertility, migration, health, education, labour, and politics administration.

E) The National Youth Bureau (NYB) studied indicators for women's development and presented them to the seminar on women's development at the Imperial hotel on 23-25 November 1986. Results are classified into 7 categories as follows: population, health, nutrition, education, economic, social indicators and politics and administration.

F) The National Council of Women of Thailand, 1987 collected data and statistics about women and published Facts and Figures on Thai Women, according statistic to 7 categories as follows : (1) population, family and households (2) occupation and labour (3) health (4) education (5) political and administrative participation (6) offence against the law and (7) social welfare and training for women's groups.

G) The sub-committee on indicators for women's development, 1988 studied and identified indicators for women's development, and grouped them into 8 sectors as follows: (1) population (2) health and nutrition (3) education (4) economic participation (5) political and administrative participation (6) access to social services (7) budget allocation for women's concerns and (8) social indicators for women at special risks.

H) The Community Development Department, at a national seminar on indicators for women identified 10 sectors as follows: (1) nutrition (2) housing and environment (3) sexual division of labour and duties (4) access to social basic services (5) social safety (6) occupation and income (7) family planning (8) participation in the development of quality of life and community (9) spiritual development and (10) goals setting in the development of quality of life.

### 3.2 SOURCES OF DATA FOR SOCIAL INDICATORS ON THE STATUS OF WOMEN

The study is to identify social indicators on the status of women found that data sources and general issues concerning all data collection efforts from many individual countries came from three major sources as follows:<sup>10</sup>

<sup>10</sup> United Nations, **Compiling Social Indicators on the Situation of Women**, New York 1984, P. 7-8

- a) censuses of population and housing,
- b) sample surveys of the population,
- c) registration and administrative data systems.

First and foremost, it is important to note that no single source can provide all of the data needed by different countries and by different users within those countries to describe the situation of women. There are three types of official national sources of basic data on women : censuses of population and housing, sample surveys of the population and registration and administrative data systems. Although each of these major data sources has advantages and limitations, they must be seen as complementary in order to be used most effectively. Used in concert, they provide a considerable amount of data for indicators needed for planning, administration and research.

A) Population and housing censuses are probably the most comprehensive source of social and economic data needed for indicators in most countries. They provide universal coverage and a wide variety of data is collected to describe the size and characteristics of the population at specified intervals. Thus a broad range of possibilities exists for cross-classification of census data geographically and according to selected demographic, social and economic characteristics. Because population censuses are relatively infrequent, however, the data become outdated. Also, such large bodies of data are expensive to manipulate. None the less, for most countries, censuses provide the starting point for meeting data requirements and for experimentation in the construction of social indicators.

B) Sample surveys of the population provide a basis for updating census information for the nation as a whole and for some broad geographical areas. They are extremely flexible data sources and provide a comprehensive source of social and economic data between censuses. Almost any subject can be explored and many countries have developed extensive survey and each type has advantages and disadvantages. They all sample a small part of the entire population to obtain needed and timely information on topics as diverse as unemployment and energy use. Because the information is collected from a relatively small sample, it is generally not possible to obtain detailed cross-tabulation of social and economic data by small geographical areas.

C) Another potential data source is registration and administrative record systems. These include civil registration of births, deaths, marriages and divorces. Unfortunately, although these sources are of great importance to women, they are often limited in content and coverage.

It is important to reiterate that the relationship between the three major sources of data is complementary. The relationship between population and housing censuses on the one hand and population surveys on the other is one between infrequent but geographically detailed cross-section data and more frequent but less geographically detailed data provided by sample surveys. They are complementary in other ways also. The census may cover a broad range of topics, but most are covered in only a brief fashion. These same topics may be examined in much greater detail in a survey. For example, labour-force status and occupation may be covered in a census, but additional items such as skills, hours worked, secondary occupations and the like may be covered in a survey. Sample household surveys also provide a mechanism for collecting data quickly such as, for example, in response to the energy crisis and for studying voting patterns associated with civil rights or human rights legislation. Adequate survey design, in turn, is usually dependent on the detailed population and housing counts, maps and other material obtained through a census.

In short, the three major data sources (and collection methods) must be seen as reasonably well -defined processes with distinctive, though overlapping, characteristics with respect to content, detail, accuracy and timeliness of the data they generate. They are complementary and no one of them alone is the best or most adequate source of data for indicators on the status of women.

In Thailand, there are many various agencies which constitute sources of data concerning women and data collecting in the primary type. These sources of data are similar to the international sources as follows:

a) Censuses of population and housing, which are collected every 10 years by the National Statistical Office. Censuses cover items such as number of population, households, marital status, migration, education, employment and housing etc. .

b) Data and statistics on the basic minimum needs (BMN) at the local levels which collected annually or biannually since 1984 by the National Rural Development Co-ordination Centre, the National Economic and Social Development Board (NESDB), the Information Processing Institute for Education and Development, Thammasat University and the Community Development Department. The BMN's objectives are to measure the quality of life of people at the household and community levels and to evaluate the development in the whole country. The data for BMN consist of general information for development such as population, households, environment, water supplies and sanitation, economic participation, health, education etc. .

c) Censuses and sample surveys of the National Statistical Office which is responsible for data and statistical collecting and processing in the country. Illustrative data, for example, are population, households, marital status and fertility, migration, education, health, employment and various social data in many aspects etc. .

d) Registration and administrative records from governmental planning and implementing agencies, especially the four major ministries which are directly responsible for social and women's development as follows :

- The Ministry of Public Health is responsible for collecting data on health.
- The Ministry of Education and the Office of the National Education Commission, Office of the Prime Minister are responsible for collecting data on education.
- The Department of Labour, Ministry of Interior and the Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives are responsible for collecting data on employment and related economic activities.
- The Ministry of Interior is responsible for collecting data concerning social affairs as well as politics and administration etc. .

### **3.3 PROBLEMS AND ANALYSES**

The study of social indicators on the status of women and the sources of data show some general problems described below:

First, it is important to realize that all data are subject to error. Such errors do not render the data useless but they must be taken into account when the data are used. Different collection methods are subject to somewhat different types of error.

Second, there are more than one source which might provide relevant information on various aspects of the situation of women. Each source of data comprises a whole set of operational activities, from planning, organization and data collection to processing, tabulation and analysis, and these must all be understood in order to use the data effectively. Thus, great care must be exercised in using data from different sources.

Third, many data systems are subject to various kinds and degrees of error, lack of comprehensiveness and the like. Some statistics on women are inaccuracy and unreliability of data.

Fourth, there are sex biases in statistics on women which have not been given sufficient attention in formulating social policies. This is due in part to the fact that statistical work does not have as high a priority as other activities in the allocation of scarce resources. Thus statistics on both men and women are inadequate, and moreover, the needs of women, until recently, have been given even lower priority. The result is that data are insufficient and unreliable when relatively low priority is given to statistical work and the national statistical infrastructure is weak. Some population censuses are relatively infrequent; there are no permanent survey facilities; registration systems and other administrative records are deficient because statistical services are poorly staffed, are short of funds and thus

simply cannot collect and process data on many topics. In this context, it is understandable that statistics on women are also poor.

Fifth, this low priority problem is further aggravated by the fact that there is often a problem of communication between the users and producers of the data. In particular, offices for statistics are often inadequately staffed and overworked. At the same time these offices are faced with very concrete and pragmatic requests for data. At other times, users concerned with women's issues are frequently unable to describe their needs in specific terms. These are general problems which apply to producer and user relations in a number of areas.

Sixth, in addition to the more general problems of the quality of the basic statistical infrastructure and the communication gap between producers and users, there are two other types of problems which apply particularly to women. First, there are cultural preconceptions with respect to the appropriate roles for women or stereotypes that affect the design of censuses and surveys, and second, there are biases in the collection, processing, compilation and presentation of data on the status of women. These may arise because of sex related stereotypes or other technical factors in the processing of data.

#### **4. ILLUSTRATIVE INDICATORS ON THE STATUS OF WOMEN**

These social indicators on the status of women can be identified from many sources as follows :

(1) Social Indicators on Women's Development, the Sub-committee on the Indicators on Women's Development, Thailand, 1988.

(2) Social Indicators on the Situation of Women, United Nations, 1984.

(3) Selected Statistical Data and Indicators on the Status of Women for Asia and the Pacific, United Nations and ESCAP, 1988.

(4) Handbook for National Statistical Data Bases on Women and Development, United Nations, 1990.

Therefore the indicators presented in this part are based on official statistics and designed with a view towards having a set of reliable and internationally comparable indicators. These social indicators on the status of women can be classified into 9 fields and divided further into 80 indicators as follows:

##### **A. Population**

1. Size of the population
2. Net changes in population
3. Net migration of population
4. Geographical distribution and density of population

##### **B. Households and Families, Marital Status; Fertility**

1. Household size
2. Extended family households
3. Households with more than two children
4. Households with children under 15 years
5. Female headed households
6. Distribution of households by composition of the family
7. Homeless persons
8. Average age at first marriage
9. Proportion of the population ever married

10. Proportion of the population not married
11. Rates of marriages
12. Rates of divorces
13. Total fertility rate
14. Contraceptive prevalence rate

**C. Learning and Educational Services**

1. Illiteracy rate
2. School enrollment in regular education
3. Sex ratio of school enrollment for third level of education by fields of study
4. Population having completed regular education
5. Population who have attended non-formal education
6. Transition rate
7. Promotion rate
8. School-repeater rate
9. Drop-out rate
10. Sex ratio of teacher

**D. Health, Health Services and Nutrition**

1. Life-expectancy
2. Average age of mother at birth of first child
3. Birth rate
4. Population mortality rate
5. Infant mortality rate
6. Maternal mortality rate
7. Incidence in the population of selected diseases of public health importance
8. Mental disorders morbidity rate
9. Disabled persons
10. Suicide rate
11. Drug addicts and cigarette consumption
12. Abortion rate
13. Child births attended by physicians or trained auxiliary personnel
14. Pregnant women having received antenatal care 4 times by trained health personnel
15. Mother breast feeding having received natal care after childbirth by trained health personnel
16. Children immunized against specified diseases
17. Sex ratio in the population of physicians and health services personnel
18. Nutrition rate of Children
19. Nutrition rate of pregnant women and nursing mother
20. Infant with weight at birth under 3,000 grams
21. Per capita intake of energy (calories), protein and food consumption

**E. Economic Activity and Population not Economically Active**

1. Labour force participation
2. Population not in the labour force
3. Labour force in paid employment
4. Labour force unemployed

5. Overseas migrant workers
6. Occupational injuries of workers
7. Labour force deaths and withdrawing
8. Average hours of work
9. Average monthly income/wages

**F. Public Affairs and Political Participation**

1. Membership of major political parties
2. Voters in elections
3. Participation in parliamentary assemblies (upper chamber/unicameral or lower chamber) and the cabinet
4. Persons in national policy formulation, planning and decision making levels
5. Persons in senior administrative positions in the public and private sectors
6. Persons in politics and administration at local levels
7. Government representation in international fora
8. Administrators and office holders of major NGOs dealing exclusively with women's interests

**G. Legal Rights Issues**

1. Ratification, accession and signing of the United Nations International Convention on the Rights of Women (1979):
  - Elimination of all forms of discrimination
  - Equal political rights
  - Equal marriage rights
  - Equal rights in education
  - Equal rights in pay
  - Equal employment rights
  - Protection of mother and pregnant women
2. Gender based discrimination of rights and equity in Thai laws:
  - Family rights
  - Property rights
  - Personal rights of the wife
  - Marriage rights
  - Divorce rights
  - Rights to call off an engagement
  - Rights for education
  - Employment rights
  - Political participation rights

**H. Public Order and Safety**

1. Female victims and violence against women such as murder, assault, abuse, harassment, rape, beating and others etc.
2. Apprehended and imprisoned persons
3. Criminal offenders
4. Deserted and destitute population
5. Female victims of involuntary prostitution
6. Pregnant women without marriage licence giving birth to an illegitimate child

7. Induced abortion women
8. Female morbidity with AIDS/ARC, HIV as well as other STDs
9. Sex ratio of legal assistance and judicial personnel
10. Social services and institutional care for women at special risks

**I. Leisure and Cultural Activities**

1. Persons devoting time to leisure
2. Population active in selected social and cultural activities

**5. ILLUSTRATIVE SOCIAL INDICATORS ON THE STATUS OF WOMEN**

Field of Social Concern	Social Indicator	Classification	Definition
<b>1. POPULATION</b>			
1. Size, Structure and Changes in Population	1. Number and percentage of population	- Sex and age group (0-5, 6-14, 15-24, 25-44, 45-60, 61+yrs.)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- No. of total population</li> <li>- <math>\frac{\text{No. of female (male) population in each age group} \times 100}{\text{No. of total population}}</math></li> <li>- Sex is classified into female and male</li> <li>- age group is classified into 0-5, 6-14, 15-24, 25-44, 45-60 yrs. and over 60 yrs.</li> <li>- <math>\frac{\text{No. of female (male) infant born} - \text{no. of female (male) population dead} \times 100}{\text{No. of total population}}</math></li> </ul>
2. Population growth rate	2. Population growth rate	- Sex	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- No. of immigrating female (male) population in each age group - no. of emigrating female (male) population in each age group <math>\times 100</math></li> </ul>
3. Migration rate	3. Migration rate	- Sex and age group	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- <math>\frac{\text{No. of total population in the area before migration} - \text{urban refers to municipal areas and sanitary districts which a population density of 1,000 persons per 1 square kilometer and a population of more than 5,000 persons.}}{\text{No. of total population in the area before migration}}</math></li> <li>- Rural refers to areas out of the urban areas.</li> <li>- Geographical area includes the north, the northeast, the central plains, the south and the Bangkok Metropolis.</li> </ul>
4. Geographical Distribution of Population	4. Number and percentage of population	- Sex and urban/rural	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- No. of female (male) population who live in urban/rural area or any geographical region.</li> </ul>
5. Changes in Distribution	5. Ratio of density of population	- Sex and geographical area	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- <math>\frac{\text{No. of female (male) population who live in any area} \times 100}{\text{No. of total population}}</math></li> <li>- <math>\frac{\text{No. of female (male) population who live in any area}}{\text{Size of area (in square kilometers)}}</math></li> </ul>

Field of Social Concern	Social Indicator	Classification	Definition
<b>2. HOUSEHOLDS AND FAMILIES, MARITAL STATUS; FERTILITY</b>			
1. Household Size and Composition	1. Average size of household	- whole country	- $\frac{\text{Summation of no. of members of households}}{\text{Summation of no. of households}}$
	2. Percentage of extended family households	- urban/rural	- $\frac{\text{No. of extended family households} \times 100}{\text{No. of households}}$
	3. Percentage of households with more than two children	- urban/rural	- $\frac{\text{No. of households with over 3 children} \times 100}{\text{No. of households}}$
	4. Percentage of households with children under 15 yrs.	- urban/rural	- $\frac{\text{No. of households with children under 15 yrs.} \times 100}{\text{No. of households}}$
	5. Percentage of female headed households	- urban/rural	- $\frac{\text{No. of female headed households} \times 100}{\text{No. of households}}$
	6. Percentage of households distributed by composition of the family:	- size of household	- Size of household is classified into household with members less than 5 persons/5-9 persons/10 persons and over
	- married couples with children living alone	- urban/rural	- $\frac{\text{No. of households in any status of members} \times 100}{\text{No. of households}}$
	- married couples with children in laws living with		



Field of Social Concern	Social Indicator	Classification	Definition
	14. Sex ratio of contraceptive prevalence	- urban/rural	<p>the approximate total number of children an average woman will bear in her lifetime. (Source : UN Demographic Yearbook, 1984)</p> $\text{TRF} = n (nfx) \times 1,000$ $n = \text{no. of age group (= 5 yrs.)}$ $= \text{summation}$ $nfx = \text{birth rate by age group of women between age } x \text{ to } x + n \text{ years}$ <p>- No. of male population using contraceptive through male sterilization method - No. of female population using contraceptive through female sterilization method</p>
<b>3. LEARNING AND EDUCATION SERVICES</b>			
1. Education Attainment	1. Illiteracy rate  2. Percentage of school enrollment in regular education: - primary level - secondary level - higher level 3. Sex ratio of school enrollment for third level of education by fields of study	- sex and age group (15-24 yrs. and 15 yrs.) - sex and urban/rural - sex and geographical area - sex and age group (6-11, 12-14, 15-17, 18-24 yrs.) - sex and urban/rural - sex and geographical area - sex and fields of study - fields of study	- $\frac{\text{No. of female (male) illiterates over 15 yrs.} \times 100}{\text{No. of total population over 15 yrs.}}$ - Illiterate refers to persons who are out of Primary Education Act. and cannot, with understanding, both read and write a short simple statement on his/her everyday's life. - $\frac{\text{No. of female (male) students in regular education} \times 100}{\text{No. of total students in each education}}$ - $\frac{\text{No. of male students who enroll for third level of each field}}{\text{No. of female students who enroll for third level of each field}}$

Field of Social Concern	Social Indicator	Classification	Definition
<p>4. Percentage of population of school having completed regular education:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- primary level</li> <li>- secondary level</li> </ul> <p>5. Percentage of population who have attended non-formal education</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- sex and urban/rural</li> <li>- sex and geographical area</li> <li>- sex and urban/rural</li> <li>- sex and types of non-formal education</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- No. of female (male) students who are completed in regular education <math>\times 100</math> No. of total students who are completed in each education</li> <li>- Students who have completed refer to persons who enrolled in education or training and have completed the curriculum and passed the base line of a given level</li> <li>- No. of female (male) population over 15 yrs. and have attended non-formal education <math>\times 100</math> No. of total population over 15 yrs. and have attended non-formal education</li> <li>- Non-formal education is classified as:-             <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Basic education and continuing education refer to education for literacy, primary education and secondary education which is organized outside the framework of the established school system.</li> <li>2. Knowledge and information services such as radio programmes on education, exhibition, magazine, pamphlet, brochure, poster, slide, video, audio visual, village library, village reading center etc.</li> <li>3. Vocational training aiming to provide knowledge, skills, attitudes required for effective and efficient performance within an occupation which could include initial, refresher, advance, specialised job-related training.</li> </ol> </li> <li>- No. of female (male) students at first grade of education level x in year y <math>\times 100</math> No. of female (male) students at last grade of educational level (x-1) in year (y-1)</li> </ul>	
<p>2. Educational Efficiency</p>	<p>6. Transition rate</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- primary/secondary level</li> <li>- lower/upper secondary level</li> <li>- upper secondary/higher level</li> </ul>		

Field of Social Concern	Social Indicator	Classification	Definition
	7. Promotion rate (primary level)	- sex and urban/rural	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- <math>\frac{\text{No. of female (male) students promoted into grade } x \times 100}{\text{No. of female (male) students enrolled in grade } (x-1)}</math></li> <li>- Education promotion refers to student who passed the examination in each curriculum of education</li> <li>- <math>\frac{\text{No. of female (male) students who do not pass the examination and repeat the same class}}{\text{No. of female (male) students who enroll in each grade}} \times 100</math></li> <li>- School-repeaters are students who have repeated, or are currently repeating, the work of a grade or part of a subject at some designated level of difficulty. (Source: UNESCO's, Good, Dictionary of Education).</li> <li>- <math>\frac{\text{No. of female (male) students who leave from each education level} \times 100}{\text{No. of total female (male) students who enroll in each level}}</math></li> <li>- Students are regarded as "drop-outs" when they prematurely leave from any educational institution/school before completing a cycle course they have already started. (Source : UNESCO, Education IBE Thesaurus, 1985)</li> <li>- <math>\frac{\text{No. of total male teachers}}{\text{No. of total female teachers}}</math></li> </ul>
3. Educational Services	10. Sex ratio of teacher	- urban/rural - regular education	
<b>4. HEALTH, HEALTH SERVICES AND NUTRITION</b>			
1. State of Health	1. Life-expectancy	- sex and age (at birth, 1 yr., 15 yrs. and 45 yrs.) - sex and urban/rural	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Life expectancy is to be defined as the average number of years which individuals at birth, 1 yr., 15 yrs. and 45 yrs. are expected to live under the mortality pattern prevailing in the country. (Source: UN Demographic Yearbook, 1984)</li> <li>- <math>\frac{\text{Summation of each age of mothers at birth of first child} \times 100}{\text{No. of mothers at birth of first child}}</math></li> </ul>
	2. Average age of mother	- urban/rural	

Field of Social Concern	Social Indicator	Classification	Definition
	at birth of first child 3. Crude birth rate per 1,000 population (CBR) 4. Crude death rate per 1,000 population (CDR) 5. Infant mortality rate per 1,000 livebirths 6. Maternal mortality rate per 1,000 livebirths 7. Morbidity rate of population of selected diseases of public health importance 8. Mental disorders morbidity rate per 100,000 population 9. Rate of disabled persons per 100,000 population 10. Suicide rate per 100,000 population	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- sex and urban/rural</li> <li>- sex and age group (1-4, 5-14, 25-44 yrs.)</li> <li>- sex and urban/rural</li> <li>- sex and urban/rural</li> <li>- urban/rural</li> <li>- sex and types of diseases</li> <li>- sex and urban/rural</li> <li>- sex and types of disability</li> <li>- sex and urban/rural</li> <li>- sex and age group</li> <li>- sex and urban/rural</li> <li>- sex and age group</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- <math>\frac{\text{No. of female (male) infants ever born} \times 100}{\text{No. of total female (male) population}}</math></li> <li>- Number of child birth refers to number of infants born and surviving</li> <li>- <math>\frac{\text{No. of female (male) population who died} \times 1,000}{\text{No. of total female (male) population}}</math></li> <li>- <math>\frac{\text{No. of female (male) infants who died} \times 1,000}{\text{No. of total infants ever born}}</math></li> <li>- Number of infant deaths refer to deaths of infants less than one year old.</li> <li>- <math>\frac{\text{No. of mother who died because of pregnancy or delivery} \times 1,000}{\text{No. of total child births}}</math></li> <li>- <math>\frac{\text{No. of female (male) patients by leading groups of causes of diseases} \times 100}{\text{No. of total Patients by leading groups of causes of diseases}}</math></li> <li>- <math>\frac{\text{No. of female (male) patients by mental disorder} \times 100,000}{\text{No. of total female (male) population}}</math></li> <li>- <math>\frac{\text{No. of female (male) disabled} \times 100,000}{\text{No. of total female (male) population}}</math></li> <li>- Disability refers to blindness, deafness, loss or impairment of physical or mental function and retardation</li> <li>- <math>\frac{\text{No. of female (male) persons commit suicide} \times 100,000}{\text{No. of total female (male) population}}</math></li> </ul>

Field of Social Concern	Social Indicator	Classification	Definition
2. Availability and Use of Health Services	11. Drug addiction and cigarette consumption rate per 1,000 population	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- sex and age group</li> <li>- sex and urban/rural</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- <math>\frac{\text{No. of female (male) with drug addicts and cigarette smoking} \times 1,000}{\text{No. of total female (male) population}}</math></li> </ul>
	12. Percentage of abortion of pregnant women	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- urban/rural</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- <math>\frac{\text{No. of pregnant women who are abortive} \times 100}{\text{No. of total pregnant women}}</math></li> </ul>
	13. Percentage of childbirth attended by physicians or trained auxiliary personnel	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- urban/rural</li> <li>- geographical area</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- <math>\frac{\text{No. of infants born and attended by physicians or trained auxiliary personnel} \times 100}{\text{No. of total infants who born}}</math></li> </ul>
	14. Percentage of pregnant women received antenatal care 4 times by trained health personnel	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- urban/rural</li> <li>- geographic area</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- <math>\frac{\text{No. of pregnant women received antenatal care 4 times by trained health personnel} \times 100}{\text{No. of total pregnant women}}</math></li> </ul>
	15. Percentage of mother breast-feeding having received postnatal care by trained health personnel	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- urban/rural</li> <li>- geographical area</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- <math>\frac{\text{No. of mother breast-feeding received postnatal care by trained health personnel} \times 100}{\text{No. of total mother breast-feeding}}</math></li> </ul>
	16. Percentage of children immunized against specified diseases	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- sex and urban/rural</li> <li>- sex and geographical area</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- <math>\frac{\text{No. of girl (boy) children having received immunization against specified diseases} \times 100}{\text{No. of total children in each age group}}</math></li> <li>- Immunization against specified diseases refers to               <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. BCG injection against Tuberculosis</li> <li>2. DTP injection against Diphtheria, tetanus, Pertussis</li> <li>3. OPV oral against Polio</li> </ol> </li> </ul>

Field of Social Concern	Social Indicator	Classification	Definition
3. Nutrition	17. Sex ratio in the population of physicians and health services personnel 18. Nutrition rate of children (malnutrition) 19. Nutrition rate of pregnant women and nursing mother - Goiter from iodine deficiency - Anaemia from furous deficiency in pregnant and lactation period 20. Percentage of infants with weight at birth under 3,000 grams	- urban/rural - sex and urban/rural - sex and geographical area - urban/rural - geographical area - urban/rural - geographical area	4. Measles injection against Measles 5. Typhoid injection against Typhoid 6. Rubella injection against German Measles 7. T injection in pregnant women against Tetanus in newborn - No. of male physicians and health services personnel - No. of female physicians and health services personnel - $\frac{\text{No. of girl (boy) children with malnutrition in each degree} \times 100}{\text{No. of total girl (boy) children}}$ - Malnutrition from protein and energy of children is classified to 1. Children aged 0-4 yrs. classified to 4 levels: normal degree and malnutrition degree 1, 2, 3 2. Children aged 5-14 yrs. classified to 2 levels: normal and under normal degree - $\frac{\text{No. of women patients by Goiter from iodine deficiency} \times 100}{\text{No. of total female population}}$ - $\frac{\text{No. of pregnant and lactating women patients by Anaemia from furous deficiency} \times 100}{\text{No. of total pregnant women and lactating women}}$ - Lactating women refer to women who feed their children from birth to 1 1/2 yrs. old. - $\frac{\text{No. of infants with weight at birth under 3,000 grams} \times 100}{\text{No. of total infants born}}$

Field of Social Concern	Social Indicator	Classification	Definition
	21. Percentage of population who intake of energy (calories), protein and food consumption in a day	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- sex and age group (0-1, 1-4, 5-14, 15 yrs.</li> <li>- sex and urban/rural</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- <math>\frac{\text{No. of female (male) population who intake of energy, protein and food consumption in a day}}{\text{No. of total female (male) population}} \times 100</math></li> </ul>
<b>5. ECONOMIC ACTIVITY AND POPULATION NOT ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE</b>			
1. Labour Force Participation	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Rate of population participating in labour force</li> <li>2. Proportion of population not in the labour force</li> </ol>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- sex and age group (13-19, 20-24, 25 yrs.)</li> <li>- sex and urban/rural</li> <li>- sex and age group (13-24, 25 yrs.)</li> <li>- sex and urban/rural</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- <math>\frac{\text{No. of female (male) population who participate in labour force} \times 100}{\text{No. of total female (male) population}}</math></li> <li>- Labour force refers to persons age 13 years and over who were in the current labour force or were classified as seasonally inactive labour force.</li> <li>- <math>\frac{\text{No. of female (male) population not in the labour force} \times 100}{\text{No. of total female (male) population}}</math></li> <li>- Population not in the labour force refer to persons who were neither employed nor unemployed, nor classified as seasonally inactive labour force</li> </ul>
2. Employment Opportunities and Mobility	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>3. Proportion of labour force in paid employment</li> <li>4. Proportion of labour force unemployed</li> </ol>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- sex and age group</li> <li>- sex and urban/rural</li> <li>- sex and occupation</li> <li>- sex and types of jobs</li> <li>- sex and age group</li> <li>- sex and urban/rural</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- <math>\frac{\text{No. of female (male) population who are employed} \times 100}{\text{No. of total female (male) population in labour force}}</math></li> <li>- Employed population refer to persons, 13 years of age and over who worked for at least one hour for wages, profits, dividends or any other kind of payment, in cash or in kind</li> <li>- <math>\frac{\text{No. of female (male) population who are unemployed} \times 100}{\text{No. of total female (male) population in labour force}}</math></li> <li>- Unemployed population refer to person, 13 years of age and over who did not work even for one hour, had no jobs, business enterprises, or farms of their own, from which they were temporarily absent, but were available for work.</li> </ul>

Field of Social Concern	Social Indicator	Classification	Definition
3. Working Conditions	5. Proportion of overseas migrant workers 6. Proportion of occupational injuries of workers 7. Proportion of labour force deaths and withdrawing 8. Average hours of work (no. of week per year) 9. Average monthly income/wages	- sex and age group - sex - sex - sex and age group (10-14, 15-19, 20 yrs.) - sex and urban/rural - sex and occupation - sex and urban/rural - sex and geographical area	- $\frac{\text{No. of female (male) overseas migrant workers}}{\text{No. of total female (male) population in labour force}} \times 100$ - $\frac{\text{No. of female (male) occupational injury workers}}{\text{No. of female (male) population who are employed}} \times 100$ - $\frac{\text{No. of female (male) workers who are dead and withdrawn}}{\text{No. of female (male) population who are employed}} \times 100$ - $\frac{\text{Summation of hours of work of female (male) employed population}}{\text{No. of female (male) population who are employed}}$ - $\frac{\text{Summation of monthly income/wages of female (male) workers}}{\text{No. of female (male) population who are employed}}$
<b>6. PUBLIC AFFAIRS AND POLITICAL PARTICIPATION</b>			
1. Political and Administrative Participation	1. Ratio of members of major political parties 2. Ratio and percentage of voters in elections 3. Ratio of persons who are appointed/elected to be: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- upper chamber</li> </ul>	- sex - Sex and types of election - sex and urban/rural - sex	- $\frac{\text{Summation of male members of major political parties}}{\text{Summation of female members of major political parties}}$ - $\frac{\text{No. of male voters in elections}}{\text{No. of female voters in elections}}$ - $\frac{\text{No. of female (male) voters in election}}{\text{No. of female (male) population who have rights to vote}}$ - $\frac{\text{No. of men who are appointed/elected in the political and administrative positions}}{\text{No. of women who are appointed/elected in the political and administrative positions}}$

Field of Social Concern	Social Indicator	Classification	Definition
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- unicameral or lower chamber</li> <li>- the cabinet</li> </ul> <p>4. Ratio of persons in national policy formulation, planning and decision making levels</p> <p>5. Ratio of persons in senior administrative positions in the public and private sectors:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- public sector and state enterprise: C7 or above</li> <li>- private sector (business company with assets more than 10 millions baht): director or manager or above</li> </ul> <p>6. Ratio of persons in politics and administration at local levels (member of provincial council/Bangkok Metropolitan council/</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- sex</li> <li>- sex</li> <li>- sex and types of local administration</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- No. of committee member who are men who have authority in the national policy formulation, planning and decision making</li> <li>No. of committee member who are women who have authority in the national policy formulation, planning and decision making</li> <li>- No. of men in senior administrative positions in the public and private sectors</li> <li>No. of women in senior administrative positions in the public and private sectors</li> </ul> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- No. of men in politics and administration at local levels</li> <li>No. of women in politics and administration at local levels</li> </ul>

Field of Social Concern	Social Indicator	Classification	Definition
	member of municipal council/council of mayor/village committee/sanitary district committee/head of sub-district/head of village) 7. Ratio of government representation in foreign countries and international fora 8. Ratio of administrators and office holders of major NGOs dealing exclusively with women's interests	- sex  - sex	- No. of male government representation in foreign countries and international fora No. of female government representation in foreign countries and international fora  - No. of male administrators and office holders of NGOs No. of female administrators and office holders of NGOs
<b>7. LEGAL RIGHT ISSUES</b>			
1. Legal action at the international level	1. Ratification, accession and signing of the United Nations International Convention on the Rights of Women (1979)	-	- The United Nations International Convention on the Rights of Women (1979):- - elimination of all forms of discrimination - equal marriage rights - equal rights in education - equal rights in pay - equal employment rights - protection of mother and pregnant women

Field of Social Concern	Social Indicator	Classification	Definition
2. Rights in Thai laws	2. Gender-based discriminatory of rights and equity in Thai laws	-	Gender-based discrimination of rights and equity in Thai laws:- <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- family rights</li> <li>- property rights</li> <li>- personal rights of the wife</li> <li>- marriage rights</li> <li>- divorce rights</li> <li>- rights to call of the engagement</li> <li>- rights in education and training</li> <li>- employment rights</li> <li>- political participation rights</li> </ul>
<b>8. PUBLIC ORDER AND SAFETY</b>			
1. Crime, Violence and safety	1. Rate of female victims and violence against women such as murder, assault, abuse, harassment, rape, wife-beating etc. per 100,000 female population 2. Rate of apprehended and imprisoned persons per 100,000 population 3. Rate of criminal offenders per 100,000 population	- urban/rural          - sex          - sex	- $\frac{\text{No. of women who are victims of violence} \times 100,000}{\text{No. of total female population}}$          - $\frac{\text{No. of female (male) persons who are apprehended and imprisoned} \times 100,000}{\text{No. of total population}}$          - $\frac{\text{No. of female (male) offenders who commit crimes} \times 100,000}{\text{No. of total population}}$

Field of Social Concern	Social Indicator	Classification	Definition
2. Use of Social Services	4. Rate of deserted and destitute population per 100,000 population	- sex	$\frac{\text{No. of female (male) persons who are deserted and destitute} \times 100,000}{\text{No. of total population}}$
	5. Rate of female victims of involuntary prostitution per 100,000 female population	-	$\frac{\text{No. of women who are forced to be prostitute} \times 100,000}{\text{No. of female population}}$
	6. Rate of pregnant women without marriage licence who giving birth to an illegitimate child per 100,000 female population	-	$\frac{\text{No. of pregnant women without marriage licence giving birth to an illegitimate child} \times 100}{\text{No. of female population}}$
	7. Percentage of induced abortion women	-	$\frac{\text{No. of pregnant women who commit induced abortion} \times 100}{\text{No. of total pregnant women}}$
	8. Rate of female morbidity with AIDS/ARC and HIV and STDs per 100,000 female population	- urban/rural	$\frac{\text{No. of female patients with AIDS/ARC and HIV and STDs} \times 100,000}{\text{No. of female population}}$
	9. Sex ratio of legal assistance and judicial personnel (police officers/judges/magistrates/prosecutors/attorneys/advocates legal officers/researchers/social	- urban/rural	$\frac{\text{No. of male legal assistance and judicial personnel}}{\text{No. of female legal assistance and judicial personnel}}$

Field of Social Concern	Social Indicator	Classification	Definition
	workers/interpreters/other legal professionals etc.) 10. Number of social services and institutional care for women at special risks:- - governmental organization - non-governmental organization	- urban/rural - geographical area	- Number of government and non-governmental social service institutional care for women at special risks from society
<b>9. LEISURE AND CULTURE ACTIVITIES</b>			
1. Leisure and Culture Activities	1. Proportion of persons spending leisure times	- sex and urban/rural	- $\frac{\text{No. of female (male) persons spending leisure times} \times 100}{\text{No. of female (male) population aged 6 yrs. and over}}$ - Leisure time on hobby refers to listening to radio, viewing television, cinema and show, reading books and magazines, walking, sports etc. - $\frac{\text{No. of female (male) persons who participate in cultural and religious activities} \times 100}{\text{No. of female (male) population aged 6 yrs. and over}}$ - Cultural and religious activities refer to music playing, cultural performance, offering food monk, prayer etc.
2. Proportion of population active in selected cultural and religious activities	2. Proportion of population active in selected cultural and religious activities	- sex and urban/rural	

## **6. SUMMARY OF SOCIAL INDICATORS ON THE STATUS OF WOMEN**

The above table lists all together 80 indicators in 9 areas each being analyzed according to major variables such as sex, age-group, geographical area and urban/rural area etc. . However, there are some problems as to sources of data collection related to social indicators on the status of women. Such problems can be summarized as follows:

(1) There are 22 indicators or 27.5% of all illustrative indicators which are complete and have provisions for systematic on-going collection.

(2) The indicators which are incomplete due to the lack of data, no sex classification or outdated statistics, etc. include 58 of all illustrative indicators, or 72.5%.

Therefore, the illustrative indicators which are incomplete as mentioned above will be listed below along with recommendations for sources of data.

Social indicator	Status of Data	Recommended Sources of Data	Notes
<b>1. Population</b> 1.1 Population growth rate  1.2 Ratio of density of population	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- not classified by sex</li> <li>- not available</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Office of the Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Public Health</li> <li>- Department of Local Administration</li> <li>- Office of the National Economic and Social Development Board</li> <li>- Women's Information Center (WIC), the National Commission on Women's Affairs (NCWA)</li> <li>- Research</li> <li>- Department of Local Administration</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> <li>- Research</li> </ul>	
<b>2. Households and Families, Marital Status; Fertility</b> 2.1 Percentage of extended family households  2.2 Percentage of households with more than two children  2.3 Percentage of households with children under 15 yrs.  2.4 Percentage of households distributed by composition of the family: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- married couples with children living alones</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- not available</li> <li>- not available</li> <li>- not available</li> <li>- not available</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- National Statistical Office, WIC, NCWA</li> <li>- Research</li> <li>- National Statistical Office</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> <li>- Research</li> <li>- National Statistical Office</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> <li>- Research</li> <li>- National Statistical Office</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> <li>- Research</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- By Population and Housing Census or Specific issues Sampling</li> <li>- By Population and Housing Census or Specific Issues Sampling</li> <li>- By Population and Housing Census or Specific Issues Sampling</li> <li>- By Population and Housing Census or Specific Issues Sampling</li> </ul>

Social indicator	Status of Data	Recommended Sources of Data	Notes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- married couples with children in-laws living with</li> <li>- married couples without children living alone</li> <li>- male living with children, no wife present</li> <li>- female living with children, no husband present</li> <li>- single male living alone</li> <li>- single female living alone</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- not available</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- National Statistical Office</li> <li>- Department of Public Welfare</li> <li>- The National Housing Authority</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> <li>- Research</li> </ul>	
<p>2.5 Number and percentage of homeless persons</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- not classified by age group</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Department of Local Administration</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- By Marriage Registration</li> </ul>
<p>2.6 Rate of marriages</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- not classified by age group</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Department of Local Administration</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- By Marriage Registration</li> </ul>
<p>2.7 Rate of divorces</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- not classified by age group</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Department of Local Administration</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- By Marriage Registration</li> </ul>
<p><b>3. Learning and Educational Services</b></p>			
<p>3.1 Illiteracy rate</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- not classified by sex, age group and urban/rural</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Department of Non-Formal Education</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> <li>- Research</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- By National Literacy Project</li> </ul>
<p>3.2 Percentage of school enrollment in regular education:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- primary level</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- not classified by sex, urban/rural and geographical area</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Office of the National Education Commission</li> <li>- Ministry of Education</li> <li>- Department of Local Education</li> </ul>	

Social indicator	Status of Data	Recommended Sources of Data	Notes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- secondary level</li> <li>- higher level</li> </ul> <p>3.3 Sex ratio of school enrollment for third level of education by fields of study</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- not classified by sex</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Ministry of University Affairs</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> <li>- Office of the National Education Commission</li> <li>- Ministry of Education</li> <li>- Ministry of University Affairs</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> </ul>	
<p>3.4 Percentage of population of school completed in regular education :</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- primary level</li> <li>- secondary level</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- not classified by sex, urban/rural and geographical area</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Office of the National Education Commission</li> <li>- Ministry of Education</li> <li>- Department of Local Administration</li> <li>- Ministry of University Affairs</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> </ul>	
<p>3.5 Percentage of population who have attained non-formal education</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- not classified by sex and urban/rural</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Department of Non-Formal Education</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> <li>- Research</li> </ul>	
<p>3.6 Transition rate</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- primary/secondary level</li> <li>- lower/upper secondary level</li> <li>- upper secondary/higher level</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- not classified by sex and urban/rural</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Office of the National Education Commission</li> <li>- Ministry of Education</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> <li>- Research</li> </ul>	
<p>3.7 Promotion rate (primary level)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- not classified by sex and urban/rural</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Office of the National Education Commission</li> <li>- Ministry of Education</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> <li>- Research</li> </ul>	
<p>3.8 School-repeater rate (primary level)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- not classified by sex and urban/rural</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Office of the National Education Commission</li> <li>- Ministry of Education</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> <li>- Research</li> </ul>	

Social indicator	Status of Data	Recommended Sources of Data	Notes
3.9 Drop-out rate (primary level)	- not classified by sex and urban/rural	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Office of the National Education Commission</li> <li>- Ministry of Education</li> <li>- WTC, NCWA</li> <li>- Research</li> </ul>	
3.10 Sex ratio of teacher	- not classified by sex and urban/rural	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Office of the National Education Commission</li> <li>- Ministry of Education</li> <li>- Ministry of University Affairs</li> <li>- WTC, NCWA</li> <li>- Research</li> </ul>	
<b>4. Health, Health Services and Nutrition</b>			
4.1 Life-expectancy	- not classified by age and urban/rural	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Office of the National Economic and Social Development Board</li> <li>- WTC, NCWA</li> <li>- Research</li> </ul>	
4.2 Average age of mother at birth of first child	- not available	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- National Statistical Office</li> <li>- Office of the Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Public Health</li> <li>- WTC, NCWA</li> <li>- Research</li> </ul>	
4.3 Crude birth rate per 1,000 population	- not classified by urban/rural	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Office of the Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Public Health</li> <li>- Department of Local Administration</li> <li>- WTC, NCWA</li> </ul>	
4.4 Crude death rate per 1,000 population	- not classified by urban/rural	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Office of the Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Public Health</li> <li>- Department of Local Administration</li> <li>- WTC, NCWA</li> </ul>	
4.5 Infant mortality rate per 1,000 livebirths	- not classified by sex and urban/rural	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Office of the Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Public Health</li> <li>- Department of Local Administration</li> </ul>	

Social indicator	Status of Data	Recommended Sources of Data	Notes
4.6 Maternal mortality rate per 1,000 livebirths	- not classified by urban/rural	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> <li>- Office of the Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Public Health</li> </ul>	
4.7 Morbidity rate of population of selected diseases of public health importance	- not available	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> <li>- Office of the Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Public Health</li> </ul>	
4.8 Mental disorders morbidity rate per 100,000 population	- not classified by urban/rural, and the existing data represent only the Coverage area of the division of mental health not of the nation wide	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Department of Medical Services</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> <li>- Research</li> </ul>	
4.9 Rate of disabled persons per 100,000 population	- not classified by urban/rural	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Department of Medical Services</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> <li>- Research</li> </ul>	
4.10 Suicide rate per 100,000 population	- not classified by urban/rural	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Department of Medical Services</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> <li>- Research</li> </ul>	
4.11 Drug addicts and cigarette consumption rate per 1,000 population	- not classified by sex and urban/rural	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Research</li> <li>- Office of the Narcotics Control Board</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> </ul>	
4.12 Percentage of abortion of pregnant women	- not available	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Research</li> <li>- Department of Medical Services</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> <li>- Research</li> </ul>	
4.13 Percentage of children immunized against specified diseases	- not classified by sex and urban/rural	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Office of the Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Public Health</li> <li>- Department of Communicable Disease Control</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> <li>- Research</li> </ul>	

Social indicator	Status of Data	Recommended Sources of Data	Notes
4.14 Sex ratio in the population of physicians and health services personnel	- not classified by sex and urban/rural	- Office of the Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Public Health - WTC, NCWA - Research	
4.15 Nutrition rate of children	- not classified by sex and urban/rural	- Department of Health - WTC, NCWA - Research	
4.16 Nutrition rate of pregnant women and nursing mother	- not classified by urban/rural	- Department of Health - WTC, NCWA - Research	
4.17 Percentage of infants with weight at birth under 3,000 grams	- not classified by urban/rural	- Office of the Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Public Health - WTC, NCWA - Research	
4.18 Percentage of population who intake of energy (calories), protein and food consumption in a day	- not available	- Ministry of Public Health - WTC, NCWA - Research	
<b>5. Economic Activity and Population not Economically Active</b>			
5.1 Proportion of overseas migrant workers	- not classified by sex and age group	- Department of Labour - WTC, NCWA - Research	
5.2 Proportion of occupational injuries of workers	- not classified by sex	- Department of Labour - WTC, NCWA - Research	
5.3 Proportion of labour force deaths and withdrawing	- not available	- Department of Labour - WTC, NCWA	

Social indicator	Status of Data	Recommended Sources of Data	Notes
5.4 Average hours of work  5.5 Average monthly income/wages	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- not classified by age group</li> <li>- not classified by sex</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Research</li> <li>- National Statistical Office</li> <li>- Department of Labour</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> <li>- Research</li> <li>- National Statistical Office</li> <li>- Department of Labour</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> <li>- Research</li> </ul>	
<b>6. Public Affairs and Political Participation</b> 6.1 Ratio of members of major political parties 6.2 Ratio and percentage of voters in elections 6.3 Ratio of persons in senior administrative positions in the public and private sectors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- not available</li> <li>- not available</li> <li>- not available</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Department of Local Administration</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> <li>- Research</li> <li>- Department of Local Administration</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> <li>- Research</li> <li>- Office of the Civil Service Commission</li> <li>- The National State Enterprises Board</li> <li>- Thailand Business Council</li> <li>- Thailand Businessman Association</li> <li>- Thailand Industrial Council</li> <li>- Thailand Banking Association</li> <li>- Thailand Secretary Association</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> <li>- Research</li> </ul>	

Social indicator	Status of Data	Recommended Sources of Data	Notes
6.4 Ratio of government representation in foreign country and international fora 6.5 Ratio of administrators and office holders of major NGOs dealing exclusively with women's interests	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- not available</li> <li>- not available</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Ministry of Foreign Affairs</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> <li>- Research</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> <li>- National Council Women of Thailand</li> <li>- Research</li> </ul>	
<b>7. Legal Right Issues</b> 7.1 Ratification, accession and signing of the United Nations International Convention on the Rights of Women (1979) 7.2 Gender based discrimination of rights and equity in Thai Laws	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- not available</li> <li>- not available</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Ministry of Foreign Affairs</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> <li>- Research</li> <li>- Office of Juridical Council</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> <li>- Research</li> </ul>	
<b>8. Public Order and Safety</b> 8.1 Rate of female victims and violence against women per 100,000 female population 8.2 Rate of deserted and destitute	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- not available</li> <li>- not available</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Royal Thai Police Department</li> <li>- Department of Public Welfare</li> <li>- Department of Medical Services</li> <li>- National Council on Social Welfare of Thailand</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> <li>- Research</li> <li>- Department of Public Welfare</li> <li>- National Council on Social Welfare of Thailand</li> </ul>	

Social indicator	Status of Data	Recommended Sources of Data	Notes
population per 100,000 population 8.3 Rate of female victims of involuntary prostitution per 100,000 female population	- not available	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> <li>- Research</li> <li>- Department of Public Welfare</li> <li>- Royal Thai Police Department</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> <li>- Research</li> <li>- Ministry of Public Health</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> <li>- Research</li> </ul>	
8.4 Rate of pregnant women without marriage licence giving birth to an illegitimate child per 100,000 female population	- not available	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Ministry of Public Health</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> <li>- Research</li> </ul>	
8.5 Percentage of induced abortion women	- not available	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Ministry of Public Health</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> <li>- Research</li> </ul>	
8.6 Sex ratio of legal assistance and judicial personnel: - police officers - social workers etc.	- not available	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Royal Thai Police Department</li> <li>- Department of Public Welfare</li> <li>- Thailand Social Worker Association</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> <li>- Research</li> </ul>	
8.7 Number of social services and institutional cares for women at special risks	- not classified by geographical areas	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Department of Public Welfare</li> <li>- National Council on Social Welfare of Thailand</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> <li>- Research</li> </ul>	
<b>9. Leisure and Culture Activities</b> 9.1 Proportion of persons spending leisure times	- incomplete data	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- National Statistical Office</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> </ul>	

<b>Social indicator</b>	<b>Status of Data</b>	<b>Recommended Sources of Data</b>	<b>Notes</b>
9.2 Proportion of population active in selected cultural and religious activities	- incomplete data	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Research</li> <li>- National Statistical Office</li> <li>- Office of the National Culture Commission</li> <li>- Department of Religious Affairs</li> <li>- WIC, NCWA</li> <li>- Research</li> </ul>	

## PART TWO : RESEARCH TOPICS ON WOMEN'S DEVELOPMENT

This part of the paper presents the efforts made to give a general view of the research topics covered in the various reports available on women's development as well as the number of research projects for each topic.

### 2.1 PRESENT CONDITION

Both government and non-governmental organizations have tried different methods in collecting bibliographical data for research topics, research reports, conferenced proceedings, and articles, etc. . Bibliographies and abstracts of theses and research works on women's concerns or Women Development have been published by academic institutions. IN 1983 (B.E. 2526), the Information Center of the National Council of Women of Thailand under Royal Patronage had produced "Thai Women : Bibliography and Information Resources", which became later the annual "Union Bibliography on Women Studies." These bibliographical data compiled or collected for different purposes had limit actions when used for comparative studies. Moreover, they lacked a standard system of information storage and retrieval for research services as well as information exchange among international bibliographical networks, as mentioned in the introduction.

### 2.2 METHOD OF STUDY

2.2.1 This study covers selected bibliographical data from bibliographies and journals pertaining to women's issues published during 1988-1990 (B.E. 2531-2533).

2.2.2 The index terms used in grouping the bibliographical data are taken from the "Women in Development Thesaurus," which was compiled by the Clearinghouse for Women in Development of Indonesia for ASEAN Women's Programme to support the cooperation in documentation and information work among the Clearinghouses on Women in Development in the region.

2.2.3 The bibliographical data in each group were tallied to show strengths and weakness of research topics in each subject area.

### 2.3 COVERAGE

The bibliographical data comprise only theses, research reports, and conference proceedings concerning Women Development published during 1981-1990 (B.E. 2524-2533) in order to give a conceptual framework of research topics in this field in the past decade.

### 2.4 OBJECTIVES

(1) To survey the existing information about Thai women for the National Committee on the Development of Women's Information System before computerization.

(2) To cooperate with the ASEAN Women's Programme for the revision of "Women in Development Thesaurus."

(3) To present the number of research concerning Women Development during 1981-1990 (B.E. 2524-2533.)

(4) To make a suggestion for topics to be studied in the Lon-Term Women's Development Plan 1992- 2011 (B.E. 2535-2554.)

(5) To publish the list of topics as a subject bibliography.

## 2.5 RESULTS OF THE STUDY

The bibliographical data consist of 1,005 items, of which 801 are in Thai, and 204 in English.

The result of the study can be alphabetically listed by the index terms as follows:

Research during 1981-1990 (B.E. 2524-2533)	Thai	English	Total	Information for chapter
Abortion	14	6	20	4, 12
Addiction	1	-	1	4, 8
Adolescent	4	1	5	3, 4, 9, 11
Age groups	1	-	1	2, 3, 4
Anxiety	4	1	5	3, 4, 5
Attitude	5	-	5	3, 4, 6, 7, 10, 11
Basic needs	1	-	1	10
Birth control	18	-	18	4
Birth intervals	3	-	3	2
Birth weight	5	2	17	4
Breast feeding	15	2	17	4
Business women	2	1	3	6, 7
Cancer :				
- Breast	8	-	8	4
- Cervical and ovarian	11	-	11	4
Childbearing	7	-	7	4, 12
Childbirth	12	-	12	4
Child rearing	22	2	24	3
Contraceptives	4	10	14	4
Crime	2	-	2	4, 12
- Suicide	1	-	1	4
- Rape	7	1	8	4, 12
Cultures	8	3	11	2, 3, 5, 7, 9, 10, 11
Dentistry	1	-	1	4
Development programmes	17	10	27	13, 14
- ASEAN Women's Programme	8	2	10	13, 14
- Decade of Women Department	2	-	2	13, 14
- Impact of Development Programmes	4	-	4	2, 10, 13, 14
- Rural Women Development	32	-	32	2, 13, 14
Divorce	3	-	3	3, 4, 12
Education	5	1	6	5, 6
Employment	-	5	5	3, 6, 12
Environment	2+3	+1	6	3, 4, 8
Ethics	3	-	3	4, 5, 9, 10
Families	13	2	15	2, 3, 12
- Time allocation	1	1	2	3
Family planning	37	24	61	3, 4, 12
Family problems	5	-	5	3, 4, 11

<b>Research during 1981-1990 (B.E. 2524-2533)</b>	<b>Thai</b>	<b>English</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>Information for chapter</b>
- Domestic violence	1	-	1	3, 4, 12
Family size	7	3	10	3
Fertility	29	34	63	4
Health care	5	2	7	4
Infant health care	3	1	4	4
- Maternal health care	13	-	13	4
Immunization	5	-	5	4
Income & wages	4	2	6	2, 6, 12
Information sources	15	4	19	15
Job satisfaction	3	-	3	6
Job training	6	2	8	5, 6
Labor force participation	16	3	19	4, 6, 12
Labor unions	2	-	2	6
Laws	2	3	5	6, 11, 12
Leadership	6	-	6	2, 7, 10
- Women leaders	2	-	2	7
Marriage	7	6	13	3, 4, 12
Mass media	23	-	23	9
Masseuses	4	1	5	11
Mental health	5	-	5	3, 4
Midwives	5	-	5	4
Migration	10	12	22	6
Miscarriage	1	-	1	4
Mortality	-	3	3	3, 4
Nonformal education	2	-	2	5, 6
Organization				
- GOs	5	-	5	10, 13, 14
- NGOs	4	-	4	10, 13, 14
Nuns	3	2	5	10, 12
Nurses	35	-	35	4
Nursing	36	1	37	4
Nutrition	13	-	13	3, 4, 8
Obstetrics	3	-	3	4
Occupations	14	-	14	6, 12
Parental attitude	7	-	7	3
Parliamentaries	-	2	2	7
Political participation	4	-	4	7
Postnatal care	3	-	3	4
Pregnancy	22	2	24	4
Pregnancy complications	6	-	6	4
Premarital sexual behavior	2	-	2	4, 12
Prisoners	2	-	2	4, 12
Prostitution	30	3	33	4, 11, 12

<b>Research during 1981-1990 (B.E. 2524-2533)</b>	<b>Thai</b>	<b>English</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>Information for chapter</b>
- Kam La Programme	2	-	2	11
Religious influence	2	-	4	10
Research	-	1	1	15
Roles of women	5	-	5	7
- Agriculture	8	1	9	6, 8
- Culture	1	-	1	3, 10
- Decision making	-	1	1	3, 5
- Economics and society	13	4	17	2, 3
- Families and population	1	1	2	3, 5, 7
- Administration	4	-	4	7
- Medical profession	1	-	1	4, 6
- Development	4	7	11	7
- Health	2	3	5	8
- Motherhood	2	-	2	3
- Role model	1	-	1	3
- Education	-	1	1	5
- Industry	-	2	2	8
Rural employment	-	1	1	8
Rural women	3	8	11	3, 6, 7
Safety	3	-	3	8, 12
Sex differences	1	1	2	3, 7
Sex education	6	-	6	4, 5
Sex roles	3	-	3	9
Sexual attitudes	4	-	4	2, 3
Sexual behavior	2	-	2	3, 4
Sexual deviance	1	-	1	3, 4
Sexual relations	2	-	2	3, 4
Sexually transmitted diseases	1	-	1	4
- AIDS	4	-	4	4
- Syphilis	4	-	4	4
Single women	2	-	2	2, 3
Social behavior	2	-	2	3
Social welfare	2	-	2	3, 4, 6, 12
Status of women	5	3	8	2, 3
Sterilization	16	-	16	4
Surgery	2	-	2	4
Weight control	1	-	1	4
Women in literature	1	-	5	10
Women's rights	5	-	5	6, 12
Women studies	11	3	14	3
Working conditions	8	4	12	3
- Factory workers	9	-	9	6, 12

This bibliographical analysis can be used to match researches and information gathered over the past decade with the titles of the Long-Term Women's Development Plan 1992-2011 (B.E. 2535-2554) as follows:

Chapter	Title	Information
2	Economics, Politics and Culture in Women's Development	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Age Groups*</li> <li>2. Cultures</li> <li>3. Rural Women Development Programmes</li> <li>4. Impact of Development Programmes</li> <li>5. Families</li> <li>6. Incomes and Wages</li> <li>7. Leadership</li> <li>8. Migration</li> <li>9. Governmental and Non-governmental Organizations</li> <li>10. Political Participation</li> <li>11. Roles of Women in Agriculture, Families and Population, Culture, Economics and Society, Industry</li> <li>12. Single Women</li> </ol>
3	Women and Families	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Age Groups*</li> <li>2. Attitudes towards Women</li> <li>3. Child Rearing</li> <li>4. Divorce</li> <li>5. Families: Domestic Violence, Family sizes</li> <li>6. Marriage</li> <li>7. Mental Health, Anxiety</li> <li>8. Roles and Attitudes of Parents</li> <li>9. Mothers*</li> <li>10. Rural Women</li> <li>11. Women Status</li> <li>12. Women Studies</li> </ol>
4	Women and Health Care	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Abortion</li> <li>2. Addiction*</li> <li>3. Age Groups*</li> <li>4. Adolescent</li> <li>5. Anxiety</li> <li>6. Birth Control</li> <li>7. Birth Interval</li> <li>8. Breast Feeding</li> <li>9. Cancer</li> <li>10. Childbearing</li> <li>11. Childbirth</li> <li>12. Contraceptives</li> <li>13. Crimes, Suicide</li> <li>14. Ethics</li> </ol>

Chapter	Title	Information
5	Women and Education	15. Family Planning 16. Family Problems 17. Fertility 18. Health Care 19. Infant Health Care 20. Mother Health Care 21. Immunization 22. Marriage 23. Mental Health 24. Miscarriage* 25. Mortality 26. Midwives, Nurses, and Nursing 27. Nutrition 28. Obstetrics 29. Postnatal Care 30. Pregnancy 31. Pregnancy Complications 32. Prenatal Sexual Behavior 33. Roles of Women in Medical Science, Motherhood, Family and Population 34. Sexual Attitudes 35. Sexual Behavior 36. Sexual Relations 37. Sexually Transmitted Diseases 38. Social Services 39. Sterilization 40. Surgery 41. Weight Control* 42. Dental Health Care* 43. Sex Education  1. Culture 2. Education 3. Job Training 4. Non-Formal Education 5. Roles of Women in Education 6. Rural Women 7. Nurses and Nursing 8. Sex Education 9. Math Ability*
6	Women and Employment	1. Attitudes Towards Women 2. Businesswomen 3. Education

Chapter	Title	Information
7	Women and Social Participation	4. Employment 5. Incomes and Wages 6. Job Satisfaction 7. Labor Force Participation 8. Labor Unions 9. Laws 10. Migrations 11. Non-formal Education 12. Occupations 13. Roles of Women in Administration 14. Role of Women in Medical Science 15. Role of Women in Industry 16. Rural Employment 17. Social Behavior 18. Women's Rights 19. Working Conditions : Factory Workers etc.  1. Social Attitudes Towards Women 2. Businesswomen 3. Culture 4. Leadership 5. Leaders in Rural Community; Labor Forces 6. Parental Attitudes 7. Parliamentaries 8. Political Participation 9. Roles of Women 10. Rural Women 11. Working Conditions
8	Women and Environment	1. Addiction* 2. Basic Needs 3. Environment 4. Nutrition 5. Roles of Women in Agriculture 6. Roles of Women in Health Care 7. Safety 8. Weight Control*
9	Women and Mass Media	1. Attitudes Towards Women 2. Adolescent 3. Culture 4. Families 5. Mass Media 6. Sex Roles

Chapter	Title	Information
10	Women and Religions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>7. Occupations</li> <li>8. Information Sources, Researches*</li> <li>1. Attitudes Towards Women</li> <li>2. Culture</li> <li>3. Roles of Women in Religion</li> <li>4. GOs and NGOs</li> <li>5. Nuns</li> <li>6. Religious Influence, e.g. Meditation</li> <li>7. Women in Religious Literature</li> <li>8. Ethnics</li> </ul>
11	Women and Sexual Enterprises	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Adolescent</li> <li>2. Attitudes Towards Women</li> <li>3. Culture</li> <li>4. Families, Family Problems, Domestic Violence</li> <li>5. Laws</li> <li>6. Masseuses</li> <li>7. Migration</li> <li>8. Occupations</li> <li>9. Crime, Prisoners</li> <li>10. Sex Education</li> <li>11. Social Services</li> <li>12. Prostitution, Kam La Programme</li> <li>13. Rural Women</li> <li>14. Sexual Transmitted Diseases</li> <li>15. Mass Media</li> <li>16. Sexual Deviance</li> </ul>
12	Women and Laws	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Attitudes Towards Women Legislators</li> <li>2. Abortion</li> <li>3. Rape, Crime</li> <li>4. Divorce</li> <li>5. Rights in the Family, Family Problems</li> <li>6. Responsibility in Child Rearing</li> <li>7. Incomes and Wages</li> <li>8. Labor Force Participation</li> <li>9. Laws</li> <li>10. Marriage</li> <li>11. Prostitution</li> <li>12. Women's Rights</li> <li>13. Working Conditions of Women</li> <li>14. Safety</li> <li>15. Sex Difference</li> </ul>

Chapter	Title	Information
13	Roles of GOs and NGOs in Sexual Enterprises	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Development Programmes Decade of Women Development</li> <li>2. ASEAN Development Programme</li> <li>3. Rural Women Development Programmes</li> <li>4. Impact of Development Programmes</li> <li>5. GOs and NGOs</li> </ol>
14	Resources in Women Development	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Development Programmes</li> <li>2. Rural Development Programmes</li> <li>3. Laws</li> <li>4. GOs and NGOs</li> <li>5. Information Resources</li> </ol>

In conclusion, researches that correspond to the Long Term Women's Development Plan B.E. 2535-2554 can be categorized in 3 groups:

44 topics	10-20 topics	less than 10 topics
Chapter 4: Women and Health	Chapter 2: Economics, Politics, Culture and Women Development Chapter 3: Women and Family Chapter 6: Women and Employment Chapter 7: Women and Social Participation Chapter 11: Women and Sexual Enterprises	Chapter 5: Women and Education Chapter 8: Women and Environment Chapter 9: Women and Mass Media Chapter 10: Women and Religions Chapter 13: Roles of GOs and NGOs in Women Development Chapter 14: Resources in Women Development

Problems	Recommendations	Measures
Researches are inadequate in some areas: sexual and family life, standard social values, family roles, etc.	A seminar should be organized by NCWA to gather experts on Women's issues and formulate recommendations about researches in the inadequate	A NCWA Information Center should be established to develop an appropriate women's information system with 3 functions: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Bibliographical data</li> <li>2. Numerical data and indicators</li> <li>3. Data on Women's Development Programmes</li> </ol>

# **LIST OF PARTICIPANTS**

## **GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS**

### **SECRETARIAL OF THE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY**

PHAISITH PHIPATANAKUL  
VANIDA MASAVISUTHI

### **OFFICE OF THE ATTORNEY-GENERAL**

KULAPOL POLAVAN  
CHUTCHUM ARKAPIN  
KANIT NA NAKORN  
PRUETHIPORN NETIPO  
SUTHIPONG NITHICHAWAN  
SAHAI SUBSUNTHORNGUL  
KITIPONG KITTAYARAK

## **BANGKOK METROPOLITAN ADMINISTRATION**

### **DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH**

KAJIT CHOOPANYA  
SUPAK VANICHSENI  
RAPHIPHAT KASEMSOOK  
PHAIBOON BOONVANICH

### **DEPARTMENT OF POLICY AND PLANNING**

CHALEE SINDHUNAWA

### **DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL WELFARE**

CHAWEWAN PATSRIWONG  
DARAPAN SRISARAT

### **DEPARTMENT OF MEDICAL SERVICES**

CHUMREANG NIYOMYINDEE  
AKOM SORASUCHAT

## **OFFICE OF THE PRIME MINISTER**

### **THE SECRETARIAT OF THE PRIME MINISTER**

TEINJAI CHAROENPONG  
WATANACHAI CHAIYARATANA  
CHUENSUK PUPIENGJAI  
DHACHAKORN HEMACHANDRA

### **THE SECRETARIAT OF THE CABINET**

ARPHA SMUCKARN  
PRANEE SRISARAKORN

**OFFICE OF PERMANENT SECRETARY**

APILAS OSATANANDA  
ALAI INGAWANIJ  
ANOTHAI SINGKALAVANICH  
SUTHICHAI LIENG TAYETZ  
CHIRAPONG SIVAYAVIROJ  
PRASIT DAMRONGCHAI  
SUNANTA KANCHANA AKRADEJ  
AMPAI VONGPRACH

**THE BUREAU OF THE BUDGET OFFICE OF THE PRIME MINISTER**

THONGCHAI LUMDUBWONG  
SASIPHAT SAWETWATNA  
POONSUP PIYAANANT  
CHAWEVAN RATANACHARUSIRI

**SECRETARIAT OF THE NATIONAL SECURITY COUNCIL**

SONGKRAM CHUENPIBAL

**OFFICE OF THE JURIDICAL COUNCIL**

CHAIWAT WONGWATTANASAN

**OFFICE OF CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION**

THIRAYUTH LORLERTRATNA  
WERA CHAIYATHUM

**OFFICE OF THE NATIONAL ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT BOARD**

PAIROJ SUCHINDA  
SOMCHAI KRUSUANSOMBAT  
NARONG NITAYAPHORN  
JAWALAKSANA RACHAPAETAYAKOM  
ORATHIP TANSKUL  
SAOWAROS TONGPAN  
CHATE BOONPRATIENG  
YANEE SUNTHORNTHUM  
NUMTHIP RATTANASKUL  
RATANAVADEE NIEMWONGSE  
WATCHAREE SINTHUVANICH  
NITTAYAPORN BHUMIRATANA  
SUJITRAPORN KUMSA-ARD  
SUPARAT HONGMANEE  
RAPEEPAN TALAWATH  
CHUTATIP MANEERONG

**OFFICE OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION COMMISSION**

KOR SAWADIPANICH  
AMRUNG CHANTAVANICH  
VIBOONLUK THONGCHEUR  
SILAPORN NAKORNTHAP  
TUENJIT JITAREE  
MAYUREE CHARUPAN

VANEE TUPPHAPURANA  
NONGLUK PHAHONVEJ

**OFFICE OF THE NARCOTICS CONTROL BOARD**

CHUANPIT CHUMWATANA

**OFFICE OF THE BOARD OF INVESTMENT**

AMARA PANANANDA

**NATIONAL STATISTICAL OFFICE**

ANNIE SKUNASINGHA  
JAWASRI LIKANASUTHI  
TAWEEPORN TUWICHARANON  
SASITHORN JOTIKASTHIRA

**THE PUBLIC RELATIONS DEPARTMENT**

WASANA PASIT  
SOMLUK KOEDSAWANGNETR  
SIRIPORN THONGKUMWONG  
NAREE HARNWORAWASICHAJ  
ACHANA SARADINDUM  
RATANAKORN THONGSUMRAN  
SUNEE POKAWATANA

**DEPARTMENT OF TECHNICAL AND ECONOMIC COOPERATION**

KITTIPAN KANJANAPIPKUL  
PRATHEEP NAKORNCHAI  
JEDSRI BOONYAWAT

**NATIONAL YOUTH BUREAU**

BHAKDI JUTTIJUDATA  
PISUTTH NILSINTHOP  
PORNTIP SITHIPONG  
CHOMNART RUNGSIYAPA  
PARAPAN KUMPAN  
SUVICHIT SATAMARN

**STATE ENTERPRISE**

**THE ELECTRICITY GENERATING AUTHORITY OF THAILAND**

PANIT TANTHASETTHEE

**THE TOURISM AUTHORITY OF THAILAND**

AMARA APICHATYOTIN  
SETHAPON CHINDANON  
CHUNTIPA CHAIYANUN  
UNGSANA TUNTIVEJKUL

**MINISTRY OF DEFENCE**

**ROYAL THAI AIR FORCE**

GROUP CAPTAIN MANASSAISRI SUMNONGSUK

**MINISTRY OF FINANCE**

**THE COMPTROLLER-GENERAL'S DEPARTMENT**

SRIYARUN KRISANARAKPRANEE  
DUSANEE THANAPONGPORN

**THE EXCISE DEPARTMENT**

ORAPIN BUNNAG

**THE REVENUE DEPARTMENT**

THONGTERM BARAMEE

**STATE ENTERPRISES**

**BANK FOR AGRICULTURE AND AGRICULTURAL COOPERATIVES**

NUALCHAN WONGPREECHA

**MINISTRY OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS**

**INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS DEPARTMENT**

ATCHARA SUYANAN

**DEPARTMENT OF ASEAN AFFAIRS**

THANAPORN MANATHAT

**MINISTRY OF AGRICULTURE AND COOPERATIVE**

**OFFICE OF THE PERMANENT SECRETARY**

SAKDIPRAYOON DEEMA  
BOONSOM BHAMONCHANT

**DEPARTMENT OF FISHERIES**

REUNGREDEE PREITHIANAN

**ROYAL FORESTRY DEPARTMENT**

KEAW LAWPATANAKASAM  
PENSIRI PRASERT-UMPORM

**LAND DEVELOPMENT DEPARTMENT**

PANNEE RUNGSANGCHAN

**DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE**

DARA POUNGSUVARN  
SUROJANA ATIGARNBORDEE

**DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION**

POUNGPIT DULYAPACH  
SAKDA THAWITSRI  
AMORN RAT SUPANACHAT  
JUTAPORN SRIVIPATTANA  
CHARUNEE LEANGKAMNERD

**THE COOPERTIVES PROMOTION DEPARTMENT**

PEERARAT AUNGURARAT  
CHINTANA YODSERANEE

**OFFICE OF AGRICULTURAL ECONOMICS**

PRASIT SUPRADIT  
UNCHAREE URAIKUL  
NONGLUG PONGSRIHADULCHAI  
KAJORNWAN ITHARATTANA

**MINISTRY OF TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATION**

MALINEE SUTHIRATANA  
MALEE SRISUNTHONVOHARN

**MINISTRY OF COMMERCE**

**OFFICE OF THE PERMANENT SECRETARY FOR COMMERCE**

PHADEJ PHISAISORADECH  
PHINICH MATHURAPOTE

**DEPARTMENT OF EXPORT PROMOTION**

CHANTRA PURNARIKSHA  
VANNAPORN KATETAT

**MINISTRY OF INTERIOR**

**DEPARTMENT OF LOCAL ADMINISTRATION**

VIBOON TULYANON  
SUMETH SANGNIMNUEN  
SIRILERT MEKPAIBOON  
PAIROTE BOONYA  
VIPHA SUKSAICHOL  
KASAM CHAMCHOY  
PAKAWAN PRYWAN  
RATACHAI SUMPOW  
PAKDI RATTANAPHOL

**THE COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT DEPARTMENT**

DUANPEN SANKHARIKSHA  
ASNEE VATANAPRADIT  
WANPEN CHOMDEJ  
WACHIRA WONGWORNSAENG  
PROMCHOTE TRIWEJ  
WANAPA HONGSAMAT  
BOONSRI KAEWKAMSRI  
JARAMPORN PRATOMBOON  
NATTHA INTAWONG  
TAUYTEP RAJCHAREANSUK  
RATTANAWADEE NAENGWONG  
KUSOL BOONYAMALIK

**THE ROYAL THAI POLICE DEPARTMENT**

POL.MAJOR GENERAL WASANA PEAMLARP

POL.MAJOR GENERAL PREECHA PATIBATSORAKIJ  
POL.COL.SIRICHAJ WATTANAVARAENGKUL  
POL.COL.UDOMSAK SRITHAPORN  
POL.COL.SATE TUVICHEAN  
POL.COL.SUPOJ NABANGCHAEN  
POL.LT.COL.SANIT SURINTATIP  
POL.MAJOR VIRUT SIRISAWASDIBUT  
POL.CAPT.PONGTORN BUNAREE  
POL.CAPT.SERMSAKUL KHUMWATTANAPAN  
POL.LT.MONCHAI SRIPRASERT

**DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC WELFARE**

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