Graduate School of Business

Industrial Democracy and Best Practice in Thailand:
A Stakeholder Study

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DECLARATION

I certify that this thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in this or any other university. To the best of my knowledge and belief this thesis contains no material previously published by any other person except where due acknowledgement has been made.

Jamnean Joungtrakul

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ABSTRACT

This research investigated the perceptions on industrial democracy of selected stakeholder groups in the Thai industrial relations system. Three research questions were posed. How do the selected stakeholders express their knowledge of industrial democracy? What are the similarities and differences in perceptions of the 'industrial democracy in practice' concept held by members of the selected stakeholder groups? What are emergent best practices in industrial democracy? In order to provide some answers to these questions a number of research objectives were developed: To identify knowledge of industrial democracy in Thailand as perceived by selected stakeholders; To investigate the similarities and differences in stakeholder perceptions of industrial democracy; To compare the similarities and differences in stakeholder perceptions of industrial democracy; To identify problems and difficulties encountered from the practicing of industrial democracy within Thai business organizations; To reveal best practice in industrial democracy as expressed by the stakeholders.

This research studied employee participation at five levels: board level: employee representation at board level; plant level: employee representation at plant level; shop floor level: employee participation at shop floor level; financial level: employee participation at the financial level; disclosure of information level: employee participation in disclosure of information.

This research collected data from the following ten stakeholder groups of the Thai industrial relations system: employees of non-unionized companies: shop floor level; employees of non-unionized companies: supervisory level; trade union leaders: national level; trade union leaders: company level; employers of non-unionized companies; employers organization leader group; government officials; members of tripartite bodies; human resource managers; labour academics.

This research focuses on the knowledge and perceptions of stakeholders of the Thai industrial relations system relating to industrial democracy in practices in Thailand. The ontological assumption rests on the basis that realities being constructed by the

stakeholders being investigated. These realities are not objective but subjective and that multiple realities exist.

This research required the researcher to interact with the stakeholders in the Thai industrial relations system in relation to their knowledge and perception of industrial democracy in practice in Thailand. The epistemology of this research was subjectivist, the knower and respondent co-creating understanding.

A grounded theory approach was taken. The centrepiece is the development or generation of a theory closely related to the context of the phenomena being studied. The idea is to discover theory in a systematic yet emergent way. Grounded theory is closely associated with two research traditions, produced in outline below. These are phenomenology and symbolic interactionism.

The findings are presented in a model identifying nine common characteristics enhancing the best practice of industrial democracy. The model is proposed as a tentative Thai industrial democracy model. The nine components of the model include: constructive employer and employee or trade union relationships; determination of forms and process of participation; forms and practices of participation; upholding common goals and sharing both success and failures; implementation and change management; pro-active and promotional government roles; Thai cultures and Buddhist philosophy and principles; laws as a frame of reference; learning and practicing together continually.

Eight sets of Buddhist philosophy and principles are integrated into the Thai industrial democracy model. They are: the six directions; the divine abiding; the principles for helpful integration; the principles of success; the ten regal qualities; the qualities of a good or genuine person; the principles of collective responsibility; and the principles for conducting oneself as a good citizen. Seven concepts of Thai culture are also integrated in the Thai industrial democracy model. They are: the concept of helping each other; the concept of Bunkhun; the concept of Kreng Jai; the concept of face saving; the concept of criticism avoidance; the concept of sympathy; and the concept of compromising.

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OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS

For the purpose of this research the following operational definitions will be used:

Bangkok Metropolitan: Bangkok municipal limits as prescribed in the Bangkok Metropolitan Administrative Act of B.E. 2538

Business Organization: Industrial or service organizations in the private sector established for a profit seeking purpose and situated within Bangkok Metropolitan and surrounding provinces.

Employee of Non-unionized Company – Shopfloor Level: An employee as prescribed in the Labour Protection Act of B.E. 2541 and being an employee of a non-unionized company who performs the duty at shopfloor level

Employer: An employer as prescribed in the Labour Protection Act of B.E. 2541 and being an employer of a non-unionized company.

Employer Organization Leader: A committee member of an employer council registered at the Registrar Office, Ministry of Labour. It refers to employer councils in the private sector situated within Bangkok Metropolitan and surrounding provinces.

Expert Panel: A group of people who can advise on the sort of questions relevant and appropriate to the design of the interview guide. These respondents will advise during the familiarization stage of the research.

Government Official: An official of the Ministry of Labour.

Human Resource Manager: A managerial staff in any business organization who is assigned to be responsible for human resource management.

Industrial Democracy: An umbrella term referring to the sharing of power in the workplace. In this research it refers to employee participation in decision making.

In this research, employee participation is considered at five levels: (1) Employee Representation at Board Level: an employee is being appointed as a member of the board of directors of the company; (2) Representative Participation at Plant Level: employee participation in making business decision including being a member of committee within an establishment prescribed by the law or by the employment condition agreement or by the initiative of employer; (3) Participation in Shop Floor Work Organizations: employee participation in making business decision in various operational units within the establishment; (4) Financial Participation: employee involvement in financial program such as profit sharing or employee shareholding schemes, either as a result of the employment condition agreement or by the initiative of employer; and (5) Disclosure of Information: acknowledgement by employee on the company information in forms of social accounting methods and regular reporting on various matters such as safety, health and welfare conditions, either as a result of the employment condition agreement or by the initiative of employer

Labour Academic: A lecturer of labour subjects at the university level or a labour-specific researcher in any private or public academic or research institutes.

Member of Tripartite Body: A member of any official tripartite body in the labour field such as National Advisory Councils for Labour Development and Labour Relations Committee.

Stakeholder: Any individual or group who can affect or is affected by the actions, decisions, policies, practices, or goals of the organizations.

The stakeholders in this research refer to: trade union leaders; employees of non-unionized companies; employers of non-unionized company; employer organization leader group; human resource managers; government officials; members of tripartite bodies; and labour academics. Each group will contain individuals at the same level.

The Surrounding Province: Nontaburi, Nakornpathom, Pathumthanee, Samuthprakarn; Samuthsakorn, and Samuthsongkrarm provinces.

Trade Union Leader – National Level: A committee member of the employee council registered at the Registrar Office, Ministry of Labour and it refers only to employee councils in the private sector situated within Bangkok Metropolitan and the surrounding provinces (as specified above).

ADDITIONAL OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS

Employees of Non-unionized Companies – Supervisory Level: An employee as prescribed in the Labour Protection Act of B.E. 2541 and being an employee of non-unionized company who perform the duty at supervisory level.

Trade Union Leaders - Company Level: A president of trade union at the company level registered at the Registrar Office, Ministry of Labour and it refers only to trade union in the private sector situated within Bangkok Metropolitan and the surrounding provinces (as specified above).

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

This chapter will provide a general background to the research. It will be divided into three parts. In the first part, industrial relations concepts are discussed. In particular a brief history of British Industrial Relations will be presented. It will be followed by the description of the Thai context and the concept of industrial democracy. The second part briefly presents the concepts important to the study such as organization behavior, participative management, empowerment theory, stakeholder theory and the central role of culture. Further elaboration of some of these theories and issues will be made in the literature review forming chapter two. Resulting from the literature and also changes that are happening in contemporary Thai industrial relations, the research questions and objectives including thesis structure will be presented in part three.

1.1 The Concept of Industrial Democracy

1.1.1 The History of Industrial Relations

Historically, Thai industrial relations were heavily influenced by the British heritage and context. In particular some of the assumptions, values and controversies that accompanied the development of industrial relations in Britain may have been transported into Thai industrial relations and, more importantly, into the Thai cultural context. As this study includes a deep penetration of both historical and contemporary industrial relations in Thailand, the first part of this introduction describes how industrial relations in Britain evolved; beginning with the agrarian revolution where by the mid-1700's and due to such legislative acts as the Enclosures Acts, the Poor Law, the Law of Settlement, the Game Laws:

> The small farmer, the cottager, the squatter were driven off the soil, and their cottages were often pulled down. The land they worked was enclosed and became part of the park or ploughed land of a large estate. Thus the English peasant village was destroyed and the countryside became as Goldsmith described it in *The Empty Village* (Gregg 1995, p.27).

Workers in traditional industries such as spinning and weaving were to become part of the capitalist thrust of the times. As Gregg reports:

> Scattered over the countryside, unorganized in guilds, owning neither the raw materials nor the product, having no access to the market, not even owning the instruments of their trade, the cottage workers were in a precarious position. From independent craftsmen they had become the proletarians or workers who owned none of the means of production but were paid wages for their work (Gregg 1995, p.39).

Another aspect of the now rapidly developing industrial expansion and mechanisation was very powerful. The combination of growth in population, increased demand for goods, improved transport of commodities to market and materials to centres of production together with improved chemical processes (and many other interacting factors) combined to produce what we know as the industrial revolution. The demographic changes brought about by the agrarian revolution and the need for workers to congregate around the factors of production changed the face of the relationships of people to their work and workplaces forever. The worker as a paid wage earner to an owner of (sometimes expensive) plant machinery became a feature of the major industries. As Gregg (1995) explains, although many inventions and mechanistic devices had been invented (such as the printing press in the 1400's), inventions came fast and furious from the mid 1700's to the 1830's. They ranged from Hargreaves' spinning jenny (1767) (from spinning single threads to eighty at a time), to Cartwright's (1785) power loom driven by steam to Watt's (1782) steam engines to Darby's (1800) smelting inventions,   Huntsman's (1740) methods for casting steel and Corts' (1983) method of puddling iron. Change, both social and industrial, became so rapid and so radical that this period has become known as the industrial revolution - see Table 1.1.

Table 1.1: Industrial revolution begins

1760 – 1831	Speed of change Revolutionised Industry
1760 1800 1830	Consumption of raw cotton 8,000 tons 25,000 tons 100,000 tons
1800 1835	Iron Output 250,000 tons 1,000,000 tons
1760 1801 1831	Population in Millions 8.0 10.5 16.0

Source: Gregg 1995, p. 47.

The history of trade unionism has been reported by many writers: "the early growth of industrial relations was linked to the growth of trade unions" (Rose 2001, p.20). Rose argues that "trade unions are largely a consequence of the factory system which developed during the industrial revolution" (Rose 2001, p.21). According to Toynbee, the year 1760 was the eve of the industrial revolution in England (Toynbee 1966 orig. 1884). The period of the movement prescribed by Ashton was 1760-1830 (Ashton 1968). Briggs has noted that England was the first country in the world to have an industrial revolution (Briggs 1967). The rapid expansion of industry and the new forms of industrial structure created, reshaped the existing pattern of employment relations (Briggs 1967).

There is much rich history around social developments within this time but of direct interest to this study are the industrial relations that began to take form during the industrial revolution. From the inception of factory organisation and the introduction of machines to take the place of manpower, 'workers' struggles' to have a voice were reported. Alongside this was the concern felt by social reformers about 'free-labour'

children - that is, the children of labourers (some as young as four years old) - forced by economic circumstances to go into factories. These conditions drew the attention of three groups: social reformers, legislators and the forerunners of trade unions, the friendly societies. The social reform and legislative groups were mutually influential, both to a great extent fired by the factory conditions and the powerlessness of the labourer class. "Brutality, including whipping and beating was said to be necessary to keep the children awake who otherwise, from sheer fatigue sometimes fell into the moving machinery to be killed or maimed" (Gregg 1995, p.120).

The concept of working-class struggle against owners of mines, mills and iron/steel works was the platform upon which various societies and trade unions were predicated. The early development of industrial relations was linked to the development of trade unions (Gregg 1995, p.585) reports that trade union membership in 1892 was 5.5 million and in 1924 was 9.92 million.). This was in counterpoint to the growth of government legislation aimed at protecting the interests of owners who were anxious to conserve their wealth. However, the governments were also influenced by the very powerful social reformers of the day who were worried about poverty and poor working conditions. Pelling (1987) reports that as early as the fourteenth century there was government intervention. He asserts that this intervention "was probably confined at first to determining the wages of unskilled workers, who could not belong to the guilds" (Pelling 1987, p.8) and later "the practice spread to the skilled trade" (Pelling 1987, p.8). At first it took the form of fixing wages by Act of Parliament and later on "the justices of the peace were given powers to make assessments from time to time" (Pelling 1987, p.8). Pelling further explains that:

> The Statute of Artificers (1563) gave the justices power to fix the wages of both artisans and labourers, and it also enacted penalties on both masters and men for any breach of contract. Wage regulation by these means continued throughout the seventeenth century but went into decline after about 1700 (Pelling 1987, p.8).

Two influential social reformers who dedicated themselves to the working environment and the 'workers' struggle' were Sidney and Beatrice Webb. Each was both a chronicler and a reformer in his and her own right but together they produced many government reports as a couple, earning them the name of 'the Webbs'.

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A trade union, according to the Webbs "…is a continuous association of wage-earners for the purpose of maintaining or improving the conditions of their working lives" (Webb & Webb 1956 orig. 1894, p.1). Although this classic definition of trade unions was given by the Webbs in 1894 it is still relevant today. A more contemporary definition is provided by the Trade Union and Labour Relations (Consolidation) Act of 1992 (Rose 2001) which states that a trade union is:

> An organization (whether permanent or temporary) consisting wholly or mainly of workers of one or more descriptions whose principal purpose includes the regulation of relations between workers of that description and employers or employers' associations (The Trade Union and Labour Relations (Consolidation) Act of 1992, cited in (Rose 2001, p.12).

Despite the argument made by Rose (2001) that trade unions are largely a consequence of the factory system, it could be strongly argued based on the Webbs that trade unions are not the direct consequence of the factory system (Webb & Webb 1956 orig. 1894). The Webbs contended that "it is often assumed that the divorce of the manual worker from the ownership of the means of production resulted from the introduction of machinery, the use of power, and the factory system" (Webb & Webb 1956 orig. 1894, p.26). In fact "the earliest durable combinations of wage-earners in England precede the factory system by a whole century, and occur in trades carried on exclusively by hand labour…" (Webb & Webb 1956 orig. 1894, p.26). For example "one of the earliest proven cases of continuous association among journeymen is that of the hatters (or feltmakers), whose combination - now the Journeymen Hatters' Trade Union of Great Britain and Ireland - may perhaps claim to trace its ancestry from 1667, …" (Webb & Webb 1956 orig. 1894, p.28).

However, Pelling argues that "the concept of a separate organization of employed workers, to determine wages and conditions by negotiation with their employers, had no place in the medieval system of industry" (Pelling 1987, p.7). This matter was handled by the guilds, which were combinations of both masters and journeymen (Pelling 1987). In addition to the responsibility of protecting the standards of their respective crafts by defining the terms of service for apprentices, they could also fix the prices for the manufactured product and determine the piece-rate to be paid to the journeymen (Pelling 1987).

Pelling asserts that "the decline of official regulation of wages in the eighteenth century was accompanied by a decay of the guilds" (Pelling 1987, p.8). Pelling further explains that "the reasons for both changes may be found in the increasing scale of industrial organizations and the quickening pace of industrial change" (Pelling 1987, p.8). According to Pelling:

> …change was so rapid that the formal system of regulation became simply an embarrassment to the masters. So far as they could, they neglected it; and this attitude was reflected in the attitude both of the magistracy and of Parliament itself. The journeymen, for their part, deprived of the protection to which they had been accustomed, began to combine separately from their employers, often with the overt and presumably legal object of petitioning Parliament for the redress of their grievances, but not infrequently also with the purpose of enforcing wage demands against their employers by the direct sanction of bad work, 'go slow', or 'turn-out' (later known as strikes). [It is] naturally, if Parliament failed to respond to the petitions the direct sanction became the only practicable one (Pelling 1987, pp.8-9).

The method of petition was widely used by the journeymen, for example "already in 1675 the journeymen clothworkers of London combined to petition the Court of the Clothworkers' Company against the engagement of workmen from the country" (Webb & Webb 1956 orig. 1894, p. 33). In another incident the Webbs describe that:

> The master tailors in 1720 complain to the Parliament that the 'Journeymen Taylors in and about the Cities of London and Westminster, to the number of seven thousand and upwards, have lately entered into a combination to raise their wages and leave off working an hour sooner than they used to do; and for the better carrying on their design have subscribed their respective names in books prepared for that purpose, at the several house of call or resort (being publick-houses in and about London and Westminster) which they use; and collect several considerable sums of money to defend any prosecutions against them'. Parliament listened to the masters' complaint, and passed the Act 7, Geo. I. st.1, c. 13, restraining both the giving and the taking of wages in excess of the stated maximum, all combinations being prohibited (Webb & Webb 1956 orig. 1894, pp.31-32).

Pelling noted that "in spite of the fact that combinations were held to be illegal, they proved very difficult to suppress" (Pelling 1987, p.12). For the Journeymen Taylors, "in 1810 a master declared before a Select Committee that their combination had existed for over a century" (Wallas, 1898, cited in Webb & Webb 1956 orig. 1894, p. 32). The combination of workmen at that time was illegal under both the common

law of conspiracy in restraint of trade and under existing statutes. For example the 1797 Act against Unlawful Oaths prescribed the criminal penalty for the sentences of up to seven years (Pelling 1987). The Webbs explained that:

> … the common law, both in England and Ireland, had been brought to the aid of the special statutes, and the judges were ruling that any conspiracy to do an act which they considered unlawful in a combination, even if not criminal in an individual was against the common law. Soon the legislature followed suit. In 1797 the Act 39 Geo. III. c. 81 expressly penalized all combinations whatsoever (Webb & Webb 1956 orig. 1894, p.69).

They further argue that:

> The grounds for this drastic measure appear to have been found in the marked increase of Trade Unionism among workers of various kinds. The operatives' combinations were regarded as being in the nature of mutiny against their employers and masters; destructive of the "discipline" necessary to the expansion of trade; and interfering with the right of employer to "do what he liked with his own (Webb & Webb 1956 orig. 1894, p. 69).

It could be argued that the strong legal protection of the employer for "mutual insurance against sickness, old age, or death" (Pelling 1987, p.10) contrasted with the illegality of the workmen combination (the type of combination was informal). A good example for this type of combination was the combination of the Newcastle keelmen (lightermen in the coal industry) in 1699 (Pelling 1987). This type of combination were called "friendly societies" and spread widely throughout the country in the course of the eighteenth century (Pelling 1987). For example the "Society of Compositors' was founded in March 1792" (Pelling 1987, p.13). According to Pelling, "the first societies were almost invariably of skilled artisans rather than of labourers, and the skilled artisans were a conservative group who were anxious to maintain their status and standard of living in a changing industrial environment" (Pelling 1987, p.14). Pelling further argues that "they were not factory workers; and the societies were not the product of the Industrial Revolution in its customary definition. Rather, they were a response to changes in the structure of industry …" (Pelling 1987, p.14). Friendly Societies are provided with a legal status and protection for their fund under the Friendly Societies Act enacted in 1793 (Pelling 1987).

The Method of Collective Bargaining (Webb & Webb 1902) was used for example in the case of the Compositors and the Masters in 1785 and 1793 (Pelling 1987). The Method of Legal Enactment (Webb & Webb 1902) was also used and "took the form of fixing wages by Act of Parliament" (Pelling 1987, p.8). An example was "the case of the Spitalfields weavers - a strong pressure group rather close to Westminster - who obtained an Act regulating wages in 1773" (Pelling 1987, p. 9).

The purpose of this brief early history was to show the complexity of industrial relations as they developed alongside mechanization, demographic upheaval and, firing the social reformers of the day, social problems of poverty, child labour, working conditions and the gaps left by traditional social relations in villages and cottage industries. Additionally, running as a theme throughout the development of what was probably one of the oldest industrial relations systems in the developed West, was that of punitive power, disputation, and confrontation. Devices such as arbitration, legislation and parliamentary commissions provided a conciliatory tone but the foundational behaviours of strikes (by employees) and lockouts (by employers) remained almost as natural prerogatives.

1.1.1.1 Nineteenth-century development

The combination of workmen other than in the form of Friendly Societies continued to be held illegal until the repeal of the Combination Laws in 1824. "Following the repeal of the Combination Acts in 1824, workers could openly organize trade unions rather than under the guise of Friendly Societies" (Salamon 1992, p.81). Based on this assumption Salamon (1992, p.81) argues that the beginnings of trade unionism "lie in the Friendly Societies established by craftsmen in the late eighteenth century". An example was the case of the London compositors' clubs which transformed themselves into the London Union of Compositors in 1834 (Clegg, Fox & Thompson 1964).

The early unions were very locally based and confined solely to skilled craftsmen (Rose 2001; Pelling 1987) and they became known as craft unions (Rose, 2001; Flanders, 1968). Craft unionism was the first stable form of organization to emerge (Flanders 1968). It sought to unite all workers of a particular craft, trade, occupation or grade of skill, irrespective of the industry in which they happen to be engaged

(Bell 1967). However, in 1851, "The Amalgamated Society of Engineers, Machinists, Smiths, Millwrights, and Pattern-makers", was founded (Pelling 1987), pp.39-40) "and became generally known as the Amalgamated Society of Engineers" (Pelling 1987), p.40). At the time of writing it is known as the Amalgamated Engineering and Electrical Union (AEEU) (Rose 2001). The foundation of this new society is usually and rightly regarded as a landmark in the history of trade unionism (Pelling 1987) and Pelling (1987) affirmed that the Webbs hailed it as a 'new model' for other unions both in Britain and abroad (Webb & Webb 1956 orig. 1894).

The merger of trade unions as mentioned above meant that trade union cooperation became established at the local and national levels during the second half of the nineteenth century (Salamon 1992). The initial objective of the cooperation was "to represent their views to government and seek reforms in legislation" (Salamon 1992, p.82). Cooperation of this type led to the formation of a trade congress in 1868 known as Trade Union Congress (TUC) today (Pelling 1987).

Although trade unions may not be the direct consequence of the industrial revolution, (Webb & Webb 1956 orig. 1894; Pelling 1987; Salamon 1992), it contributed significantly to the expansion of trade unions. Its major contribution was that the further growth of the factory system "tended to reduce the differential of skill and to demand large numbers of semi-skilled workers, employed in factories by the hundred or thousand" (Pelling 1987, pp.79-80). Along with other influential factors such as "more favour on the extension of unionism to the unskilled" (Pelling 1987, p.80) it resulted in the expansion of trade union to those unskilled workers in the factories. The result was, "from the 1880s, the permanent establishment for the first time of unions of unskilled workers, which in due course rose to equal and to surpass in size the societies of the artisans" (Pelling 1987, p.80).

It was noted that trade union growth was severely hindered by the Combination Acts of 1799 and 1800 (Rose 2001; Pelling 1987; Flanders 1968) until the repeal of the Combination Law in 1824 that trade union could be openly organized and was able to perform the functions of trade union. Salamon concludes that:

During the later part of the nineteenth century trade unionism and collective bargaining were largely confined to the skilled trades and piecework industries. In the former the workers had the industrial strength, mutual insurance and their control over entry into the trade, to seek employer acceptance of the 'union's rule', whilst in the later both workers and employers had an interest in controlling wage competition (Salamon 1992, p.16).

He further elaborates that:

Although many trade unions were already organized on a national basis, this early collective bargaining was conducted almost exclusively on either an organizational or district basis. Wherever trade unions had sufficient organization and strength they sought the establishment of a 'common rule' to ensure that different employers within a local labour market applied the same terms of employment. The workers' common interest[s] centred primarily on their immediate geographical locality (Salamon 1992, pp.16-17).

1.1.1.2 Twentieth-century development

A question of importance, given the Thai cultural preference for cooperation and mutual understanding (Mulder 1999), is whether, as British industrial relations developed, there was a change in the basic nature of the collective voice of trade unionism in relation to employers and legislators. The development of industrial relations during this period was significantly influenced by the First and Second World Wars. Briggs argues that "the war of 1914 to 1918 further improved the position of unskilled labour" (Briggs 1967, p.22). He further argues that:

A shortage of general male labour during the emergency improved the bargaining power of the unskilled: at the same time the pre-war tendency to build amalgamations and federations continued…. Powerful new unions emerge in the post-1918 world, particularly the Transport and General Workers Union (1921), the National Union of Distributive and Allied Workers (1921), and the National Union of General and Municipal Workers (1924) (Briggs 1967, p.22).

Flanders notes that "there had been an immense growth in trade union membership, especially in the numbers affiliated to the Trade Union Congress which had risen from 2,250,000 in 1913 to 6,500,000 in 1920" (Flanders 1968, pp.18-19). Clegg also noted that "the First World War served as a hothouse for forcing the growth of trade unions, of collective bargaining and employers' associations" (Clegg 1967).

The Federation of Gas Employers was established in 1919 (Clegg 1967). Clegg further elaborated that:

> Another result of the war and immediate post-war events was the completion of employers' organization by the formation of the Federation of British Industries and the British Employers' Confederation (originally the National Confederation of Employers' Organizations). The F.B.I. was formed during the war to look after the trade interests of manufacturing industry. The B.E.C. came into being in 1919[,] in order to provide a formal organization for employers' representatives at the National Industrial Conference ... (Clegg 1967, pp. 212-213).

Collective bargaining was one of the major developments of industrial relations during this period (Clegg 1967; Flanders 1967). Flanders asserts that "trade unions in Great Britain came into being, established themselves on firm foundations and extended their power and social influence mainly on account of their achievements in collective bargaining" (Flanders 1968, p.75). The term 'collective bargaining' was originated by the Webbs in 1902 (Rose 2001). Before that it was used in The Cooperative Movement in Great Britain by Beatrice Potter (Mrs. Sidney Webb) (1891, p.217, cited in Webb & Webb 1902). It is "the process of agreeing terms and conditions of employment through representatives of employers (and possibly their associations) and representatives of employees (and probably their unions)" (Rose 2001, p.306). It is "one of the three main methods used by trade unions to achieve their basic aim of improving the conditions of their members' working lives" (Rose 2001, p.309). The other two methods are mutual insurance and legal enactment (Rose 2001; Webb & Webb 1902).

Rose has noted that collective bargaining as regarded by the Webbs was mainly a substitute for the employer bargaining individually with each employee and establishing such terms and conditions for each through the contract of employment (Rose 2001).

> A major factor behind collective organization has been the recognition that the balance of bargaining power between the employer and single individual was uneven, and that even on a representative and collective basis, bargaining power is rarely equalized, being skewed either towards the employer or the employees collectively (Rose 2001 p.306).

The Donovan Commission noted that employees do not negotiate individually, and on their own behalf, but do so collectively through representatives (Salamon 1992, pp.310-311). Therefore, it was concluded by Salamon that collective bargaining can exist and function only if:

> [1] The employees themselves are prepared to identify a commonality of purpose, organize and act in concert; and [2] management is prepared to recognize their organization and accept a change in the employment relationship which removes, or at least constrains, its ability to deal with employees on an individual basis (Salamon 1992, p.311).

Flanders asserts that one way of looking at collective bargaining is "to note that its effect is to impose limits on the freedom of employers to run their business as they think fit" (Flanders 1968, p.76). The significance of collective bargaining to the workers according to Flanders "might be summed up in the word, self-protection" (Flanders 1968, p.77). In 1910 there were in all 1,696 trade or district agreements which estimated to cover directly 2,400,000 workpeople or less than a quarter of the total number of industrial workers (Flanders 1967). Salamon has noted that "despite the changing economic circumstances and decreased union membership and power during the 1980s, collective bargaining is still important for a high proportion of both manual and non-manual employees in all sectors" (Salamon 1992, p.309).

In addition to the method of collective bargaining, joint consultation was also introduced during this period. "The Whitley Committee, set up in 1916, recommended the establishment of Joint Industrial Councils (JICs) with written constitutions which functioned at national, district and work levels. JICs provided a formal forum in which employers and unions could negotiate" (Rose 2001, p.21). However, due to the economic depression and high unemployment during the 1920s-1930s half of the JICs were abolished (Rose 2001) and "The Industrial Conference disappeared, almost unnoticed, in 1921" (Clegg & Chester 1967, p.333). The great depression also affected trade unions significantly as trade union membership declined "from a high of 8.3 million in 1920 to a low of 4.4 million in 1932/1933" (Rose 2001, p.21). It is interesting that as employment protection legislation developed there did not seem to be an inverse relationship between the use of power by employers and trade unions, still expressed through strikes and lockouts.

Several government laws were enacted during the 1980s and 1990s such as: 1980 Employment Act; 1982 Employment Act; 1984 Trade Union Act; 1986 Wages Act; 1988 Employment Act; 1989 Employment Act; 1990 Employment Act; 1992 Trade Union and Labour Relations (Consolidation) Act; and 1993 Trade Union Reform and Employment Rights Act (Rose 2001). The effect of this legislation was to weaken trade union power and influence in industrial relations (Rose 2001). At the same time "there are numerous examples of employers asserting themselves in rather extreme ways, as for example with" (Rose 2001, p.25): Rupert Murdoch's News International at Wapping in 1986 where unions were deliberately excluded by management; and the dispute in 1997 concerning the sacking of over 300 dockers employed by the Mersey and Harbour Company (Rose 2001). The 1980s also witnessed a new development of British industrial relations, the so-called "new realism" which largely represents a reaction on the part of unions to the changed economic circumstances of the 1980s and 1990s and to government policies which have curtailed their influence (Rose 2001).

1.1.1.3 Recent developments

The important recent developments in industrial relations according to Rose (2001) include: the establishment of a national minimum wage as a result of the National Minimum Wage Act, 1998 and the Minimum Wage Regulations 1999; the Employment Relations Act, 1999, which includes provisions concerning individual employee rights and statutory procedures concerning trade union recognition; and a supportive stance and a more co-operative relationship with the European Union which has resulted in the ending of Britain's opt-out from the Social Chapter of the EU's 1991 Maastricht Treaty and the acceptance of the EU's Employment Chapter agreed at the 1997 Amsterdam summit as part of the Treaty of Amsterdam (Rose 2001). The immediate consequences of this are: adoption of the European Works Council Directive, implemented in the UK at the end of 1999; and the implementation of various EU Directives such as the Working Time Directive which for most categories of employees limits the length of the working week to a maximum of 48 hours; the Part-Time Workers Directive which seeks to ensure that part-time workers are not treated any less favourably than full time employees and will benefit from the same statutory and contractual terms and conditions of employment (Rose 2001). It remains to be seen whether these measures will have the

sort of deep cultural changes needed to replace the values of confrontation and the use of power by both trade unions and employers. What is more certain is that values of confrontation and power-broking are not a natural fit with Thai cultural values. This is expanded upon in the next section, where a brief history of Thai trade unionism is presented.

1.1.2 The History of Thai Trade Unionism

This section is descriptive in nature, showing how trade unions, containing similar relational elements of struggle, strikes, social reform and legislation to those of Britain, developed. However, the difference in the two stories lies within the societal and cultural assumptions within which industrial relations developed. As the Thai cultural values are described, it can be seen that they are an uneasy fit with the individualistic, assertive and utilitarian values embedded in the British 'protestant ethic' (Weber 1947). At the time of the research, it could be said that Thailand is almost at a watershed stage where it is possible to re-design and re-develop some of the assumptions underlying some of the more confrontational activities reported below.

Thailand has been an agricultural country for a long and continuous period through the Sukhothai era (1257-1419), the Ayuthaya era (1350-1767), the Thonburi era (1767-1782), and to the present Rattanakosin era (1782 - the present). Populations outside of the metropolitan areas are mostly farmers. Rice has been a major export to overseas countries. Following the signing of the Bowring Treaty, rice became a main export product of the country (Pinkaew 1998). Later, particularly during King Cuhlalongkorn (King Rama V) era (1868-1910), a farming exhibition was introduced and the maintenance of farming machinery was expected (Pinkaew 1998). It was evident that farming machinery was used in Thailand although not to the same level and at the same rate as happened in Britain.

The rice export had resulted in investment in the rice mill industry (Hewison 1986). The first mill was introduced in 1858 (Hewison 1986). By the year 1879 "there were five European rice mills and five Chinese or Siamese [Thai] mills on the Bangkok river, and one Siamese mill on the Eastern river" (Leckie 1981 orig. 1894). Some

expansions were made in other industries as well which include sugar (until the late 1860s), ice manufacture and private electricity generation (Hewison 1986).

During the early Ratanakosin era (1782-1868) and until the abolishment of the slave system by King Chulalongkorn (King Rama V) starting from 1874-1905, the Thai population was part of a master/slave system. Most of the labourers were Chinese people although there had been some Thai labourers since the era of Phrabat Somdej Phrabhuthlertlanabhalai (King Rama II) (1809-1824), (Pinkaew 1998). In addition, the rice mill industry was a large employer of labour (Hewison 1986). During "the decade of 1877, division of labour was clearly established in Thailand among Chinese and other nationals (Uyanon 1998, p.82) as Leckie (1981 orig. 1894) had taken note as follows:

> The Division of Labor in Bangkok is interesting. The Chinese do all the heavy coolie work and cargo boat work. The Siamese do the boating work rafting, and light manual work. The tradesmen, carpenters, sawyers, tinsmiths and the blacksmiths are Chinese; the Malays work the machinery in the steam mills and take a share in paddy cultivation and cattle-dealing, and do a good deal of fishing; the Javanese are the gardeners. The market gardening is a large Chinese industry. The Annamites are fishermen and boat builders; The Bombay men are merchants; the Tamils are cattle men and shopkeepers; the Burmese are the sapphire and ruby dealers and country peddlers; the Singhalese are the goldsmiths and jewellers and the Bengalis are the tailors. Over a course of years, the most market progress lied with the Chinese or Chinese-Siamese, who gradually and surely strengthen their hold on Bangkok (Leckie 1981 orig. 1894, p.144).

Employment in Thailand kept pace with industrial growth. Following the abolition of the slave system Thai people were able to freely select and pursue their careers. Combination and association among employees had occurred as they were growing in number. However, the early combinations were mostly informal and ad hoc in nature.

The combination of Thai workers as noted by Piriyarangsan that "can be considered as the beginning of Thai trade union was the strike incident of the tramway workers that had taken place in the 1922/23" (Piriyarangsan 1999, p.237). The causes of the strike were: nationalism of the Thai workers against the Chinese inspector who applied power unjustifiably; resentment of the workers towards the employment

conditions such as long working hours, no certain rest period, no overtime payment; and nationalism of the Thai workers against the Dutch manager concerning communication problem and the different cultures (Piriyarangsan 1999). There were 300 workers involved in the strike, mainly the tram drivers and fare collectors including some inspectors (Piriyarangsan 1999). "The strike was prolonged for weeks and the workers lose" (Piriyarangsan 1999, p. 237).

Following the administration revolution in 1932, protest strikes and petitions were widely spread among the workers of the Makkasan Railways station, cement plants, rice mills, and sawmills. They were tram drivers, taxi drivers, tricycle drivers, paddlers, barbers and the unemployed (Poonpanich 1998). The causes came from: the bad economic situation since 1928 that resulted in termination of workers, low wage and welfare cuts, which, in turn, led to unemployment; political freedom owing to the revolution of democracy by the people party. The new government body had allowed people gathering in public to express their political opinions and express friendliness to the poor including finding jobs for the people; and allowing assistance from journalist intellectuals to the workers (Poonpanich 1998).

The first formal combination of Thai workers occurred when the tramway workers established the first organization of Thai workers in 1932 called the "Tramway Workers' Association of Siam," with around 300 members (Suppanakorn 1996). "It was organized under the law governing general associations with a view to providing mutual assistance among its members. However, it also engaged in industrial action [by] demanding better employment conditions [for its members too]" (Suppanakorn 1996, p.41).

Suppanakorn (1996) noted that the first internationally recognized trade union was established in 1944. He further elaborates that:

> It was called the General Trades Union Association (GTUA). Its members were mainly Chinese and expressed affiliation with the Communist-based World Federation of Trade Unions. In … 1948 when Field Marshall Phibulsongkram returned to power and had a policy to undermine the leftist leaning GTUA, he helped to establish the Thai Union of Labour (TUL) which few years later changed the name to Thai National Trades Union Congress (TNTUC), aiming at acquiring

international acceptance. Most of its members were Thai but included not only workers but also some other professions such as hawkers and tricycle drivers as its members. He succeeded in …(1952) the TUL was undermined and many of its labour leaders were put in jail on charges of being communists (Suppanakorn 1996, pp.41-42).

The Thai trade union at that time, according to Suppanakorn (1996), became an apparatus of politicians in gaining or controlling political power. "Another trade union was formed in … 1953 under the guideline of Field Marshall Phibulsongkram which was called the Free Workmen's Association of Thailand (FWAT), and its motive was to draw Chinese workers to support the government" (Suppanakorn 1996, p.42). It was further elaborated by Suppanakorn (1996) that:

> The Association received considerable financial support from the Director General of the National Police Department, General Phao Sriyanond. Like the TNTUC, the Association was practically run by the government and weakened when Field Marshall Phibulsongkram fell from power in … 1957 (Suppanakorn 1996, p.42).

Presently, trade unions in Thailand are established and operated under provisions of The Labour Relations Act of B. E. 2518 (1975). It should be noted that the term 'Labour Union' is used instead of 'Trade Union' in Thai Law. Chandravithun and Vause expressed that:

> The normative structure for labor-management relations in Thailand is thorough and comprehensive, drawing upon many of the labor law nations familiar to American employers and unions. In some respects, the Thai Labor Relations Act resembles the United States National Labor Relations Act, which was initially promulgated by the Wagner Act of 1935. The Thai Labor Relations Act originally was broad in coverage, although it exempted agricultural workers and civil servants; state enterprise employees also were exempted on April 19, 1991 (Chandravithun & Vause 1994, p.20).

As previously mentioned, historically Thai industrial relations were heavily influenced by the British heritage and context. This is also applicable to the United States. Several laws and traditions were brought into practice in colonial America. For example "the early colonists in America brought apprenticeship with them in much the same form as it existed in the mother country of England" (Swanson & Holton, 2000, p.38).

At the same time, laws and traditions related to trade unions practiced in England were applied in the early days of colonial America. The regulation and control of American labour unions before 1910 "was chiefly by judge-made law. Workers who used economic pressure to spread union organization in the early 1800s were held guilty of common-law criminal conspiracy. (Gregory,1991, p.434). This was called the "conspiracy doctrine" (Herman & Kuhn, 1981, p.34), "a substantial portion of English-American law consists of rulings made by judges in particular cases rather than laws passed by legislatures. Any judicial decision tends to establish a precedent and, in fact, normally constitutes the law with respect to the situation it covers until a contrary decision is rendered in a similar case or until legislation creates a new rule" (Herman & Kuhn, 1981, p.60).

Thus the industrial relations in Thailand has adopted the British industrial system both directly from England and indirectly from the United States through the application of the United States labour relations law in the Thai labour relations law.

Trade unions in Thailand can be established only under the provisions of the Labour Relations Act of B.E. 2518 (1975). The details of procedures for establishment and operation of the unions are prescribed in Chapter 7, from Articles 86 to Article 111 of the Act. The objectives of the unions as prescribed by this Act (Article 86) are that the union must have the objectives of acquiring and protecting benefits in regard to the terms of employment and promoting good relations between the employers and the employees and among the employees themselves (Chandravithun & Vause 1994).

At a time of extensive and radical change in Britain, when the prevailing management theories saw people as extensions of machines in the pursuit of 'scientific management' (Taylor 1911), the seeds of coercive management, and collective bargaining to combat it, were sown. The history of trade Unionism in England can be traced back to 1667 (Webb & Webb 1956 orig. 1894, p.28), while the history of unionism in Thailand "can be traced back to … 1932" (Suppanakorn 1996, p.41). The difference in the time span is 265 years. This is not counting the time of workers combination in the form of craft guilds. The first craft guild for which a written record exists is the Candlemakers' guild of Paris established in 1061 (Barlow 1967). If we did the take this date into account, the time difference would be even

larger i.e. 871 years. One reason for the influence of British industrial relations on Thailand was that King Chulalongkorn (King Rama V) visited Europe and became very interested in British models of society. During the time when Thai business interests were expanding, educational opportunities were broadened and the legislative machinery was developing, British and international (through the International Labour Organisation (ILO) models were adopted in Thailand. As discussed later, now that Thailand is more advandced in industrialization and especially, as successive National Economic and Social Development Plans have sought to improve every facet of Thai life and prosperity, a closer match can be sought between its various institutions and Thai culture.

1.1.3 Industrial Democracy

The term industrial democracy was used by Sidney and Beatrice Webb in 1897 in their book entitled "Industrial Democracy" (Webb & Webb 1902). It was based on the assumption that a trade union is a democratic organization. The governance of trade unions reflects the democratic process. "The members of each trade, in general meeting assembled, themselves made the regulations, applied them to particular cases, voted the expenditure of funds, and decided on such action by individual members as seemed necessary for the common weal" (Webb & Webb 1902, p.3). They asserted that:

> When workmen meet together to discuss their grievances…still more, when they form associations of national extent, raise an independent revenue, elect permanent representative committees, and proceed to bargain and agitate as corporate bodies…they are forming, within the state, a spontaneous democracy of their own (Webb & Webb 1902, p.808).

There are seven major regulations used by trade union to achieve the chief object of elevating the social positions of its members (Webb & Webb 1902): the Standard Rate; the Normal Day; Sanitation and Safety; New Processes and Machinery; Continuity of Employment; the Entrance into a Trade; and the Right to a Trade (Webb & Webb 1902). Trade Unionists, from the beginning of the eighteenth century down to the present day, have enforced their Regulations by three distinct instruments or levers, and these can be distinguished as the Method of Mutual Insurance, the Method of Collective Bargaining and the Method of Legal Enactment

(Webb & Webb 1902). In addition to these three methods, arbitration is another means of determining the conditions of employment, although the decision is not the will of either party or the outcome of negotiation between them, but the fiat of an umpire or arbitrator (Webb & Webb 1902).

Among the major methods of enforcing trade union regulations, collective bargaining is the most powerful method as the intent was to allow employee representatives to participate and share the power in decision making in the workplace. It can be considered as a foundation of industrial democracy. According to the International Labour Organization (ILO), industrial democracy is "an umbrella term referring to the sharing of power in the workplace" (ILO 1996, p.12). It referred to a variety of schemes involving:

> the spread of producers' cooperatives and workers' control, or public ownership and the gradual socialization of the economy, or trade union recognition and collective bargaining, or simply the improvement of workers' participation in, and acceptance of, the organizational purposes of the firms where they worked (Lichtenstein & Harris 1993, p.2.).

Participation in practice may include: employee problem-solving groups; union-management cooperative projects; participative work design; gain sharing, profit sharing, and Scanlon plans (these are methods for sharing profits with employees according to some formula); and worker ownership or employee stock ownership (Cascio 1995).

Industrial democracy may be divided into two categories: representative or indirect; and direct forms of influence (ILO 1979a). Participation and influence may be achieved through different levels ranging from employee representation at board level to the disclosure of information at the individual employee level. Industrial democracy has been practiced in many countries throughout the world. In Europe, especially, almost every country has some type of legislation requiring companies to practice representative participation (Robbins 1998; Mayer & Schweisshelm 2000; Halbach et al. 1994). In addition the European Union has prescribed, as a rule for all member countries to follow, the application of industrial democracy in their industries. A particularly significant development in Europe has been the introduction by the EU of its European Works Councils Directive (1994 & 1997),

requiring the establishment of a European Works Council in larger, multinational enterprises (Patmore 2002; Frege 2002). This study is affiliated to the European methodology.

Meanwhile, the Constitution of the Kingdom of Thailand of B. E. 2540, promotes the right to participate for Thai people in several areas including political, social and economic development (MOE 1997; Jumpa 2002; Viriyayudthangura 2002). According to the National Economic and Social Development Board (NESDB), participation has been chosen as a major strategy for implementation of the Ninth Economic and Social Development Plan B. E. 2545-2549 (NESDB 2000). One of the major objectives of the plan is to increase the nation's competitiveness in global competition (NESDB 2001a). Thus participation is being used as a drive engine to create national competitiveness. Industrial democracy practice has been stipulated in three legislation issues: the Labour Relations Act of B. E. 2518 (DOLPW 1995; Chandravithun & Vause 1994); the announcement of the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare on Safety, Occupational Health and Environment at Work Committee (DOLPW, 2002a); and, the Labour Protection Act of B. E. 2541 (MOLSW 1998; Thongdee 2004). Many industrial democracy practices involve direct employee participation without trade union involvement.

This, however, is seen to oppose the main purpose of the trade union in protecting employee interests. The major mechanism provided for trade unionism is collective bargaining supported by activity such as strikes. At the same time employers can use lockout to counterbalance strikes by employees and trade union members.

1.2   The Concepts Important to the Study

1.2.1 Organization Behaviour

Organizational behaviour "is a field of study that investigates the impact that individuals, groups, and structure have on behaviour within organizations for the purpose of applying such knowledge toward improving an organization's effectiveness" (Robbins 1998, p.7). Industrial relations operate within the broader remit of human resource management and organizational behaviour (Robbins 1998). Organizationally, industrial relations was characterized by the managerial

prerogative i.e. hiring, firing, transfers, pay and the worker prerogative to wrest control at the point of production. This could (and still can) be expressed by the employee controlling the pace of work and productivity (Mayo 1946; Roethlisberger, Dickson & Wright 1950). The Hawthorne studies (Sheldrake 1996) evidenced the ability of employees and employee groups to exercise informal control of productivity.

Around the 1960's much of the sociology of work literature was concerned with the alienation of employees from the parts of organization that were outside of the immediate task. The idea of employee social and psychological needs became the concern of many motivation theorists. Many such motivation theories were developed, for example the hierarchy of needs theory (Maslow 1954), the two-factor theory (Herzberg 1974; Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman 1959), and expectancy theory (Vroom 1964). These theories recognized the importance of psychological motivators in the production process in addition to the physical motivators. Note that these reinforced the idea of the individual, often externalized within the organizational context. There was a transactional element to many of the theories in that managers would transact to either enrich jobs or find some way of satisfying individual needs. This individuality translated to the manager group too.

The effects of managerial assumptions and style were studied, for example: theory X and theory Y (McGregor 1960) and the managerial grid (Blake & Mouton 1985). Gradually, these theories and initiatives were expanded into paradigms that were specifically redirected at the voluntary redistribution of managerial power. These are, for example: theory Z (Ouchi 1981) and other such theories. The label given to these theories was 'empowerment' (Covey 1992; Argyris 1999a). The recognition of legitimate power for employees paved the way for the development of the industrial democracy concept. Employee empowerment thus plays a pivotal role in industrial democracy. It is based on the assumption that employees can make important contributions to the organization other than those confined to tasks and roles.

The major impact of unionism has been felt within the organizational framework. What follows is an example of the theories and ideas that go beyond collective bargaining that are recognized through theory of group and individual motivation.

1.2.2 Participative Management

As discussed earlier, industrial democracy is achieved through employee participation in decision making in the work place (ILO,1996). Participative management thus enhances employee participation and promotes industrial democracy.

Likert (1967)'s 'system 4' participative management theory expands the channel and opportunity for employee participation. Likert defines the four systems as follows: system 1: exploitive authoritative; system 2: benevolent authoritative; system 3: consultative; and system 4: participative group (Likert 1967).

It has also been recognized as a means for improving industrial relations at the enterprise and national levels. Fernie & Metcalf (1995) found that workplaces with employee involvement governance have the best productivity performance when compared with authoritarian-type workplaces. According to Keller's (1995) empirical findings, works councils are organizationally efficient. That is they balance out employers' and employees' interests. The dismissal rate and the voluntary leaving rate are lower in firms with a plant-level interest representation (Keller 1995). The term "worker participation in management" is mostly used by Americans while "industrial democracy" is being used by Europeans (Strauss 1979).

1.2.3 Empowerment Theory

Empowerment is one of the most important theories in contemporary management. It is also a cornerstone of participative organization and industrial democracy. Robins defines empowerment as "a strategic process of building a partnership between people and the organization, fostering trust, responsibility, authority and accountability to best serve the customer" (Robbins 1998, p. xiii). Empowerment and power is not the same thing (Whetten & Cameron 1998). Empowerment and power are differentiated as illustrated in Table 1.2.

Table 1.2: The difference between Power and Empowerment

Power	Empowerment
External source	Internal source
Ultimately, few people have it	Ultimately, everyone can have it
The capacity to have others do what you want	The capacity to have others do what they want
To get more implies taking away from someone else	To get more does not affect how much others have
Lead to competition	Lead to cooperation

Source: Whetten & Cameron 1998, p.380.

Connecting Whetten and Cameron's dimensions to the earlier discussion on Thai culture, it can be seen that "empowerment is not a new concept. It has appeared in various forms throughout modern management literature (Whetten & Cameron 1998, p.381) since the 1950s. However, Argyris argues that "there has been little growth in empowerment over the last 30 years" (Argyris 1999a, p.103). Kreitner asserts that "today, the issue is not empowerment versus no empowerment. Rather, the issue is how empowerment should take place" (Kreitner 1998, p.451). In order to make empowerment transform in the work force Argyris argues that:

> If management wants employees to take more responsibility for their own destiny, it must encourage the development of internal commitment. As the name implies, internal commitment comes largely from within. Individuals are committed to a particular project, person, or programme based on their own reasons or motivations. By definition, internal commitment is participatory and very closely allied with empowerment. The more that top management wants internal commitment from its employees, the more it must try to involve employees in defining work objectives, specifying how to achieve them, and setting stretch targets (Argyris 1999a, p.105).

Covey asserts that six conditions of empowerment must be fulfilled in order to make empowerment work in practice (Covey 1992). They are: character: integrity (habits=values, word=deeds), maturity (courage balanced with consideration), abundance mentality; skills: communication, planning/organization, synergistic problem-solving; win-win agreement; self-supervision; helpful structures and system; and accountability (self-evaluation) (Covey 1992). Semler concludes that:

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What is important is our open-mindedness, our trust in our employees and distrust of dogma. We are neither socialist nor purely capitalist, but we take the best of these failed systems and others to re-organize work so that collective thinking does not overpower individualistic flights of grandeur; that leadership does not get lost in an endless search for consensus; that people are free to work as they like; that bosses don't have to be parents and workers don't act like children. At the heart of our bold experiment is a truth so simple it would be silly if it wasn't so rarely recognized: A company should trust its destiny to its employees (Semler 2001, p.276).

1.2.4 Stakeholder Theory

It was recognized at the outset of this study that the industrial relations context in Thailand was multifaceted. There were several stakeholders who could influence or be influenced by workplace relations, regulation and legislation. To support the study, a brief outline of stakeholder theory is presented here and expanded in the literature chapter.

Freeman (1984) asserts that firms have relationships with many constituent groups and that these stakeholders both affect and are affected by the actions of the firm. It is proposed here that this statement need not only relate to one firm but to any organization that has constituent groups. A stake is "any interest, share, or claim that a group or individual has in the outcome of a corporation's policies, procedures, or actions toward others" (Weiss 2003, p.34). Carroll elaborates that:

A stake … can range from simply an interest in an undertaking at one extreme to a legal claim of ownership at the other extreme. In between these two extremes is a right to something. This right might be a legal right to certain treatment rather than a legal claim of ownership such as that of a stakeholder. Legal right might include the right of due process (to get an impartial hearing) or the right to privacy (not to privacy invaded or abridged (Carroll 1993, p.60).

Carroll further elaborates that:

A stakeholder, then, is an individual or group that asserts to have one or more kinds of stakes in a business. Just as stakeholders may be affected by the actions, decisions, policies, or practices of the business firm, these stakeholders also may affect the organization's actions, decisions, policies, or practices. With stakeholders, therefore there is a potential two-way interaction or exchange of influence (Carroll 1993, p.60).

So, a stakeholder may be defined as "any individual or group who can affect or is affected by actions, decisions, policies, practices, or goals of the organization" (Carroll 1993, p.60). It also can be thought of as "any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organization's objectives" (Freeman 1984, p.46). Stakeholders can be classified into internal and external stakeholders. Internal stakeholders may include owners, customers, employees and suppliers (Freeman 1984). External stakeholders can include governments, competitors, consumer advocates, environmentalists, special interest groups and media (Freeman 1984).

Based on Freeman (1984) stakeholders of industrial relations system can be identified. In the practice of industrial democracy there are several groups involved in the day-to-day practice, in addition to employers and trade union leaders who are major stakeholders in the Thai industrial relations system. These are employees of non-unionized companies, employer organization leaders group, human resource managers, government officials, members of tripartite bodies and labour academics. This makes for a very complex situation in terms of shared understanding and participation. Since participation is one of the major strategies in the national development plan, and since industrial democracy is one of the mechanisms for employee participation, a stakeholder study of industrial democracy will be insightful.

1.2.5 The Central Role of Culture

Part of the central issue in industrial democracy in Thailand is the nexus between Western (English) and Thai cultures. Culture has become one of the most important factors affecting the management of organizations. As a consequence of the globalization business concept, nations need to pay particular attention to the preservation of national culture within an international environment. Under the current international management environment, managers "must be very professional and highly qualified" (Alkhafaji 1995, p.57). They need to be "flexible, deployable, multi-skilled, multidisciplinary, and cross-cultural" (Alkhafaji 1995, p.57). This is due to the fact that their current jobs require them to work or come into contact with people in various countries and cultures all over the world. So, culture has become one of the most important factors affecting the success or failure of management

performance. Ferraro argues that "failure to consider the cultural context in the domestic organization can, and has, led to misunderstandings, miscommunication, lawsuits, and generally an undermining of the goals of organization" (Ferraro 1998, p.7). In order to be successful, managers must be competent in handling cross-cultural matters in their day to day management practices. Ferraro asserts that "one of the most common factors contributing to failure in international business assignments is the erroneous assumption that if a person is successful in the home environment, he or she will be equally successful in applying technical expertise in a different culture" (Ferraro 1998, p.7).

It is evident that "failures in the overseas business setting most frequently result from an inability to understand and adapt to foreign ways of thinking and acting rather than from technical or professional incompetence" (Ferraro 1998, p.7). Applying industrial democracy in the day to day practice requires understanding of cultural dimensions of business management.

1.2.5.1 The concept of culture

According to Hofstede, culture is defined as "the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another" (Hofstede 1984, p.21). Hofstede argues that culture has been defined in many ways (Hofstede 1984). For example, Schein has defined culture as:

> A pattern of shared assumptions, invented/discovered and shared by a given group, as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be valid, and, therefore, is to be taught to new members of the group as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those problems (Schein 1992, p. 12).

At the same time Hampden-Turner has defined culture as:

> Culture comes from within people and is put together by them to reward the capacities that they have in common. Culture gives continuity and identity to the group. It balances contrasting contributions, and operates as self-steering system which learns from feedback. It works as a pattern of information and can greatly facilitate the exchange of understanding. The values within a culture are more or less harmonious (Hampden-Turner 1994, p.21).

Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998) assert that culture comprises three layers. The first layer is the outer layer or the explicit products. "Explicit culture is the observable reality of the language, food, buildings, houses, monuments, agriculture, shrines, markets, fashions and art" (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner 1998, p.21). They are "the symbols of the deeper level of culture" p.21). The second layer is the middle layer of norms and values. Norms are the mutual sense a group has of what is "right" and "wrong" while values determine the definition of "good" and "bad". Norms can develop on a formal level as written laws and on an informal level as social control while values are closely related to the ideals shared by a group. The third layer is the core or the central assumption about existence.

In addition to the layer of culture Kotler argues that culture comprises subculture and social class. He further elaborates that "subcultures include nationalities, religions, racial groups, and geographic regions" (Kotler 2000, p.161) while "social classes are relatively homogeneous and enduring divisions in a society which is hierarchically ordered and whose members share similar values, interests, and behavior" (Kotler 2000, p.161). It is at the core and next layer that important differences between the values and beliefs underpinning British and Thai cultures (and especially as they manifest themselves within industrial relations) are evident.

At the core of Thai culture are many Buddhist beliefs about human nature. For example, the Thais believe in the Divine Abiding, the four mental attributes of a human being who is sublime or grand-minded like a god (Payutto 1999). The first attribute is Metta, loving kindness. This is the "goodwill and amity, the wish to help all people attain benefits and happiness" (Payutto 1999, p.20). The second attribute is Kanruna, compassion. It is "the desire to help other people escape from their sufferings; the determination to free all beings, both human and animal, of their hardships and miseries" (Payutto 1999, p.20). The third attribute is Mudita, appreciative gladness. It is the thinking, feeling and acting of "when seeing others do good actions or attain success and advancement, one responds with gladness and is ready to help and support them" (Payutto 1999, p.20). The final attribute is Upekkha, equanimity. It is the thinking, feeling and acting of "seeing things as they are with a mind that is even, steady, firm and fair like a pair of scales; understanding that all beings experience good and evil in accordance with the cause they have created;

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ready to judge, position oneself and act in accordance with principles, reason and equity" (Payutto 1999, p.20). These four attributes are instilled in the mindsets of the Thais. They think about them, feel and practice them in their day to day living. As Buddhist principles have strong influence over Thai cultures and the daily lives of the Thais, further discussion will be made in the literature review chapter. However, to provide the basis for more understanding of the Thai and the Western cultures, a brief review of the Thai culture will be made in the following section.

1.2.5.2 The Thai culture

Thai culture has been greatly influenced by Buddhism since the Sukhothai era (1257-1419) to the present time (Sengpracha 2001). Since "Buddhism has been considered the national religion" (Thawornthanasarn et al. 1996, p.635) and 95% of its population are Buddhists (Mulder 2000; Sengpracha 2001), Thai culture is often known as "Thai-Buddhism culture" (Dhiravegin 1998, p.13). According to Article 9 of the Constitution of the Kingdom of Thailand the King must be Buddhist and must act as a royal supporter to religion while Article 73 requires government members to support Buddhism and other religions (Viriyayudthangura 2002; Arunakasikorn et al. 2000; Jumpa 2002). Buddhist philosophies exert a strong influence on Thai society for example, the Buddhist principles on an exemplary member of the human race must have seven qualities or Sappurisa Dhamma (Payutto 1999). The seven qualities include Dhammannuta: knowing principles, knowing causes; Atthannuta: knowing objectives, knowing results; Attannuta: knowing oneself; Mattannuta: knowing moderation; Kalannuta: knowing occasion; Parisannuta: knowing company; and Puggalannuta: knowing persons (Payutto 1999).

As the following description of Thai culture develops, contrasts with Western individualism and universalism are easily apparent. Especially obvious is the preference for helping others not to lose face or be inconvenienced. It becomes apparent that whilst Thailand may share with British industry members, whether employees, employers, or legislators, things like worker struggles, problems with strikes and requirements for protective legislation, the way these issues are dealt with in a way that is comfortable with the national culture may be very different. Keep smiling, pay respect to the king, own gratitude and generosity, honour the elder, be

proud of one's own dignity as a human (Sengpracha 2001) are all unique to Thai culture.

Komin has identified nine value clusters according to their relative significant positions in the Thai cognitive system as follows: "(1) ego; (2) grateful relationship; (3) smooth interpersonal relationship; (4) flexibility and adjustment; (5) religio-psychical; (6) education and competence; (7) interdependence; (8) fun-pleasure; and (9) achievement-task orientations" (Komin 1990, p.158).

It can be seen that there are some similarities here with Western cultural attributes (Scarborough 1998). For example, values of education and competence, achievement task orientation, are held in common. Values such as the grateful relationship, smooth interpersonal relationship, fun-pleasure and ego are not so much in tune with British foundations such as the Protestant work ethic and Enlightenment (seeing society in rational and scientific terms). In particular, the ego orientation stands out as almost a competing value.

The cultural factors have strong influence over our day to day living but it is difficult to define. The difficulty is that "culture is like the air we breathe; we are unaware of it existence until we are deprived of its support" (Runyon 1977, p.76). In order to understand the essential nature of our own culture we need to look at other cultures. To help us to understand more about the Thai culture in the following section we will look at the Western culture by making comparison between the Thai and Western cultures.

1.2.5.3 Thai v Western cultures

Although cultures vary both within and between countries it is proposed here that there is some similarity between Britain and other Western countries (such as America). Of particular relevance to how culture manifested itself in industrial relations, is the fact that countries in Europe and America shared similar cultural experiences regarding a scientific approach to society and the impact of the industrial revolution on working relationships. As the American influence has also been felt in Thailand, the notion of Western culture has been used when contrasting Thai and British/American cultures. Before making a comparison of the Thai and Western

cultures we need to understand the nature of Western culture. Whiteley, Cheung & Zhang (2000) explain what makes Western people culturally comfortable.

> Since the early days of Socrates, people have found comfort in being free to argue, debate, analyze and 'prove' things either scientifically or spiritually. Reason and logic have been themes running through Western development. The notion of a strenuous development and exercise of intellect was accompanied by the notion of a free will. At times this has been connected to a union with some sort of spiritual god, at times rejecting any supernatural being, but the notion of free will has been a continuous thread (Whiteley, Cheung & Zhang 2000, p.29).

Kreitner (1998, p.502) explains the nature of the American [Western] culture as such that "in America, for example, the prevailing culture places a high value on winning and shame [in] losing. You can be number one or be a loser, with nothing in between. America's cultural preoccupation [is] with winning …".

Based on the above observation we can see that American (Western) culture emphasizes winning and losing, explicit rather than implicit. There must be explicit clear-cut decision preferably without any grey areas. One of the major explicit contrasts between the Thai and Western cultures is that of the expression of confrontational and compromising nature of behaviours. While Western people choose to fight to win or lose, the Thai people choose to compromise in most of their activities. Srinawk made a very interesting observation.

> The American [Western] way of life is based on competition, competing with rivals, competing with those who are around, and competing with oneself, life today must be better than yesterday and tomorrow must be better than today. It is a life which always steers ahead sometimes without destination or aim. This is a difference between the American and the Thai way of life, for, generally speaking, Thais are (or used to be) content with having just enough to live on while in America, especially in New York, to be successful means to possess the extras beyond necessities (Srinawk 2001, pp.245-246).

As the Thai culture is a "Thai-Buddhism culture" (Dhiravegin 1998, p.13), the middle path is a way of life for a Thai. Thais are compromising in nature and try to avoid any explicit confrontation. Thais follow the Buddhist principles of helping all people. This is usually done by:

> Joining in, constructively creating social harmony and unity according to the four principles of helpful integration (Sangaha-Vtthu), which are: (1) Dana: giving, sharing (helping through money/material goods); (2) Piyavaca: amicable speech (helping through words); (3) Atthacariy: helpful action (helping through physical effort); (4) Samarattata: participation (helping through problem solving) (Payutto 1999, p.7).

It is through the practice of Buddhist principles above and other principles including the practices of Thai cultures for example 'face-saving', 'criticism-avoidance', and 'kreng jai' (Komin 1990) that Thai people express in their compromising natures. They prefer not to express their confrontation or challenge explicitly but would best rather avoid such issues. They are not comfortable with an explicit winning and losing attitude or black and white differentiation, but they are comfortable with staying in the grey area.

Having reviewed the Thai and Western cultures and recognized the great differences between them in the following section we will briefly discuss the cultural dimensions of business management in Thailand. This is to be the basis for the review and discussion of the application of the Western theories in Thailand in chapter two.

1.2.5.4 The impact of culture in business management in Thailand

Managers assigned to work overseas usually face cross-cultural problems in their working and personal lives. Working in Thailand is not an exception. The reason for this is that Thai culture is greatly different from Western and other cultures. Mulder has noted that:

> Thailand is often called the Land of Smiles, a sobriquet that sounds at once pleasant and mysterious. At the same time that a smile may suggest good humour, it is one of the most enigmatic of expressions as well. A smile may be a sign of kindness, of forgiveness, or friendly inclinations; a smile may also be merely polite, a way to smooth interaction or a sign that one is willing to listen. A smile may indicate agreement, or self-confidence, but may also be a means to gently express one's opposition or doubt. A person on the defensive may smile, and one may smile when sad, or hurt, or even insulted. It has been said that the Thais have a smile for every emotion, and with so many nuances of smiling, the smile often hides more than it reveals (Mulder 2000, p.1).

Holmes & Tangtongtavy (2000) have classified the elaborate array of facial expressions Thais boast. They have taken, under the general category of yim or 'smiling', thirteen types of smile. They call them 'A Baker's Dozen' and they are illustrated in Table 1.3. As we can see, different types of smile have different kinds of meaning. Misinterpretation of a smile in Thailand especially by an expatriate manager could cause serious management problems.

Table 1.3: A Baker's Dozen

1.	Yim thang nam taa: The "I'm-so-happy-I'm-crying" smile.
2.	Yim thak thaai: The polite smile for someone you barely know.
3.	Yim cheun chom: The "I-admire-you" smile.
4.	Fuen Yim: The stiff smile, also known as the "I-should-laugh-at-the joke-though-it's-not-funny"smile.
5.	Yim mee lessanai: The smile which masks something wicked in your mind.
6.	Yim yaw: The teasing, or "I-told-you-so" smile.
7.	Yim yae-yae: The "I-know-things-look-pretty-bad-but-there's-no-point-in-crying-over-spilt-milk" smile.
8.	Yim sao: The sad smile.
9.	Yim haeng: The dry smile, also known as the "I-know-I-owe-you-the-money-but-I-don't-have-it"smile.
10.	Yim thaat thaan: The "I-disagree-with-you" smile, also known as the "You-can-go-ahead-and-propose-it-but-your-idea's-no-good" smile.
11.	Yim cheuat-cheuan: The "I-am-the-winner" smile, the smile given to a losing competitor.
12.	Yim soo: The "smile-in-the-face-of-an-impossible-struggle" smile.
13.	Yim mai awk: The "I'm-trying-to-smile-but-can't" smile.

Source: Holmes and Tangtongtavy 2000, p.25.

Holmes and Tangtongtavy (2000), note that there is evidence of differences and similarities among the culture patterns of countries. Identification of differences and

similarity can help us in planning and preventing conflict that can lead to major problems.

Based on the review made on the concept of culture and the Thai culture including the comparison of the Thai and Western cultures, we found that Thai cultures are greatly different from Western cultures in many areas. Therefore, when practicing management in different cultures included in Thailand, it is essential that the managers must critically appraise their own culture to find the differences and similarities of the two cultures. This is to create a better understanding of their own and other cultures in order to be able to adapt themselves effectively to the local cultural environments. To be the basis for further analysis and understanding of own and other cultures a brief review and discussion of the application of Western management theories in Thailand will be made in the following section.

1.2.5.5 Applying Western management theories in Thailand

Nowadays, Western culture has been heavily adopted by Thai society into the daily lives of people. This extends from eating bread in the morning (European or American breakfast) to dressing in western style (wearing shirt and blouse or suits), to living in western designed houses, to receiving modern medicine and treatment.

Education, particularly the management courses in both private and public universities, has long emulated Western programs mostly without any adjustment to match the Thai society. Almost all course-books belong to foreign authors. Only a small portion is in Thai but with original concepts, theory and philosophy from Western countries. A Suan Dusit Rajabhat University-MBA programme is a clear example. A Marketing Management book written by (Kotler 2000) has been selected as a course-book in Marketing Management subject, while a Human Resource Management book by (Noe et al. 2000) is used in Principle of Human Resource Management course in Master of Management Program at Burapa University, and Employment Relations book by (Rose 2001) is used in Industrial Relations Management course of MBA Programme at Kasetsart University.

Also, management training courses conducted in Thailand usually replicate Western training programs, especially from the United States and Europe, and often without

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any adaptation to suit the Thai culture. The training programs conducted by the two major training institutes in Thailand (Thailand Management Association - TMA and The Personnel Management Association of Thailand - PMAT) in October 2002 were a good example. The training course on interviewing technique for personnel recruitment conducted by TMA contained the following topics: recruiting and selecting personnel, using interview as a selection tool, preparing for an interview, preparing an interview agenda, preparing interview questions, and correctness and carefulness in conducting an interview (TMA 2002). While these topics may be acceptable as a guideline, the details content of each topic needed to be adjusted to suit the Thai culture.

A similar approach to that practiced by the TMA is also adopted by PMAT. For example the training course on coaching and mentoring skill development conducted by PMAT contained the following topics: employee development through instructing, coaching and mentoring, supervisor's role in coaching in an e-business era, systematic coaching process and procedure, work analysis, learner analysis and understanding the nature of adult learning, teaching and demonstrating technique, and learning assessment and behavioural changes (PMAT 2002). Again, adjustments needed to be made in the details content of each topic to suit the Thai culture.

Regarding management practices having been influenced by Western academic and training, undoubtedly practitioners are going to practice accordingly. For example, the best practice model of the Siam Commercial Bank Public Company, as identified by Thailand Productivity Institute (Laosirirat & Narksaward 2001), was based on Western philosophy, concepts and theories. The model includes: managing by focusing on quality and customer's satisfaction, standard and quality format in administration and management, and dissemination of knowledge to the public (Laosirirat & Narksaward 2001). In the government sector, an example can be considered from the Public Administration Reform Plan of the Office of the Public Sector Development Commission (OPDC) with the necessity being specified as follows:

> Thailand is currently facing the new paradigm politically, socially and economically as well as being pressured by such significant changes throughout the world as democracy in which people can participate more

in the administration, human rights and quality of lives, promotion of free trade system, environmental protection and networked information. Their importance are increasingly developed and causing all nations to adapt to them (OPDC 1999, p.1).

Moreover, the Result Based Management Budgeting System has been selected as a part of the Public Administration Reform Plan of the Public Administration Reform Plan of the Office of the Public Sector Development Commission (OPDC) as follows:

> The former government budgeting system that is mainly focused on controlling of resource utilization (input-oriented) will be transformed into a performance and result based budgeting system (output-oriented) which will reinforce result based management with clearly defined objectives, strategic plan and key performance indicators to be able to measure and assess the performance and outcome. Budget spending will be focused mainly on the benefits of people with flexible working process designed to suit with the changing situation. The management's responsibility instead of controlling on budget spending as in present, including changing of financial and inventory system to be in line with the international standard will be increasingly emphasized (OPDC 1999, pp.8-9).

Accordingly, Western culture and philosophy, concepts and theories exert some influence on organization and management in both public and private sectors. This particularly applies to the private entities invested and run by Western investors and management. They typically use Western concepts and theories when operating their businesses in Thailand as well.

Kreitner (1998, p.114) asserts that "many popular management theories were developed within the U.S. Western cultural context". In his article entitled 'Motivation, Leadership, and Organization: Do American Theories Apply Abroad?' Hofstede concludes that "… Often, the original policy will have to be adapted to fit local culture and lead to the desired effect…" (Hofstede 1980, p.36). Kreitner supports Hofstede's conclusion and further elaborates that:

> It is naive to expect those theories to apply automatically in significantly different cultures. For example, American-made management theories that reflect Americans' preoccupation with individualism are out of place in countries such as Mexico, Brazil, and Japan, where individualism is discouraged (Kreitner 1998, pp.114-115).

A similar conclusion was drawn by a Thai researcher as that of Komin who concluded in her research that:

> … from the perspective of cultural values in organizations, effective organizations or more specifically effective management, cannot implement management theories wholesale from abroad. Effective leaders cannot choose their styles at will; what is feasible depends to a large extent on the cultural conditioning of the leader's subordinates. Culturally 'unfitted' management theories are of limited use and might do more harm than good (Komin 1990, p.262).

The background discussed so far has led the discussion towards some questions that portray Thai thinking within its industrial relations context. The study centres around the concept of industrial democracy, discussed earlier. Supporting literature has been very valuable in explaining the development of both the British and Thai industrial relations, organizational and management contexts. In order to complement this work and also to contribute empirical data from the major groups within the Thai context, the following questions were asked.

1.3 Research Questions

1.3.1 How do the selected stakeholders express their knowledge of industrial democracy?

1.3.2 What are the similarities and differences in perceptions of the 'industrial democracy in practice' concept held by members of the selected stakeholder groups?

1.3.3 What are emergent best practices in industrial democracy?

1.4 Research Objectives

In order to provide some answers to these questions a number of research objectives were developed.

1.4.1 To identify knowledge of industrial democracy in Thailand as perceived by selected stakeholders.

1.4.2 To investigate the similarities and differences in stakeholder perceptions of industrial democracy.

1.4.3 To compare the similarities and differences in stakeholder perceptions of industrial democracy.

1.4.4 To identify problems and difficulties encountered from the practicing of industrial democracy within Thai business organizations.

1.4.5 To emerge best practice in industrial democracy as expressed by the stakeholders.

1.5 Thesis Structure

The thesis was originally planned for five chapters and later on expanded to seven chapters. Each chapter explains the progress of the research and provides the reader with a logical and clear presentation of the phenomenon under study, the research strategy and the findings.

1.5.1 Chapter One

This chapter provides an introduction to the research topic (Industrial Democracy in Thailand: A Stakeholder Study) and an overview of the research purpose and strategy.

1.5.2 Chapter Two

This chapter will provide an expanded account of some literature already produced and new literature that is judged to be pertinent to the industrial democracy concept. In accordance with the findings and depending on the topics that emerge from respondents, some of the literature going into the study will be either confirmed or challenged. Additionally it is likely that the findings will allow theoretical sensitivity to apply (Glaser & Strauss 1967). This entails looking for literature as directed by the findings and not, as was the case going into the study, by the theories that corresponded with the issues being studied.

1.5.3 Chapter Three

This chapter presents the methodological framework to be used as a basis for choosing the most appropriate methodology to guide the conduct of this research. The chapter introduces the research questions and describes the philosophical foundation of research methodology. The chapter will introduce two theoretical perspectives. One is the major research theoretical perspective which is grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss 1967) and grounded research (Whiteley 2002a). The second theoretical perspective is sociological. The theory of symbolic interactionism is

presented and its relationship to this research is described. The chapter goes on to present the research paradigm, ontology, epistemology and methodology.

1.5.4 Chapter Four

This chapter will begin by reiterating the research questions and objectives. It will describe the research content in detail and particularly in relation to the eight stakeholder groups being studied. The chapter will present research methodology adopted as guidelines in conducting this research. The chapter continues with research design which connects the research paradigm and analytic frame, data collection methods, data management and data analysis. Each stage in the research design is explained and in particular the data collection, data analysis and data management arrangements. In this chapter the indicative content of the interview guide will also be described.

1.5.5 Chapter Five

The chapter will display the research findings from each of the stakeholder groups. The data from each group will be presented in network form supported by direct quotation from respondents. Where appropriate, following each major category there will be a researcher comment to build a picture of the data as it is emerging.

1.5.6 Chapter Six

This chapter further presents the research findings in analysed form. Following the findings presentation in chapter five the data will be analysed across the stakeholder groups. Dominant themes of similarities and differences will be presented.

1.5.7 Chapter Seven

This chapter is the discussion chapter. Chapter seven has been designed in the following way. Any strong findings that illuminate the research questions will be presented at the beginning of the chapter. Then each research question will be addressed and discussed. First in relation to the literature, theory, concept, idea proposed by the theory in chapter two, data supported comment will be made confirming or challenging the theories presented. Secondly, and importantly new literature directed by the findings will be introduced and discussed.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Chapter one and chapter two together provide an account of the literature reviewed during the design of the study. It was judged that the reader would appreciate a fairly comprehensive account of the central topic - that of industrial relations. The objective of this chapter is to complement chapter one. Following a brief introduction of related literature in chapter one, the literature review in this chapter was conducted at a level sufficient to reach an in-depth understanding of industrial democracy and stakeholder theory in this study. However, it was not conducted to the level of over-contamination of the study (Whiteley 2000; Whiteley 2002a; Whiteley 2004).

The literature review focuses on five main areas. First, the industrial relations system, in which industrial democracy is embedded, will be presented by elaborating on the key actors and institutions involved in the industrial relations system. Following the same pattern the industrial relations system in Thailand will be presented in the second part. The third part further discusses the theoretical framework of industrial democracy. Empowerment theory as a foundation for industrial democracy and the roles of stakeholder theory is then further elaborated. The fourth part discusses the industrial democracy framework. Finally, in the fifth part the cultural dimensions of industrial democracy will be discussed.

The literature review presents linkages between these issues and the practicing of industrial democracy includes the research questions and objectives as explained in chapter one.

2.1 Industrial Relations System

Industrial democracy works under the framework of the industrial relations system. This section will review the framework of the industrial relations system as a base for industrial democracy. As stated in chapter one, Britain was "the first country in the world to have an industrial revolution and the subsequent development of industrialization in other countries has directed attention to the special feature of British experience" (Briggs 1967, p.1). The industrial process has since spread all

over the world aiming to eliminate the backwardness (Dunlop 1958). Before the industrial revolution "once a person completed his apprenticeship and became a journeyman worker he owned his own tools and had considerable freedom to move to a different shop or to set up shop for himself" (Herman & Kuhn 1981, p.3). After the industrial revolution people had to work with machines, not tools, so the worker lost the freedom to own his tools or become his own boss (Herman & Kuhn 1981). Briggs argues that "the rapid expansion of industry at the end of the eighteenth and during the early nineteenth century, and the new forms of industrial structure created, reshaped the existing pattern of employment relations" (Briggs 1967, p.2). The key actors or participants (Dunlop 1958; Salamon 1992) in employment relations nowadays are not limited only to employer and employee as in the past. The relationships have become more complicated and government agencies play a pivotal role in the employment relations system. Industrial relations now extends to the social life of industrial personnel, culture and the community and finally the political and legal controls of industrial activity (Moore 1946).

To have a better understanding of the complicated relationships Dunlop (1958) proposed the theoretical framework for analysing the workings of industrial relations systems which may vary in scope ranging from a company to a country as a whole. He asserts that the system of industrial relations involves three groups of actors: employees or workers and their organizations; employers or managers and their organizations; and governmental agencies concerned with the work place and work community (Dunlop 1958). He further elaborates that the system creates a complex set of rules to govern the work place and work community. These rules may take a variety of forms in different systems such as agreements, statutes, orders, decrees, regulations, awards, policies, and practices and customs (Dunlop 1958). The three key actors interact with each other under these prescribed rules and regulations. Based on Dunlop (1958) and Salamon (1992) the roles of the major actors or participants in the industrial relations system will be discussed in the following section.

2.1.1 Employee Organizations and Trade Unions

Employees or workers and their organizations play a pivotal role in industrial relations systems. Employee organizations can be classified into five levels:

company or organizational level; industrial level; national level; sub-regional level; and international level. Different roles are played at different levels. In general, employee organizations include: trade unions; staff association and professional bodies; Trade Union Congress (TUC); European Trade Union Confederation (ETUC); and International Confederation of Free Trade Unions (ICFTU) (Rose 2001). The roles of employee organizations will be elaborated in this section.

2.1.1.1 Trade Unions

Further to the history of trade unionism introduced in chapter one, elaboration on the classification and functions of trade union will follow. The type of trade unions may be classified in different ways. However, it is traditional to classify trade unions into three different types: craft union; industrial union; and general union (Hyman 1978; Rose 2001). Two more types of trade unions, non-manual unions and industrial federations, may be added to the traditional classification (Flanders 1968). Salamon (1992) has classified trade unions differently. Instead of craft union he used the term occupational union and within this category he included craft union; promotion union - which is the trade union in industries that cover skilled manual workers who were not apprentice-served craftsmen; semi-skilled and unskilled union; and non-manual (white collar) union. However, the classic classification of three major types of trade union of craft union; industrial union; and general union is commonly used (Hyman 1978).

The major distinctions of craft unions are that they recruit members from a specific skilled trade. This is usually entered through a system of apprenticeship in order for apprentices to qualify as unionized tradesmen. Unions have the control of the numbers of apprentices entering the trade and the regulation of the length and nature of apprenticeship. The other factor that distinguishes one craft union from another is the generation of 'fraternity' amongst the members based on a sense of shared skills and similar levels of earnings (Rose 2001; Flanders 1968; Salamon 1992; Hyman 1978). The industrial unions are those that recruit members from all workers within a particular industry, regardless of occupation (Rose 2001; Flanders 1968; Salamon 1992; Hyman 1978). The general unions are those that recruit members across occupational and industrial boundaries and in theory there are no restrictions on potential membership (Rose 2001; Flanders 1968; Salamon 1992; Hyman 1978).

2.1.1.2 Staff Associations

Staff Associations can be considered as an alternative form of union 'white collar' (Hyman 1978; Salamon 1992). The major specific characteristics of staff associations are that they refer to single employers and their membership comprises non-manual employees. They are found in private sector companies, more particularly in financial services such as banks, insurance and building societies (Rose 2001). Rose argues staff associations are not regarded as typical trade unions (Rose 2001). They may be representative of a company's non-manual staff, but not in the traditional way. In contrast Hyman (1983) argues that the shift of employment towards white collar workers has made white collar unionization very important. While the membership of manual worker trade unions has declined since 1931 the membership of white collar unions has been growing rapidly through the twentieth century (Bain & Price 1983).

2.1.1.3 Professional Bodies

Professional bodies "are only peripherally concerned with industrial relations issues" (Rose 2001, p.15). Their primary functions are: to limit entry to the profession to those who achieve the appropriate qualifications; to enhance the status of the profession and its members; and to maintain and improve professional standards of members (Rose 2001). Some examples of professional bodies are the Law Society and the Institute for Personnel and Development (IPD) "but only a few of them concerned with public sector professionals, such as doctors, teachers and midwives have specific industrial relations functions such as pay determination or collective bargaining" (Rose 2001, p.15).

2.1.1.4 The Trade Union Congress (TUC)

The TUC is "the representative body for all affiliated trade unions in England in much the same way as the Confederation of British Industries (CBI) is representative of employers and their associations, and was formed in 1868" (Rose 2001, p.15; Flanders 1968; TUC 2005). Unions affiliated to the TUC pay "an annual affiliation fee based on size of union membership" (Rose 2001, p.15). The main objectives of the TUC are: to help resolve disputes between members of affiliated organizations and their employers, between affiliated organizations and their members and between affiliated organizations themselves; to assist in the unionization of all workers

eligible for union membership; to promote the interests of its members; to help any organization which has similar objectives to the TUC; to improve the economic and social conditions of workers globally; and to promote the interests of all or any of its members (Rose 2001; Hughes & Pollins 1973; Salamon 1992).

To achieve these objectives several methods are used by the TUC such as devising policies concerning industrial, economic and social matters and campaigning actively for them; providing services to members; regulating relations between members and promoting inter-union co-operation; nominating representatives on statutory and consultative bodies; assisting unions in dispute; and taking part in international trade union organization (Rose 2001; Hughes & Pollins 1973; Salamon 1992).

2.1.1.5 The European Trade Union Confederation (ETUC)

The ETUC, based in Brussels, is "the umbrella organization of the major trade union confederations in Europe" (Rose 2001, p.16). The ETUC is made up of thirty-nine (39) organizations in twenty-one (21) Western European countries (including, of course, the TUC) and represents over 45 million workers (Rose 2001). The major objectives of the ETUC are: to represent and promote the social, economic and cultural interests of workers at European level; and to safeguard and strengthen democracy in Europe (Rose 2001; ETUC 2005a; ETUC 2005b). These objectives are achieved by: undertaking negotiation within a number of European bodies where it is officially recognized; employing statutory rights of consultation on specific matters; engaging in policy discussions with heads of government and ministers; and taking direct action jointly with unions in different countries (Rose 2001; ETUC 2005b; ETUC 2005a).

2.1.1.6 The International Confederation of Free Unions (ICFTU)

The ICFTU was founded in 1949 (Wigham 1969; Salamon 1992; ICFTU 2005). The ICFTU has one hundred and forty-one (141) members and is a worldwide organization representing ninety-seven (97) national trade union centres with headquarters in Brussels and New York (Rose 2001). Its objectives include reducing the gap between rich and poor; working for rising living standards, full employment and social security; promoting the interests of working people throughout the world; helping workers to organize themselves and secure the recognition of their

organizations as free bargaining agents; fighting against oppression, dictatorship and discrimination of any kind; defending fundamental human and trade union rights (Rose 2001).

In addition to the ICFTU, there are two employee organizations at the international level. The World Federation of Trade Unions (WFTU) is, say writers, dominated by communist membership (Wigham 1969; Salamon 1992). The other international employee organization is the World Confederation of Labour. This is the Christian-based federation of trade unions (Salamon 1992). The ICFTU has a very close relationship with the International Labour Organization (ILO) which is "the only international tripartite body made up of government, employer and worker representatives" (Rose 2001, p.16). Compared to the other two organizations it plays a major role in the various activities of the ILO.

2.1.1.7 The Roles of Employee Organization and Trade Unions

To consider the roles of any organization it is necessary to consider its functions, as these may be considered to be the roles or tasks required to perform and the means by which to carry them out (Salamon 1992). Trade Union function is originally described by the Webbs in 1897 (Webb & Webb 1902). The Webbs asserted that trade unionists, from the beginning of the eighteenth century down to the present day, enforced their Regulations by three distinct instruments or levers, and these can be distinguished as the method of mutual insurance, the method of collective bargaining, and the method of legal enactment (Webb & Webb 1902). In addition to these three methods, arbitration is another means of determining the conditions of employment although the decision is not the will of either party, or the outcome of negotiation between them, but the fiat of an umpire or arbitrator (Webb & Webb 1902).

Despite the fact that the trade union functions described by the Webbs were made back in 1897 (Webb & Webb 1902), which is more than a century ago, most of them are still in practice nowadays, especially collective bargaining, legal enactment and arbitration methods. These are the major roles or tasks it is required to perform and the means by which to carry out its objectives (Salamon 1992). The present aims and objectives of the trade union movement are best summarized by the TUC, in its

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evidence to the Royal Commission on Trade Unions and Employers' Associations (known as the Donovan Commission, as it was chaired by Lord Donovan), in 1965 (Rose 2001). These objectives can be distinguished as follows: to improve the terms of employment; to improve the physical environment at work; to achieve full employment and national prosperity; to achieve security of employment and income; to improve social security; to achieve fair shares in national income and wealth; to achieve industrial democracy; to achieve a voice in government; to improve public and social services; and to achieve public control and planning of industry (Rose 2001; Hughes & Pollins 1973).

While the overall roles of a trade union may be considered as representing the sectional needs and interests of its membership (Salamon 1992), the major roles of a trade union can be classified into four main areas of economic, social, political and international relations. The economic roles include the activities in the areas of wages and employment (Burkitt & Bowers 1979; Salamon 1992). This role is played mostly through collective bargaining as this is a central function of a trade union (Flanders 1968; Webb & Webb 1902). The social role is related to social change and social order. Trade unions express the social cohesion and aspirations or political ideology of their membership and seek to develop a society which reflects this view (Salamon 1992). They can also play a vital role in maintaining social order through the prevention or settlement of industrial disputes (Moore 1946; Joungtrakul 1986). In addition some trade unions provide financial assistance for sickness, unemployment, retirement and death. Unions can provide strike pay for official strikes but this can be negligible if funds are low. Convalescent and retirement homes may be provided and legal services are available to members (Rose 2001).

The political role is played through several political activities including political lobbying and campaigning (Hughes & Pollins 1973). Traditionally unions have played an important role as political pressure groups in the area of reform through legislation (Rose 2001; Flanders 1968; Pelling 1987). Many unions are still affiliated to the British Labour Party and provide a significant proportion of party funds (Rose 2001). In the case of the British Labour Party, trade unions have been potentially influential within the party in two ways: trade union sponsorship of many Labour Members of Parliament; and based on the number of affiliated members, trade union

leaders control a large number of votes at the British annual Labour Party conference (Rose 2001). The international role is mainly played through the various activities of the ILO.

One important point of trade unionism is that it is democratically governed (Webb & Webb 1902). There are "two main types of democracy, known as direct and representative democracy" (Rose 2001, p.131). Rose (2001) further elaborates that:

> The direct form assumes situations whereby everyone has a direct input into the decision making process – as in the city-states of Ancient Greece in which all citizens participated in taking decisions. The early craft unions developed a form of direct democracy which enabled ordinary members to have access to the unions' meetings and determine decision making. However, in all but the smallest organizations, the direct form of democracy is considered to be unwieldy, impracticable and unworkable, and is irreconcilable with the criteria for administrative efficiency in larger, more complex and bureaucratically structured organizations (Rose 2001, p.131).

Webb & Webb (1902) were the first to "point out this paradox and advocated a more practical system of democracy based upon greater representation of members' interests - hence the term representative democracy" (Rose 2001, p.131).

2.1.2 Management and Employers' Organization

Rose (2001) argues that the terms "management" and "employer" are often wrongly assumed to be synonymous with each other. He further argues that this is perhaps largely because they are generic and therefore overlap and complement each other. The term "employer" usually applies to a small business where the owner of the business is the employer of labour (employees) (Rose 2001). However, in a large company the employer is usually equated with the name of that company and its legally registered status (limited or public company) and large areas of the public sector where the government is either direct employer (as in central government) or indirect employer (as in the National Health Service and education) (Rose 2001).

On the other hand, the term "management" may be applied to both a process and a distinct group of roles within the organization (Salamon 1992). The process of management was described by Fayol around 1916 (in Kreitner 1998). The manager's

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job could be divided into five functions, or areas, of managerial responsibility. These were: planning; organizing; command; coordination; and control (which functions are performed to ensure that organization resources are efficiently used in its operation and to achieve its relevant goals). In larger organizations, professional managers are employed to undertake these functions within their various specializations, for example, in finance, sales, production, marketing, personnel and human resource management (Rose 2001).

It is argued here that no matter whether it is a small or a large business, the organization requires some form of management. In a small business where there is no separation of owner and manager - the owner may perform the necessary management functions by himself. In a large corporation where ownership is separated from management - professional managers are employed to act on behalf of the owner and perform the necessary managerial functions (Moore 1946). Thus in the industrial relations system both owner-managers and professional managers play similar roles. In dealing with a trade union and other parties in the industrial relations system, managers act in the capacity of employers, for example: in collective bargaining and settlement of industrial disputes (Purcell & Sisson 1983). Although the majority of managers in Britain have for many years dealt with trade unions through the agency of employers' organizations (Sisson 1983), they act on behalf of employers. So the review here will concentrate on employer organizations.

2.1.2.1 Employers' Organizations

In general employers' organizations include employers' associations that exist mainly for industrial relations purposes (Rose 2001) and those trade associations where commercial interests were the chief organizational impetus (Windmuller 1984). Some trade associations serve both trade and labour policy objectives (Windmuller 1984). Similar to employees' organizations employers are organized by industries and locality. In addition, employers are also organized at sub-regional, regional and international levels.

An employers' association can be defined as "any organization whose membership is composed of employers and whose purposes include the regulation of relations between employers and their employees or trade unions" (Salamon 1992, p.239). The

legal definition of an employers' association is provided in section 122 of the Trade Union and Labour Relations (Consolidation) Act (1992) as follows:

> employers' associations are organizations which consist wholly or mainly of employers or individual owners of undertakings of one or more descriptions and whose principal purposes include the regulation of relations between employers of that description or those descriptions and workers or trade unions (Rose 2001, p.101).

Based on the legal definition of employers' association, it is important to distinguish employers' associations from purely trade associations which exclude labour affairs and confine themselves to trade matters such as marketing, pricing, technology, and others (Salamon 1992; Rose 2001; Windmuller 1984). In many industries there are two types of employers' associations. One deals with labour matters, and the other deals with technical matters, supplies, and government controls (Clegg 1967). However, the majority of employers' associations "combine employer and trade functions, and therefore are concerned with both production and employment matters" (Salamon 1992, p.239; Windmuller 1984). Of the major employers' associations, only the Engineering Employers Federation "is not also a trade association principally because 'engineering' encompasses a wide range of distinct sub-industries with different trading situations and needs" (Salamon 1992, p.239).

The establishment of any employers' association is to achieve one or more aims in pursuit of their collective interests:

> to regulate matters of trade and competition by mutual agreements; to seek statutory protection in matters of trade, particularly with regard to imported goods; to erect a united front in dealing with trade unions; to provide services in labour relations and personnel administration; and to contest the passage of social and labour legislation (Windmuller 1984, p.1).

Based on the legal definition of employers' association and the practice of the industrial relations functions, the objective of employers' associations is mainly to deal with industrial relations matters, to regulate the relationship between employers and employees or trade unions.

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The development of employers' associations is "closely related to the development of trade unionism and collective bargaining" (Salamon 1992, p.239). They generally owe their establishment to attempts, initiated mostly by employers themselves, and only rarely by outsiders (Windmuller 1984). The establishment of employers' associations was largely as a reaction to the increasing membership and stability of trade unions (Salamon 1992). It was evident that the Liverpool Master Shipwrights recognized their association in 1823, after which it remained in existence (Clegg 1967) and the London Master Builders was formed as early as March, 1834 (Clegg 1967). The Mining Association of Great Britain was formed in 1854 and the North of England Ironmasters in the 1860s (Farnham & Pimlott 1983). However, since their primary objective was to protect managerial prerogatives and resist the development of trade unionism - they, in some cases, provided financial support to members resisting a union claim and faced with either a strike or lockout (Salamon 1992).

Employers' associations are heterogeneous in their structure (Rose 2001; Salamon 1992; Windmuller 1984). Of the most significance are "function, economic activity, territory, ownership, and size" (Windmuller 1984, p.7). Employers' associations in England may be classified into four main structural categories as follows: national federations based on geographic association such as the Engineering Employers' Federation with an indirect membership of some organizations through its seventeen local associations; single national associations covering a whole industry such as the Chemical Industries Association; specialized associations which represent a distinct segment of an industry - such as within the printing industry where there is not only the British Printing Industries Federation (periodicals and general printing) but also the Newspaper Society (provincial newspapers) and the Publishers' Association (book publishing); local associations representing geographically restricted industrial interests such as the West of England Wool Textile employers' association (Salamon 1992).

Employers' associations operate on the principle that "ultimate control over establishing policies, setting priorities, choosing functionaries, determining services, and setting dues resides in the membership, but that actual decision are best made through a system of representative government" (Windmuller 1984, p.14). The governing structure of major employers' associations, including industrial

associations and central federations, tend to be composed of three or four levels: "an assembly, a general council, an executive board, and a presiding officer who usually holds the title of president or chairman" (Windmuller 1984, p.14). In practice, the primary responsibility for policy and decision making rests with a general council or executive committee which was elected by the membership and a number of specialist committees which may include co-opted members with particular expertise or interests to represent (Salamon 1992). The day-to-day work of employers' associations is the responsibility of a paid staff - as a rule referred to collectively as the secretariat and its size depending on the size of the association and the range of services offered (Windmuller 1984).

Compared to trade unions, employers' organizations had less need of full-time officers (Clegg 1967). Only a small proportion of associations have a substantial number of full-time staff and many of the smaller associations are run by firms of accountants or solicitors or member organizations (Salamon 1992). Unlike trade unions employers' associations do not maintain funds to support industrial action or provide friendly society benefits (Salamon 1992). At the same time much of the association's industrial relations resources and expertise lies in the members of its committees and the management of the organizations it represents (Salamon 1992).

The primary functions of an employers' organization, as suggested by the Confederation of British Industries to the Donovan Commission, may be grouped under four main headings: the negotiation of pay and conditions; the operation of disputes procedures; advisory and consultancy services; and representation (Sisson 1983). Employers' organizations perform direct negotiation of collective agreement with trade unions (Salamon 1992; Sisson 1983; Clegg 1967; Gladstone 1984; Rose 2001); Employers' organizations perform the function of the operation of a dispute procedure (Sisson 1983). This function assists its members in the resolution of disputes (Salamon 1992; Sisson 1983; Rose 2001; Armstrong 1984). Advisory and consultancy services are one of the main functions of employers' organizations (Sisson 1983). This provides general help and advice to its members on industrial relations matters (Salamon 1992; Sisson 1983; Gladstone 1984; Rose 2001). Representation is also a main function of employers' organizations (Sisson 1983). It represents its members' views and interests to government and other agencies

(Salamon 1992; Sisson 1983; Gladstone 1984; Rose 2001). In addition to these functions employers' organizations perform the task of the collection of information and data for members concerning industrial relations and non-industrial relations issues (Rose 2001; Gladstone 1984). It also conducts training for managements (Gladstone 1984; Rose 2001).

2.1.2.2 The Confederation of British Industry

The CBI is the employers' equivalent to the TUC (Rose 2001; Armstrong 1984). It was formed by Royal Charter in 1965 as a result of the amalgamation of three existing national bodies which represented employers (Rose 2001; Armstrong 1984; Sisson 1983). The three national bodies were: The Federation of British Industry (FBI) formed in 1916; The National Association of British Manufacturers; and The British Employers' Confederation (Sisson 1983; Rose 2001; Armstrong 1984). The objectives of the CBI are set out in its Royal Charter and include the following: to provide for British industry the means for formulating, making known and influencing general policy in regard to industrial, economic, fiscal, commercial, labour, social, legal and technical questions, and to act as a national point of reference to those seeking industry's views; to develop the contribution of British industry to the national economy; and to encourage the efficiency and competitive power of British industry to the national economy, and to provide advice, information and services to British industry to that end (Rose 2001).

The CBI has, since 1977, had an "annual conference which provides a wider forum for its members to discuss policy issues and for it to publicize" (Rose 2001, p.11). It does not "directly negotiate as a body with trade unions and does not involve itself in disputes" (Rose 2001, p.11). The CBI is run by a "council comprising 400 members from the constituent organizations" (Rose 2001, p.11; Armstrong 1984; Salamon 1992). Detailed policy formulation is "undertaken by twenty-six Standing Committees which cover areas such as employment policy, industrial relations and manpower, health and safety and economic policy" (Rose 2001, p.11). There is a permanent staff headed by a "Director General, and the organization is split into Directorates covering economics, education, social affairs, administration, information, company affairs, regional and small firms" (Rose 2001, p.11; Armstrong 1984; Salamon 1992). There is a "regional structure involving twelve

regions, each of which has its own Council" (Rose 2001, p.11; Armstrong 1984; Salamon 1992). The CBI also acts as a "source of nominees for various tripartite bodies such as the (now defunct) National Economic Development Council and other bodies like the Health and Safety Commission, and it provides a panel of employer representatives for industrial tribunals" (Rose 2001, p.11).

2.1.2.3 The Union of Industrial and Employers' Confederations of Europe

The UNICE was established in 1958 and consists of over thirty central employers' federations (like the CBI) from over twenty European countries (Rose 2001). Its main contacts are with the European Union, the European Parliament, the Council of Ministers and the Economic and Social Committee (Rose 2001). It also works with "other European-level governmental organizations and international non-governmental organizations such as the European Trade Union Confederation (ETUC)" (Rose 2001, p.11; Salamon 1992). Its priorities include: creating a favourable climate for enterprise; promoting European research and development, and technology; strengthening European economic and social cohesion; developing a dialogue between UNICE and ETUC; and liberalizing world trade on the principles of reciprocity and fair competition (Rose 2001).

The purposes and activities of UNICE include: promoting the common professional interests of the firms represented by its members; providing the framework through which member organizations can co-ordinate their European policies; ensuring that European decision makers take UNICE's policies and views into account; maintaining effective contacts with all European institutions; organizing members into working groups and committees to examine European policies and propose legislations; and promoting UNICE's policies and opinions at European Union and national levels (Rose 2001).

2.1.2.4 The International Organization of Employers

The IOE was established in 1920 (IOE undated; IOE 2005). Since its creation, it has been recognized as the only organization at the international level that represents the interests of business in the labour and social policy fields (IOE undated; IOE 2005). At present, it consists of 136 national employer organizations from 132 countries from all over the world (IOE undated; IOE 2005). The mission of the IOE is: to

promote economic, employment and social policy environment necessary to sustain and develop free enterprise and market economy; to provide an international forum to bring together, represent and promote the interests of national employers' organizations and their members throughout the world in all labour and socio-economic policy; to assist, advise, represent and provide relevant services and information to members, to establish and maintain permanent contact among them and to coordinate the interests of employers at international level, particularly within the ILO and other international institutions; to promote and support the advancement and strengthening of independent and autonomous employers' organizations and to enhance their capabilities and services to members; to inform public opinion and promote understanding of employers' point of views; and to facilitate and promote the exchange and transfer of information, experience and good practice amongst members (IOE undated; IOE 2005).

In order to ensure that the voice of business is heard at the international and the national levels, the IOE is actively engaged in the creation and capacity building of representative organizations of employers, particularly in both the developing world and those countries in transition to the market economy (IOE undated; IOE 2005). It is the permanent liaison body for the exchange of information, views and experience among employers throughout the world (IOE undated; IOE 2005).

2.1.3 Government Agencies

Wigham (1969) summarized the role of the State to trade union describing the evolutionary picture of government in industrial relations:

> In the eighteenth century it declared that workers' combinations were illegal because they were usurping the function of the State itself. In the early nineteenth century it declared they were illegal because they were attempting to interfere with natural and beneficial economic laws. From the repeal of the Combination Acts in 1824 onwards the State by slow degrees and with many hesitations accorded to the trade unions legal status and rights. In the present century the State has increasingly brought the trade union into partnership in dealing with economic and industrial problems (Wigham 1969, p.102).

Rose (2001) argues that there is some semantic confusion concerning the terms State and government in the industrial relations literature. He further argues that "the

government is part of the state and acts as its representative" (Rose 2001, p.176). Salamon (1992, p.252) asserts that the State may be defined as "the politically based and controlled institutions of government and regulation within an organized society" and that:

> In Britain this includes the monarchy, Parliament, government, civil service, judiciary, police and armed service. Although it may be argued that Parliament is the ultimate political governing body within a democratic society, it is the elected government of the day which is the most active and important element within the state: it determines the direction, policies and actions of the state machinery" (Salamon 1992, p.252).

Thus, a distinction is made between government and state where government is regarded as "part of a range of state institutions which include the judiciary, the Civil Service, army and police" (Rose 2001, p.176), it is the government that "plays the most important part in influencing economic, political and social processes and institutions, including, of course, industrial relations" (Rose 2001, p.176). In addition, government "enacts legislation, devises and executes economic policy and acts as employer, directly or indirectly within the public sector" (Rose 2001, p.16).

Government plays its roles in industrial relations through various government agencies (Dunlop 1958). In addition to the main labour administration body, the Ministry of Labour, there are several government agencies directly involved in industrial relations systems. A review and discussion of selected government agencies related to industrial relations follows.

2.1.3.1 Employment Tribunals (ETs)

ETs are "independent judicial bodies set up to hear matters of dispute quickly, informally and cheaply" (Rose 2001, p.17). Farnham & Pimlott (1983) assert that it should be more accurately described as 'labour court'. The type of matters they deal with include: claims for unfair dismissal; cases of alleged discrimination on the grounds of race, gender and disability: cases concerning equal pay issues; health and safety issues; and redundancy issues (Rose 2001). ETs have a "legally qualified chairperson and two other members who are chosen from panels appointed by the Secretary of State for Employment after consultation with both employee and

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employer organizations" (Rose 2001, p.17). However, the most obvious shortcomings of the ETs were that there was no court of appeal which could clarify the new labour laws and establish a body of case law (Farnham & Pimlott 1983).

2.1.3.2 Employment Appeal Tribunal (EAT)

To overcome the shortcomings of the ETs, the employment appeal tribunal (EAT) was established under the Employment Protection Act, 1975 (Farnham & Pimlott 1983) and it consists of appointed judges and lay members with specialist knowledge of industrial relations (Rose 2001). The EAT had two main functions (Farnham & Pimlott 1983). Rose (2001) summarizes the functions of the EAT as follows:

> The EAT hears appeals from the decisions of ETs on question of laws only. It is not the function of the EAT to rehear the facts of the case as they were put to the ET, and the EAT cannot interfere with the judgment reached by ET on those facts. Any appeal to the EAT must show that in reaching its decision the ET made an error in its interpretation or application of the law (Rose 2001, p.17).

2.1.3.3 The Advisory and Conciliation and Arbitration Service (ACAS)

The ACAS, which is independent of government, unions and employers, was founded in 1975 by statute (Employment Protection Act, 1975)(Rose 2001; Salamon 1992), and its primary statutory duty is to promote the improvement of industrial relations. Its main activities include: resolving disputes; providing conciliation services for individuals; and giving advice, assistance and information on industrial relations and employment issues (Rose 2001; Farnham & Pimlott 1983).

2.1.3.4 Central Arbitration Committee (CAC)

The CAC was established in 1976, but independent of government (Rose 2001). Its origin was established under the provisions of the Industrial Court Acts 1919 (Salamon 1992; Farnham & Pimlott 1983) and later developed to the CAC. The CAC will "arbitrate directly in an industrial dispute if requested to do so by the parties involved, as well as receiving arbitration requests from ACAS" (Rose 2001, p.18). It also deals with complaints "under the legislation concerning the duty of employers to disclose, and trade unions' rights to, information at all stages of collective bargaining" (Rose 2001, p.18). The CAC is "empowered to make a ruling on all complaints made to it concerning non-disclosure of information" (Rose 2001, p.18).

2.1.3.5 Commissioner for the Rights of Trade Union Members (CROTUM)

The CROTUM was created by the Employment Act, 1998 in order to "enforce the rights of individual trade union members, which include the right of a trade union member to require a ballot before industrial action and the right of a union member to inspect union accounts" (Rose 2001, p.19). If a trade union member alleges that "the union has breached that member's statutory union membership rights then CROTUM will provide assistance to that member. CROTUM will also help an individual member if there is an alleged breach of the rules of a trade union or one of its branches or sections" (Rose 2001, p.19).

2.1.3.6 Certification Officer

The post of certification officer was "established in 1975 and its functions are contained in the Trade Union and Labour Relations (Consolidation) Act, 1992" (Rose 2001, p.19). The officer is "responsible for maintaining a separate list of trade unions and employers' associations" (Rose 2001, p.19), and "if a union is on the list it is entitled to a certificate that it is independent" (Rose 2001, p.19). The requirements for being on the list are that it is "a free from domination or control of an employer or employers' association/organization, and that it should not run the risk of interference as a result of financial or other powers an employer might have" (Rose 2001, p.19).

Certification is important for collective bargaining purposes because it confers significant bargaining rights such as: time off for employees to take part in union activities; information needed by union representatives for collective bargaining purposes; information and consultation when there is a transfer of the employer's business; government financial assistance for holding ballots relating to strike action, elections of representatives and other union purposes; details and supplementary information about pensions; time off for representatives to have industrial relations training; and notification and consultation rights in the event of collective redundancies (Rose 2001).

2.1.3.7 The European Community

Rose (2001, p.239) argues that "there can be no doubt that the influence of the European Union upon member states through its institutions, "social" treaty provisions and directives…". The term "social" being used in treaty and directives to include employment and employment relations matters (Rose 2001). The primary vehicle for achieving its objective in the employment area is the European Social Charter (Salamon 1992). One interesting point related to industrial relations is that the Charter's aims are also to enhance the rights of employees (whether through unions or not) to be involved in organizational decision making (Salamon 1992; Patmore 2002; Frege 2002).

A number of directives by which the Charter is given effect are issued. Some Directives related to industrial relations are: European Works Councils: companies with more than 1000 employees in the participating states and at least 150 workers in each of two or more of these countries must set up a European Works Council or another appropriate procedure to inform and consult employees on key organizational issues; and Directive on the burden of proof in sex discrimination cases: this places a greater onus on the employer to prove that discrimination did not take place in such case (Rose 2001).

2.1.3.8 The International Labour Organization

The ILO is not a government agency but it can influence the government of the member states in the fields of labour and social policy. It is an international tripartite body and its structure is comprised of: representative of government, worker and employer. Its membership comprises countries, territories and areas from all over the world (ILO 2005a; ILO 2005b). It is the UN specialized agency which seeks the promotion of social justice and internationally recognized human and labour rights. It was founded in 1919 (ILO 1979; MOL 2004; ILO 1998), is the only surviving major creation of the Treaty of Versailles which brought the League of Nations into being and it became the first specialized agency of the UN in 1946.

The ILO formulates international labour standards in the form of Conventions and Recommendations setting minimum standards of basic labour rights: freedom of association, the right to organize, collective bargaining, abolition of forced labour,

equally of opportunity and treatment, and other standards regulating conditions across the entire spectrum of work related issues (ILO 1994a; ILO 1998). It provides technical assistance primarily in the fields of: vocational training and vocational rehabilitation; employment policy (ILO 1998; ILO 1994c; Bhundhoombhoad 1984; ILO 1993); labour administration; labour law and industrial relations; working conditions; management development (ILO 1987; ILO undated); cooperatives; social security; and labour statistics (ILO 1994b; Twikoon 1984; ILO 1985b) and occupational safety and health (Joungtrakul 1984b; ILO 1979b; Joungtrakul 1984a).

The ILO promotes the development of independent employers' and workers' organizations and provides training and advisory services to those organizations (ILO 1979b; Joungtrakul 1984a; ILO 1987). Within the UN system, the ILO has a unique tripartite structure with workers and employers participating as equal partners with governments in the work of its governing organs (ILO 1998).

2.2 The Industrial Relations System in Thailand

Further to the introduction of the history of Thai trade unionism in chapter one this section discusses the industrial relations system in Thailand. The industrial relations system in Thailand is prescribed in the Labour Relations Act of B. E. 2518 (1975). The major elements of the industrial relations system prescribed by this Act include: agreement on terms and conditions of employment; labour dispute settlement procedures; lock-out and strike; labour relations committee; employees' committee; employers' association; trade union; employers' federation and labour federation; and unfair labour practices. The Act is supplemented by the Code of Practices for the Promotion of Labour Relations in Thailand of B. E. 2524 (1981) (Suppanakorn 1996). A similar pattern will be used as the review of industrial relations system in general in the last section. Elaboration will be made on employee organization and trade union, employer organization and management, and government agencies involved with industrial relations system.

2.2.1 Employees' Organization and Trade Unions

Further to the introduction of the history of trade unionism in Thailand in chapter one this section will elaborate more on trade union functions and roles played in the Thai industrial relations system. Employees' organizations in the Thai industrial relations

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system to be discussed in this section include trade union, labour federation and council of employees' organization.

2.2.1.1 Trade Union

The right to combine a trade union is recognized under Article 45 of the Constitution of the Kingdom of Thailand of B.E. 2540 (1997). It is mandatory by the Labour Relations Act of B.E. 2518 (1975) that trade union can be established only by the registration with the registrar office of the Ministry of Labour. This Act prescribes the process of the registration and control of trade union (Joungtrakul 1986; Joungtrakul 1987). As noted in chapter one the terms 'labour union' is used in the law instead of trade union. According to Article 86 of this Act, trade unions must have the objective of acquiring and protecting the interests in regard to the terms and conditions of employment and promoting good relations between the employers and the employees and between the employees themselves (Chandravithun & Vause 1994; Joungtrakul 1986). The Act provide only two types of trade union; a 'house union' where any group of employees of not less than ten may form a trade union in the undertaking of the same employer and an 'industry union' where employees can form a trade union with the same conditions in the same type of industry with different employers (Suppanakorn 1996; Joungtrakul 1986).

The duties and responsibilities of trade union are prescribed in Article 98 as follows: to tender demands, to negotiate for an agreement and to acknowledge arbitrative decisions, or to conclude agreements with the employers or employers' association engaging in the business in which members work; to manage and conduct activities for the benefits of its members, provided that such shall be subject to the objectives of the trade union; to provide information service for its members in regard to employment opportunity; to provide advisory service in solving problems or eliminating conflicts in management and performance of work; to provide the service of allocating funds or property for the welfare of members or for public benefit, provided that such shall receive the approval of the general meeting; to collect membership fees and dues at the rate prescribed in the Article of Association of the trade union (Chandravithun & Vause 1994).

Article 99 of this Act provides protection to trade union such that, in the interest of its members and provided that such does not involve politics, the employees, the trade union, committee members, sub-committee members and officials of the trade union shall be exempted from charges or litigation, criminal or civil, when the trade union carries out the following activities (Chandravithun & Vause 1994): participating in negotiations for an agreement with the employers, employers' association, employees and other trade unions, employers' federation or other labour federation to demand due rights and benefits for its members; calling a strike or assisting, persuading or encouraging its members to call a strike; explaining or advertising the fact concerning labour disputes; arranging for a rally or peacefully participating in a strike, except when such activities constitute a criminal offence in the nature of causing a threat to public safety, a threat to life or body, a threat to freedom and good name, a threat to property; and a civil offence which entailed the perpetration of the criminal offence of such nature (Chandravithun & Vause 1994).

It can be noted that a trade union in Thailand performs similar functions to a trade union in England. The major differences are that trade union in Thailand is controlled by government through the labour relations law in terms of objectives and the involvement in politics. The structure is also different, as the law prescribed only two types of trade union in Thailand.

2.2.1.2 Labour Federation

Article 113 of the Labour Relations Act of B.E. 2518 (1975) prescribes the procedures required for registering the labour federation. Two or more trade unions and each trade union whose members are employees working for the same employer, whether or not they are employees in the same description of work; or whose members are employees in the same description of work, whether or not they are employees working for the same employer may, by registration jointly establish a labour federation (Joungtrakul 1986; Suppanakorn 1996). The objectives of labour federation are mandatory by the Act that the federation must have the objectives of promoting good relations between the trade unions and protecting the interests of the employees and the trade unions (Joungtrakul 1986; Chandravithun & Vause 1994; Suppanakorn 1996).

The labour federation in Thailand is quite different from the federation of trade union in England, as in Thailand the labour federation performs limited functions as prescribed by law. According to the law the federation is designed to be the next higher level of trade union in the specific industry or a specific employer.

2.2.1.3 Council of Employees' Organization

The council of employees' organization is the highest level of employee organization in Thailand. Article 120 of the Labour Relations Act of B.E. 2518 (1975) prescribes the requirements for registration of the council of employee's organization. No less than fifteen trade unions or labour federations may form a council of employees' organization to promote education and labour relations (Chandravithun & Vause 1994; Joungtrakul 1986; Suppanakorn 1996).

In general the council of employees' organization in Thailand should have the same status and functions as the TUC in England but it is not so in reality. There are nine council of employees' organization in Thailand (DOLPW 2003) causing disunity among trade unions and their memberships. Despite the very limited role and functions prescribed by law there are fierce rivalries amongst themselves to be recognized as the majority representative in the country.

There are staff associations and professional associations similar to England, for example: the Personnel Management Association of Thailand (PMAT) and the Law Society of Thailand. However, these associations are not allowed by law to perform trade union functions. The registrations of these associations are made under different laws. The Personnel Management Association of Thailand performs a controversial role in industrial relations system in Thailand. While in one capacity the PMAT acts as a professional management association, some of its members and the PMAT itself are affiliated with employers' organizations. They were thought of as representative of employers and they act on behalf of employers in dealing with trade unions and government agencies. Its members negotiate with trade union and employees representatives in collective bargaining. They were elected as employer representative in tripartite bodies including the National Advisory Council for Labour Development and the Labour Court. They joined the Thai delegation as employer representative to the annual international labour conference in Geneva for example in the 70th Session of the International Labour Conference (Twikoon,

Bhundhoombhoad & Joungtrakul 1984). Thus the PMAT should be classified as an employer representative organization rather than an employee organization.

Employees' organizations in Thailand, especially at the council of employees' organization level, affiliated with the international level of employees' organizations. The three major councils of employees' organizations joined the international level of employees' organization. The Thai Trade Union Congress (TTUC) and the Labour Congress of Thailand (LCT) being members of the ICFTU, and the National Congress of Thai Labour (NCTL) belonging to the WCL.

2.2.2 Management and Employers' Organization

In the Thai industrial relations system it was prescribed clearly in Article 5 of the Labour Relations Act of B.E. 2518 (1975) that "employer" refers to:

> A person who agrees to engage an employee to work for which wages are paid, including a person who is authorized to work for the employer. Where the employer is a juristic person, it refers to a person with authority to act on behalf of such juristic person, including a person with the authority to for the person with the authority to act on behalf of the juristic person (Chandravithun & Vause 1994, p.127).

At the same time Article 5 of the Labour Protection Act of B.E. 2541 (1998) prescribed that "employer" include a person designated by an employer to act on his behalf; and that where the employer is a juristic entity, the term also includes a person authorized to act on behalf of that juristic entity, and a person designated to act on behalf of that juristic entity (Thongdee 2004).

Based on the provisions of the law mentioned above and the principles of management staff, including human resource of personnel staff, are usually counted as employer as their duties and responsibilities require them to act on behalf of the employer both in terms of managing the total organization or part of the organization i.e. production , finance, or human resource. In day to day practice human resource staff performs various functions in the industrial relations system. So, although management staff in various fields formed their own management associations such as marketing, finance and human resource or personnel management, staff cannot be clearly separated from employer in reality.

There are two major management associations in Thailand where, in practice, their members act on behalf of employer. The Thailand management Association (TMA) comprises management staff in all functions, mostly ranging from the middle to the top management i.e. managing director, president or chairman of the company (TMA 2005a; TMA 2005b). The Personnel Management Association of Thailand (PMAT) comprises human resource or personnel staff of all levels up to the director or chief human resource officer of a company (PMAT 2004). Some top management i.e. managing director or president, are also members of the PMAT (PMAT 2004). These people play an active role in employers' organizations and the Thai industrial relations system as discussed earlier. So a separate discussion of management from employer or employers' organizations in the Thai industrial relations system is not justified.

Employers' organizations in Thailand are established and operated under the Labour Relations Act of B.E. 2518 (1975) in the same way as employees' organizations. The Act prescribes three levels of employers' organizations: employers' association, employer federation, and council of employers' organization.

2.2.2.1 Employers' Association

Similar to a trade union, the employers' association can be established by virtue of the provisions under the Labour Relation Act of B.E. 2518 (1975). Article 54 of the Act prescribes that employers' association must have the objectives of acquiring and protecting the interests in regard to the terms and conditions of employment and promote good relations between the employers and the employees and between employers themselves (Joungtrakul 1986; Chandravithun & Vause 1994; Suppanakorn 1996). In establishing an employers' association, there must be at least three employers, in the same description of undertaking, to act as promoter who must have Thai nationality (Joungtrakul 1986; Joungtrakul 1996; Chandravithun & Vause 1994). Article 63 of the Act stipulates that persons who may become members of the employers' association must be employers engaging in the same category of business activity. In a case where the employer is a juristic person, it shall be held that such juristic person is a member of the employers' association (Chandravithun & Vause 1994).

The functions of the employers' association are prescribed in Article 66 of the Act which is basically the same as for the functions of trade union. The same protections provided to trade union are also provided to employers' association as prescribed in Article 67 of the Act.

Employers' association in Thailand basically performs similar functions to employers' association in England. The differences may be that in Thailand the establishment and operations of employers' association are controlled by government under the same legislation and conditions.

2.2.2.2 Employers' Federation

Employers' federation is established and operated under the provisions of the Labour Relations Act of B.E. 2518 (1975). Article 112 of the Act prescribes that two or more employers' associations with members engaging in the same category of business activity may join together to register the formation of a federation of employers to promote good relations between the employers' associations and protect the interests of the employers and the employers' association (Chandravithun & Vause 1994; Joungtrakul 1996; Suppanakorn 1996).

Employers' federation in Thailand has quite limited roles to play in the Thai industrial relations system. It was designed by the law to be the second highest level of employers' organization as a counterpart of the labour federation.

2.2.2.3 Council of Employers' Organization

Similar to the council of employees' organization, the council of employers' organization is established under the provisions of the Labour Relations Act of B.E. 2518 (1975). Article 119 of the Act prescribes that no less than five employers' associations or employers' federations may form a council of employers' organization with the objectives of promoting education and labour relations (Chandravithun & Vause 1994; Joungtrakul 1996; Suppanakorn 1996).

The council of employers' organization was designed to be the highest level of employers' organizations and to be a counterpart of the council of employees' organization. It should have the same status as the CBI in England but the

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performance and recognition is not up to the CBI level. There are eleven council of employers' organization in Thailand (DOLPW 2003). They are faced with problems similar to those that occur in the case of council of employees' organizations. There are also fierce rivalries among themselves to gain recognition and acceptance as the most representative organization.

There are two major employers' organizations: the Thai Chamber of Commerce (TTC) and the Federation of Thai Industries (FTI), where they are registered under separated legislations. Although they are powerful organizations in terms of economics, they do not and are not allowed to perform activities related to industrial relations.

Similarly to the employees' organization, the employers' organization in Thailand also affiliated with the international level of employers' organization. One of the two councils of employers' organizations, the Employers' Confederation of Thailand (ECOT), is a member of the International Organization of Employers (IOE).

2.2.3 Government Agencies

Labour administration organization has both line and staff functions (Husband 1980). General staff functions include: planning and evaluation; review of organization and method; personnel management; finance and accounts; legal affairs; international labour affairs and public information (Husband 1980). Substantive programme units or line functions include: labour protection; labour inspection; labour relations; employment or manpower; and social security (Husband 1980; Joungtrakul 1988). Employers and employees can participate in the functions of labour administration through their organization (Joungtrakul 1988; Husband 1980). Government plays a dominant role in industrial relations in Thailand. The main government agency responsible for the industrial relations system in Thailand is the Ministry of Labour. The next section reviews the operation of government agencies involved in industrial relations in Thailand.

2.2.3.1 Ministry of Labour

The Ministry was originally funded as the Ministry of Social Welfare in 1993 (Piriyarangsan & Piriyarangsan 1996) and later changed to the Ministry of Labour in

2002 (OSC 2005c). At present there are four major departments under the ministry responsible for each different major labour administration of the country. The Department of Employment responsible for employment; the Department of Skills Development responsible for skills development and training; the Social Security Office responsible for social security and workmen compensation; and the Department of Labour Protection and Welfare responsible for industrial relations, safety, wages and labour inspections. In addition to these organizations there are several tripartite bodies in the labour fields attached to the ministry, for example the National Advisory Council for Labour Development, the Wage Committee and etc.

2.2.3.2 The Department of Labour Protection and Welfare (DOLPW)

The DOLPW under the Ministry of Labour is directly responsible for the country's industrial relations (Suppanakorn 1996). There are Area Labour Protection and Welfare offices located in each district in Bangkok and there is a Provincial Labour Protection and Welfare Office located in each province all over the country. The Labour Protection and Welfare Offices provide services in industrial relations such as conciliation and mediation, to trade unions and employers in each area (Suppanakorn 1996; Joungtrakul 1986). The office also acts as the registrar office for trade unions and employers' organizations in its area.

2.2.3.3 Labour Relations Committee

The establishment and operations of the Labour Relations Committee is prescribed by the Labour Relations Act of B.E. 2517 (1975). Article 37 of the Act prescribes that the Labour Relations Committee shall consist of a chairman and not less than eight, but not more than fourteen, other members of which at least three must be from the employer' party and three from the employee's party (Phipatanakul 1992; Chandravithun & Vause 1994; Joungtrakul 1987; Suppanakorn 1996; Piriyarangsan & Piriyarangsan 1996; Joungtrakul 1986).

The committee functions as prescribed by Article 41 of the Act are: to consider labour disputes in the essential services as prescribed in the Ministerial Regulations; to arbitrate labour disputes which may adversely affect the economy or the security of the country or cause hardship to the public as considered by the Minister; to arbitrate labour disputes as entrusted by the Minister; to consider and decide on

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complaints of unfair labour practices; to submit opinion concerning the demand, negotiation, settlement of labour disputes, strike and lock-out as entrusted by the Minister; and to prescribe rules and regulations of its operation (Suppanakorn 1996; Phipatanakul 1992; Chandravithun & Vause 1994). In discharging its duties and responsibilities in the unfair labour practices, the committee has the power to order the employer to reinstate the employee or pay indemnity to the employee or to compel the violator to carry out or refrain from carrying out any act as deemed appropriate (Phipatanakul 1992; Suppanakorn 1996).

From the past record, the committee could settle most of the complaints of unfair labour practice within the time limited prescribed by the Act (Suppanakorn 1996). Most of the settlements were reached by a compromise between the disputing parties (Suppanakorn 1996).

2.2.3.4 Office of the Arbitrators

The office of the arbitrators is established and operated under the provisions of Article 9 of the Labour Relations Act of B.E. 2518 (1975) and it is an organization attached to the Ministry of Labour (Suppanakorn 1996; Joungtrakul 1986). Based on Articles 22 and 26 of the Act, voluntary arbitration may be used by the agreement of employer and employees or trade union involved (Chandravithun & Vause 1994; Suppanakorn 1996; Joungtrakul 1986). They may agree to appoint an arbitrator or a panel of arbitrators to decide on the dispute (Suppanakorn 1996; Chandravithun & Vause 1994; Joungtrakul 1986). The office recruits and maintains an updated list of qualified arbitrators and performs the secretarial functions for the arbitrators. In practice the voluntary arbitration is rarely used in Thailand (Suppanakorn 1996).

2.2.3.5 Labour Court

Labour Court is the major judicial adjudication organization in labour cases in Thailand. The Central Labour Court was established under the Ministry of Justice on 23 April 1980 according to the provisions of the Labour Court Establishment and Labour Case Procedure Act of B.E. 2522 (1979) (Joungtrakul 1986; Suppanakorn 1996). The judicial persons in the labour court consists of judges appointed from judicial officials under the law on Judicial Service and equal numbers of associate judges from employer and employee sides (Joungtrakul 1986; Suppanakorn 1996).

The labour court has authority to consider, decide or issue order on the following matters: disputes over rights and obligations under a contract of employment or agreement relating to terms of employment; disputes over rights and obligations under the labour protection laws or the labour relations laws; cases in which rights of a party can only be executed through the court according to the labour protection laws or the labour relations laws; cases of appeal against ruling by competent officials who enforce the labour protection laws or against awards made by the Labour Relations Committee or the Minister concerned under the labour relations law; cases arising from commission of tort among employers and employees which derives from a labour dispute or in connection with work performance under an employment contract; and labour disputes referred to the court by the Minister to make a ruling according to the labour relations law (Joungtrakul 1986; Suppanakorn 1996).

From past experience and records the labour court performance is quite effective (Suppanakorn 1996). On the average, each case can be cleared within 20 days (Suppanakorn 1996).

2.3 Theoretical Framework

Further to theoretical perspectives introduced in chapter one, this section elaborates more on the theoretical framework considered to be the foundation of industrial democracy. Focus will be made on the following theories: theories of industrial relations; Buddhist principles of industrial relations; human resource management; empowerment theory; and stakeholder theory.

2.3.1 Theories of Industrial Relations

Selected theories of industrial relations will be elaborated in this part. The discussion will focus on: the unitary perspective, the industrial conflict perspective, the pluralist perspective, the Marxist perspective, and the systems model.

2.3.1.1 The Unitary Perspective

As summarized by Farnham and Pimlott (1983), the essence of the unitary perspective of industrial relations derives from the perception that:

> Every work organization is an integrated and harmonious whole which exists for a common purpose. It is assumed, for example, that each employee identifies with the aims of the enterprise and with its methods of operation. By this view, there can be no conflict between the interests of those supplying capital to the enterprise and their managerial representatives, and those contributing their labour (Farnham & Pimlott 1983, p.52).

In this perspective, organizations are viewed as unitary in their structure (Fox 1974; Farnham & Pimlott 1983); unitary in their purpose; as having a single source of authority; and a set of participants who are motivated by common goals (Farnham & Pimlott 1983). This is based on the assumption that the organization is, or should have: an integrated group of people; a simple authority or loyalty structure; a set of common values, interests and objectives (Rose 2001) and that conflict is unnecessary and exceptional (Salamon 1992).

There are two important implications stemming from this (Rose 2001; Salamon 1992). The first is that conflict as the expression of employee dissatisfaction and differences with management are perceived as an irrational activity (Rose 2001; Salamon 1992). Conflict is bad for an organization and should be suppressed by coercive measures. The second is that trade unions are regarded as an intrusion into the organization from outside, competing with management for the loyalty of employees (Salamon 1992; Rose 2001). Under this perspective management tend to have an attitude of resistance to trade unions (Fox 1974). Under no circumstances, according to this perspective, should trade unions have a part to play in the exercise of authority and decision making within the organization as this would represent a violation of managerial prerogative (Rose 2001).

2.3.1.2 The Industrial Conflict Perspective

The industrial conflict perspective is based on the assumptions that political and industrial conflicts have become institutionally separated within the post-capitalist society. Additionally, industrial conflict has become less violent because its existence has been accepted and its manifestations have been socially regulated (Farnham & Pimlott 1983). The other assumption argued by Farnham and Pimlott (1983) is that industrial and work organizations are microcosms of society and that:

Since society itself comprises a variety of individuals and of social groups, each having their own values and each pursuing their own interests and objective, then industrial enterprises similarly have to accommodate to the differing values and frequently competing interests within them. It is only by doing this that they can function effectively (Farnham & Pimlott 1983, p.55).

It is viewed that industrial relations between employers and trade unions and between managers and trade unions is seen as one expression of the conflict and of the power relations existing between organized groups in society at large. The industrial conflict between managers and their subordinates has to be recognized as an endemic feature of work relations and regulated accordingly (Farnham & Pimlott 1983).

2.3.1.3 The Pluralist Perspective

The principal assumption of the pluralist perspective is that the organization comprises groups of individuals and that these groups have their own aim, interests and leadership (Rose 2001; Salamon 1992; Fox 1974). These aims and interests often conflict and compete with those of other groups and give rise to tensions which have to be managed (Rose 2001; Salamon 1992; Fox 1974).

According to this perspective, conflict is both rational and inevitable and stems from the different roles of managerial and employee groups (Rose 2001). Rose (2001) argues that:

Pluralist managers recognise that these conflicts exist and that they can only be resolved by the establishment and use of appropriate procedures. This involves collective negotiation and bargaining and shared decision making which lead to compromise. Management's role is therefore a 'balancing act' which recognizes the legitimacy of the organization's conflicting interests and requires the consent of the parties, groups or section involved in the resolution of conflicts. The only legitimate basis for managing industrial relations is, therefore, through consent and not (as with the unitarist perspective) through the exercise of prerogative (Rose 2001, p.30).

The pluralist perspective accepts that trade unions are legitimate representative organizations which enable groups of employees to influence management decisions (Rose 2001; Salamon 1992). This perspective recognizes a positive role for trade unions (Salamon 1992) and that "employees have loyalties to organizations other

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than their own management and that trade unions are a legitimate source of these loyalties" (Rose 2001, p.30). Farnham and Pimlott (1983) argue that pluralism is very closely related to that of post-capitalism, and is of central importance in the industrial conflict perspective of industrial relations.

2.3.1.4 The Marxist Perspective

The Marxist perspective is discussed in detail in Hyman (1978). Other terms are also used, such as "the class conflict analysis" (Farnham & Pimlott 1983) and "radical perspective" (Fox 1974), which incorporate the Marxist analysis of employment (Rose 2001). The Marxist perspective concentrates on the nature of the society surrounding the organization (Salamon 1992). Rose (2001) summarized the essential assumptions into five headings. First, change in society is the result of class conflict and without this conflict, society would stagnate. Second, class conflict arises from the inequalities in the distribution of economic power in society. Third, the basic economic inequality is between those who own capital (entrepreneurs, big business, etc) and those who supply and sell their labour (employees). Fourth, the nature of society's social and political institutions is derived from this basic economic inequality. Inequality is maintained and reinforced by selective recruitment and differential access to education, government employment, legal professions, the media and others establishment institutions. Finally, social and political conflict in its many manifestations is merely an expression of the underlying economic conflict (based on inequality) within society.

2.3.1.5 The Systems Model

The application of the systems concept to industrial relations was originated by (Dunlop 1958). It is a general theory of industrial relations (Salamon 1992). Dunlop (1958) elaborates that:

> An industrial relations system at any one time in its development is regarded as comprised of certain actors, certain contexts, an ideology which binds the industrial relations system together, and a body of rules created to govern the actors at the work place and work community (Dunlop 1958, p.7).

Based on Dunlop (1958) there are three sets of variables factors: the actor, the context, and the ideology of the system (Farnham & Pimlott 1983). Rose (2001)

elaborates that the actor or active participants consist of: managers and their representatives; non-managerial employees and their representatives and specialized third-party agencies, governmental or private. Environmental contexts play an important part in shaping the rules of an industrial relations system (Rose 2001). Dunlop (1958) identifies three environmental contexts: the technological characteristics of the workplace and the work community; the market or budgetary constraints which affect the actors; and the locus and distribution of power in the larger society. He further explains the ideology of an industrial relations system by stating that it "is a body of common ideas that defines the role and place of each actor and that defines the ideas which each actor holds towards the place and function of the others in the system" (Dunlop 1958, p.16).

2.3.1.6 Buddhist Principles of Industrial Relations

Further to the introduction of Buddhist principles in chapter one, this section elaborates more on the Buddhist principles as they relate directly to industrial relations. The Buddhist principles related directly to industrial relations are the principles of the worker and the boss (employee and employer) (Payutto 1999). It is one of the six directions preached by the Buddha. The Buddha compared the people in the society surrounding us, to whom we must relate properly in various ways according to their status of relationship with us, to six directions in the sense that they are similar to different directions (Payutto 1999). These directions are: the forward direction is compared to those who come before, i.e. parents; the right direction is compared to those worthy of respect, i.e. teachers; the rearward direction is compared to those who come after, i.e. spouse and children; the left direction is compared to those who are alongside, i.e. friends and associates; the lower direction is compared to those who support, i.e. employees and workers; and the upper direction is compared to those who are high in virtue i.e. monks (Payutto 1999).

The Buddha has laid down the principles for employer and employee to treat and relate to each other in accordance with their duties and responsibilities. This is to create good relationships so that work can proceed smoothly. According to the lower direction, an employer should support his servants and employees by: assisting them to work in accordance with their strength, sex, age and abilities; paying them wages commensurate with their work and adequate for their livelihood; granting them

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fringe benefits by, for example, providing medical care in times of sickness; sharing with them a portion of any special profits that may accrue; and giving them appropriate holidays and time to rest (Payutto 1999; Srichairomrat & Srivichitvorakul 2002).

At the same time an employee helps his employer by: starting work before him; stopping work after him; taking only what is given by the employer; doing his job well and seeking ways to improve on it; and spreading a good reputation about his employer and his business (Payutto 1999).

In addition to the principles of industrial relations there are several principles supporting sound industrial relations such as the Divine Abiding which is the four mental attributes of a being who is sublime or grand-minded like a god. The other set of principles supporting industrial relations is the four principles for helpful integration, or qualities that bind people in unity known as sangaha-vatthu. These sets of principles were introduced in chapter one.

The Buddhist principles are more than 2500 years old. Although there may be one or two teachings which need to be translated into a more modern context, they are still useful and practicable now, especially in those Buddhist countries including Thailand (Evans 1999). Buddhist principles are pragmatic (Payutto 2003) as we can see from one of the teachings about the pairs that "Though little he recites the Sacred Texts, but put the precepts into practice, forsaking lust, hatred and delusion, with right knowledge, with mind well freed, cling to nothing here or hereafter, he has a share in religious life" (Wannapok 1988). Buddhism is "an organized practical system designed to reveal to us the 'what is what.' Once we have seen things as they really are, we no longer need anyone to teach or guide us. We can carry on practising by ourselves…" (Buddhadasa 2001, orig. 1956, p.39).

2.3.1.7 Human Resource Management (HRM)

Further to the primary introduction of management theories in chapter one, this section concentrates more on human resource management in relation to industrial relations. The root of human resource management (HRM) can be traced back to the late 1980s (Werther & Davis 1993). At that time, a few employers responded to the

human problems caused by industrialization by creating the post of welfare secretary (sometime called social secretary) (Werther & Davis 1993). The position was created to meet worker needs and to prevent workers from forming trade unions (Werther & Davis 1993). The term personnel began in 1909 in the United States (Cascio 1995). Between 1900 and 1920 a number of personnel specialists emerged in companies such as B. F. Goodrich, NCR and standard Oil of California (Cascio 1995). During the 1950/60's human relations concepts and approaches of motivation theorists and the movement of organizational development emerged (Salamon 1992). Many such motivation theories were developed, for example: the hierarchy of needs theory (Maslow 1954); the two-factor theory (Herzberg 1974; Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman 1959); and expectancy theory (Vroom 1964). The effects of managerial assumptions and style were also studied, for example, theory X and theory Y (McGregor 1960). The organizational development began in late 1940 and early 1950 (French & Bell 2000; Swanson & Holton III 2001; Cummings & Worley 2001; Joungtrakul 2005). The pioneers include Lewin (2000 orig. 1951) and Argyris (2000 orig. 1970; 1971).

The term HRM has evolved for nearly 40 years (Storey 1993). It was argued that the term HRM has been applied to a diverse range of management practices and strategies and that the term is often used by managements as a more acceptable substitute for personnel or industrial relations management (Rose 2001; Salamon 1992). So, a question was asked whether human resource management (HRM) is an old wine in new bottles (Rose 2001). In a similar way to other functions, like staffing, industrial relations is treated as part of the total human resource management (Heneman III, Heneman & Judge 1997). According to (Mabey & Salaman 1995):

> The central contradiction concerns the very essence of the nature of HRM and IR. IR has been traditionally concerned with collective representation of employees. This means that through the process of collective bargaining, employee representatives (usually shop stewards/convenors and/or full time union officials) negotiate with employer representatives over a range of substantive issues (such as pay, working conditions, and working arrangements) and procedural arrangements (such as disciplinary, dispute and redundancy procedures). Trade unions by their very nature are concerned with protecting the interests of the seller of labour (the employees), and with securing the highest price for that

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labour. Employers (the buyers of labour), on the other hand, wish to buy labour at the lowest cost to themselves. There is, therefore, a conflict of interests between employees and their representatives, and employers and their representatives. The conflict is ever present and needs to be continually regulated through the process of collective bargaining (Mabey & Salaman 1995, p.227).

On the other hand HRM emphasizes, "…the commitment of the individual employee to the employer's organization. The main contradiction referred to above is between the individualism of the HRM approach to the employment relationship and the collectivism of the IR approach to that relationship" (Mabey & Salaman 1995, p.227). Salamon argues that an essential part of HRM approach is that "negotiations with trade unions, as the representative of employees, and other such industrial relations activities are to be avoided, removed or, at least, minimised" (Salamon 1992, p.53).

2.3.1.8 Empowerment Theory

Empowerment theory was primarily introduced in chapter one. This section elaborates more on empowerment theory in relation to industrial democracy. As presented in chapter one, power usually leads to conflict while empowerment leads to cooperation (Whetten & Cameron 1998). Empowerment involves "both the objective facts of what a person is empowered to do and the subjective feelings that the individual experiences as a result" (Lashley 2001, p.28). At the same time, Whetten and Cameron (1998) assert that every person can be empowered without affecting any other person's position or structure. It merely leads to each of us being enabled to accomplish what we choose (Whetten & Cameron 1998). Thus empowerment means: to help people to develop a sense of self-confidence; to help people overcome feelings of powerlessness or helplessness; to energize people to take action; to mobilize intrinsic motivation to accomplish a task (Whetten & Cameron 1998). Kouzes and Posner (1999) argue that it involves helping people feel strong, making them feel that they can make a difference and that they want to be responsible. It involves building skills, providing information, developing relationships, sharing decision making, and giving credit. The ways to achieve this include giving people important work, autonomy, recognition, and connection with significant others (Kouzes & Posner 1999). The success or failure of employee empowerment also depends on the ability of the organization to reconcile the

potential loss of control inherent in empowerment practices with the fundamental organizational need for goal congruence (Mills & Ungson 2003).

Empowerment can take several forms such as through participation, involvement, commitment and delaying (Lashley 2001). To be empowered people must have a feeling of: self-efficacy, which is a sense of personal competence; self-determination, which is a sense of personal choice; personal consequence, which is a sense of having impact; meaningfulness, which is a sense of value in activity; and trust, which is a sense of security (Whetten & Cameron 1998). Gordon (2002) argues that:

> The empowering of the workforce and the increasing use of self-managing teams in the workplace have blurred the distinctions between managers and their employees. Today workers often assume responsibilities typically entrusted solely to managers, such as planning, staffing, and rewarding employees. Managers have become more adept at using technology, often performing word processing, analysis, and communication roles formerly delegated to staff employees. Managers also have moved into a more coaching and counselling role. They create teams of workers, who often differ from the manager in gender, race, culture, language, values, and lifestyle. Managers must then manage this diverse workforce in an uncertain and changing environment (Gordon 2002, p.13).

Empowerment involves decentralization of decision making. However, to be able to design effective decentralized systems and to know how to manage the continually shifting balance between empowerment and control will be essential in the years to come (Malone 1997). One important point in empowerment is that there is a need for empowerment evaluation which is attentive to the empowering process and outcomes (Fetterman 1996). The important relationship between empowerment theory and industrial democracy is that in order to practice industrial democracy employees must be able to participate and make decisions on their own. In other words, they must be empowered as asserted by (Cole 1972 orig.1917) that "democracy rests essentially on a trust in human nature. It asserts, if it asserts anything, that man is fit to govern himself" (Cole 1972 orig. 1917, p.160).

2.3.1.9 Stakeholder Theory

Chapter one introduced stakeholder theory and this section elaborates more on its relationship to industrial democracy. Stakeholder activism has become a common occurrence in corporate life and a genuine management issue, as environmentalists, employees, community groups, human rights organizations, and charitable organizations increasingly use a variety of strategies to influence the actions of the firms (Rowley & Moldoveanu 2003). Stakeholder approach "provides a framework that enables users to map and ideally, to manage the corporation's relationship (present and potential) with groups to reach "win-win" collaborative outcomes" (Weiss 2003, p.33). In addition to the classification of stakeholders specified by (Freeman 1984), Carroll (1993) classified them into primary and secondary stakeholders. The primary stakeholders are those that have a formal, official, or contractual relationship with the firm and all others are classified as secondary stakeholders (Carroll 1993). According to Jawahar & Mclaughlin (2001) one of the problems is that organizations are unlikely to fulfil all the responsibilities they have towards each primary stakeholder group. The objective of stakeholder management is to understand or to conceptually map our stakeholders, the process for dealing with these stakeholders, and the transaction which we use to carry out the achievement of our organization purpose with stakeholder (Freeman 1984).

Stakeholder mapping helps us to understand our stakeholder expectations and power and also helps us in understanding political priority (Johnson & Scholes 2002). Some questions to be asked in stakeholder reviews include: Who are our stakeholders currently? Who are our potential stakeholders? How does each stakeholder affect us? How do we affect each stakeholder? For each division and business, who are the stakeholders, etc? What assumptions does our current strategy make about each important stakeholder (at each level)? What are the current "environmental variables" that affect us and our stakeholders [viz. inflation, GNP, prime rate, "confidence in business (from polls), corporate identity, media image," etc.]? How do we measure each of these variables and their impact on us and our stakeholders? and How do we keep score with our stakeholders? (Freeman 1984). Savage (et al. 1991) provides useful guidelines for diagnosing and managing stakeholders. As shown in Figure 2.1 we can handle each group of stakeholders appropriately according to its potential for threat to organization.

Figure 2.1: Diagnostic Typology of Organizational Stakeholders

Stakeholder's Potential for
Threat to Organization

	High	Low
High	Type 4 **MIXED BLESSING** Strategy: **COLLABORATE**	Type 1 **SUPPORTIVE** Strategy: **INVOLVE**
Low	Type 3 **NON-SUPPORTIVE** Strategy: **DEFEND**	Type 2 **MARGINAL** Strategy: **MONITOR**

(Left axis: Stakeholder's Potential for Cooperation with Organization)
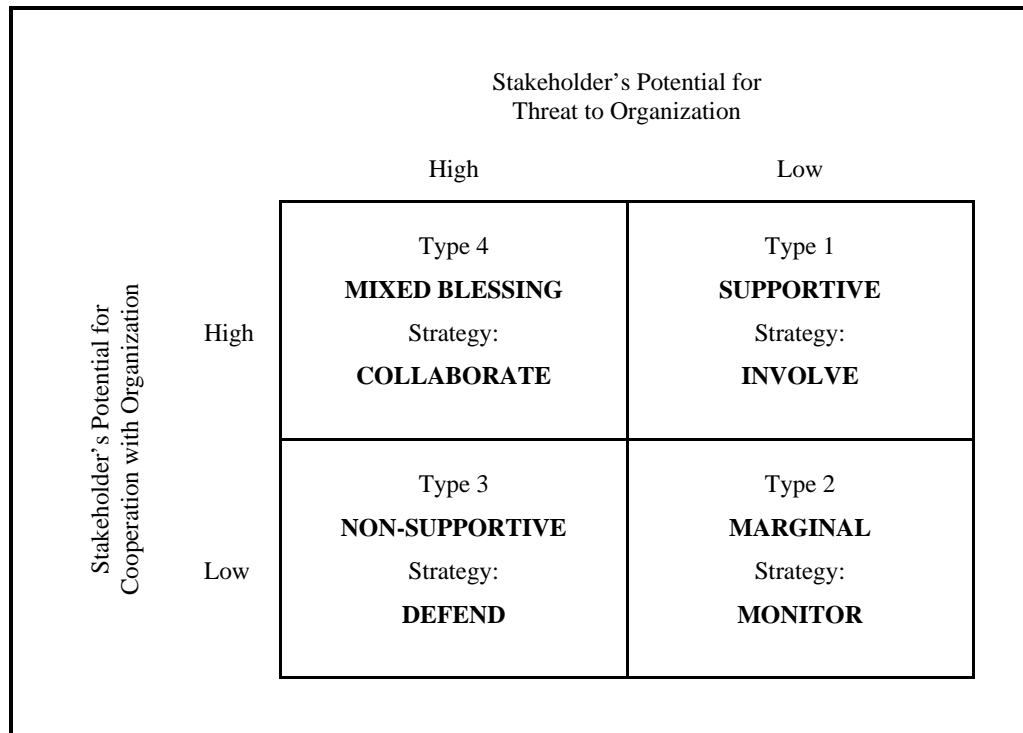
Source: Savage et al. 1991, cited in Weiss 2003, p.43; Carroll 1993, p.79.

The stakeholder concept can apply to industrial democracy in the sense that implementation of industrial democracy requires support from all stakeholder groups. Understanding stakeholders and responding properly to their expectation can facilitate the effective implementation (Buysse & Verbeke 2003) of industrial democracy. It also provides a more parsimonious but more complete theory (Scott & Lane 2000) of industrial relations.

2.4 Industrial Democracy Framework

Further to the introduction of the industrial democracy concept in chapter one, this section elaborates on the forms of participation in industrial democracy. The Webbs (Webb & Webb 1902) made an observation in their conclusion in the final page of their Industrial Democracy work that: "In the world of civilisation and progress, no man can be his own master. But the very fact that, in modern society, the individual thus necessarily loses control over his own life, makes him desire to regain

collectively what has become individually impossible" (Webb & Webb 1902, p.850). Flanders further elaborates on this issue that:

> Unfortunately it seems also to be true that modern society tends to destroy the individual's confidence in his capacity to control his own life and thus weaken any feeling of personal responsibility for his social environment. The growth of trade unionism, however, has undoubtedly contributed to the awakening among employees of a fuller awareness of their own dignity and importance, and this has found expression in demands for more than a larger pay packet and greater leisure. There is a long tradition among British trade unions in favour of the workers having some share in the management and control of the industries in which they are employed, as well as in the determination of their wages and working conditions (Flanders 1968, p.124).

The two major methods by which to achieve the objectives of industrial democracy promulgated by Webb & Webb (1902): collective bargaining, and the method of legal enactment, are discussed next.

2.4.1 Collective Bargaining

Among the several methods proposed in the trade union function in the book of Industrial Democracy (Webb & Webb 1902) is collective bargaining. Collective bargaining is at the heart of trade unions especially in the UK as trade unions "came into being, established themselves on firm foundations and extended their power and social influence mainly on account of their achievements in collective bargaining" (Flanders 1968, p.75). Hughes & Pollins (1973) assert that:

> The focus of trade union activity is collective bargaining. Industrial relations consists largely of the creation and operation of mechanisms whereby the differences between employers and employees can be examined, discussed and resolved. The result of this form of activity is an agreement of some kind, written or not, which determines for the time being the wages, hours of work, conditions, and whatever else the parties have agreed upon (Hughes & Pollins 1973, p.109).

Employee participation can be promulgated by laws, but collective bargaining remains the major channel for negotiating employee participation. It is not only the channel for participation but is also about creating the methods and procedures including the conditions for employee participation. It erodes the power of employer and management and increases employees' and trade union power and balances the power of control in a business organization. It imposes limitations on the freedom of

the employers to run their business as they think fit (Flanders 1968). As collective bargaining is treated here as the foundation for employee participation - instead of going down to the detailed discussion on it, this section will focus on the forms of employee participation. For further discussion of collective bargaining see for examples: Flanders (1967); Flanders (1964); Dunlop & Chamberlain (1967); Chamberlain & Kuhn (1986); Herman & Kuhn (1981); Chamberlain (1951); Roberts (ed) (1968).

2.4.2 Legal Enactment

The method of collective bargaining, as discussed earlier, is also used by trade unions to achieve their broader objectives (Webb & Webb 1902). Hughes and Pollins (1973) assert that trade unions are part of the political process. They argue that trade unions also perform political lobbying and campaigning and that the UK-based Trade Union Council (TUC) plays a particularly important role:

> It came into existence primarily to represent the views of its affiliated unions to government and to Parliament, to keep surveillance over intended legislation and to act as a pressure group to safeguard the interests of trade unionists and work people generally. Its annual report is to a large extent an account of the diverse matters which bring it into close contact with government. A traditional stance of the TUC is that, whatever party is in power, it remains independent and puts forward its own policies and ideas, however discomfiting to the government of the day (Hughes & Pollins 1973, p.85).

Employee participation can also be established by design, for example: participative design (Emery (ed.) 1993; Emery & Emery 1993) and PATOP model invented by Whiteley (1999; 2001). The PATOP model was further elaborated in Whiteley & McCabe (2001). The next section discusses briefly the PATOP model.

2.4.3 PATOP Model

The PATOP model was invented by Whiteley (1999, p.64) as a model for reflexive thinking and diagnosis in organizations:

> It is a framework for matching what is said and what is done from either the viewpoint of the manager, worker or other involved groups… There is a strong focus on the alignment between an organization's Philosophy and Assumptions, (the theory of the organization) and its Theories of

Organising and Practices (the practice of the organization). Hence the term PATOP (Whiteley & McCabe 2001, p.64).

The model can be applied to any organization activity, for example change formulation and implementation (Whiteley & McCabe 2001). Figure 2.2 presents the alignment of theory and practice of the model.

Figure 2.2: Alignment of Theory and Practice

PHILOSOPHY

ASSUMPTION

THEORY OF ORGANISATION

STRUCTURES SYSTEMS PROCESSES

PRACTICES
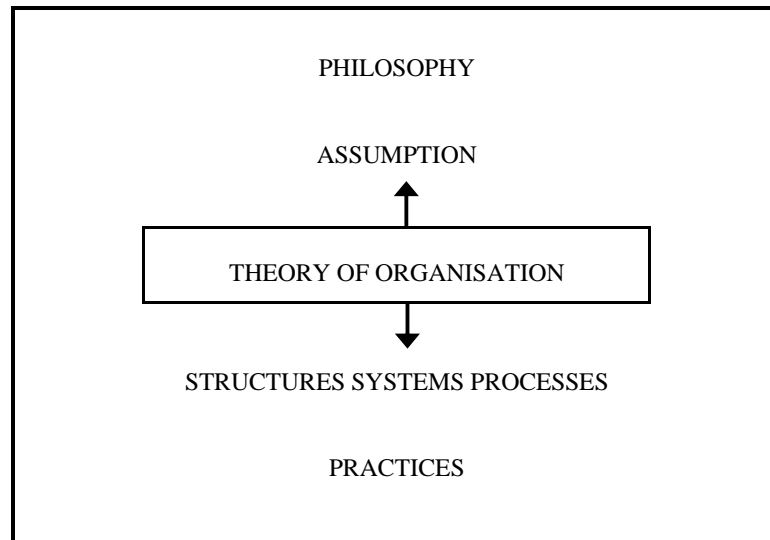
Source: Whiteley & McCabe 2001, p.69.

2.4.4 Employee Participation

Definitions of employee participation: employee involvement and industrial democracy vary and are used interchangeably by many scholars (Lashley 2001). However, Hyman and Mason (1995) define employee participation as:

> .. participation will refer to state initiatives which promote the collective rights of employees to be represented in organizational decision making, or to the consequences of the efforts of employees themselves to establish collective representation in corporate decisions, possibly in the face of employer resistance. This definition would include collective bargaining over terms and conditions of employment (Hyman & Mason 1995, p.21)

At the same time they define employee involvement as:

> Practices and polices which emanate from management and sympathisers of free market commercial activity and which purport to provide

employees with the opportunity to influence and where appropriate take part in the decision making on matters which affect[s] them (Hyman & Mason 1995, p.21).

Based on the above definitions, it is clear that while employee involvement is intended to enhance the support and commitment of employees to the objectives and values of the organization (as determined by employer or management), participation is designed to provide the employees with the opportunity to influence and take part in organizational decision making (Salamon 1992). As defined in the operational definition in chapter one, industrial democracy is an "umbrella term referring to the sharing of power in the workplace" (ILO 1996, p.12). Employee participation discussed here includes employee involvement. To have a better understanding of the levels of degrees of employee participation, a model of the escalator of employee participation in decision making is shown in Figure 2.3 (Marchington et al. 1992).

Figure 2.3: The Escalator of Employee Participation in Decision Making
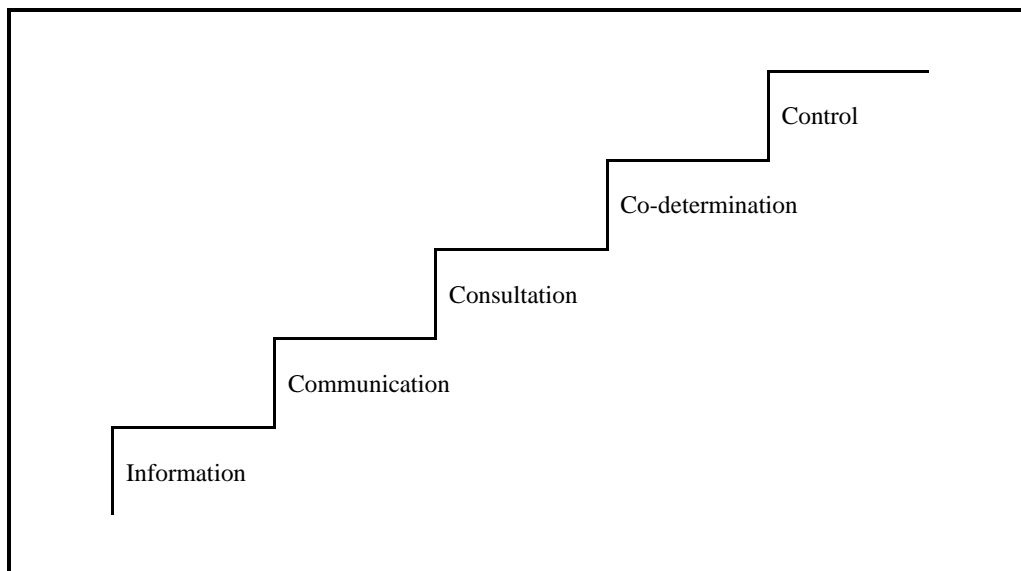
Source: Marchington et al. 1992, cited in Lashley 2001, p.51.

Using the escalator model presented by Marchington (et al. 1992) above - selected forms of participation will be elaborated next.

2.4.4.1 Information

This refers to the information disclosure by the employer. It involves providing employees with information in an essentially "top down" direction, for example employees' newsletter, company magazines and team briefings (Lashley 2001). Sharing information with employees can help the company to be able to harness employees' creative energies (Kouzes & Posner 1999). Disclosure of information of this type can also be determined by collective agreement (Ochiai 1987). Information disclosure can be made compulsory by law, for example in public companies or stated firms in some European countries (DOL 1980). Disclosure of information to employees in forms of social accounting methods and regular reporting on various matters such as safety, health and welfare conditions, is also included (DOL 1980).

2.4.4.2 Communication

This type of participation includes schemes that involve a two way process and usually the extended forms of team briefing that allow questions to be asked and clarification sought and are perhaps close to 'tell and test' (Lashley 2001). It may include the meeting conducted by a manager with employees in the day-to-day work planning and implementation.

2.4.4.3 Consultation

This type of participation includes schemes that aim to gain from employees their ideas and experience (Lashley 2001). The final decision is made by the employer or manager but suggestion schemes, Quality Control Circles (QCC) groups and joint consultative committees can assist in making decisions with input from employees (Lashley 2001). The practice of Joint consultation in the UK can be traced back to 1942 (Clegg & Chester 1967). Joint consultation can be classified into three distinct, though inter-related categories (Flanders 1968): those constituted to assist government departments or public agencies; those which exist between trade unions and employers, private or public, in various industries and services; and the provisions for joint consultation between management and workers in individual establishments (Flanders 1968).

2.4.4.4 Co-determination

This type of participation involves schemes whereby employees and managers may jointly make decisions (Lashley 2001). Works councils and employee directors are included in this category of participation (Lashley 2001).

2.4.4.5 Works Councils

The Codetermination Act 1951: the Codetermination Extension Act 1956; and the Codetermination Act 1976 prescribed the provisions for Works Councils in Germany (Farnham & Pimlott 1983). The Work Constitution Act from 1972 provided legal rights of information, consultation and co-determination on economic, personnel and social matters to employees' representatives who are elected by all employees of the company (except managerial staff) for a period of four years (Mayer & Schweisshelm 2000). For further details see Halbach (et al. 1994).

2.4.4.6 Employee directors

This is a part of the German system of co-determination that employee representatives are appointed to membership of the board of the company. There are four legal systems regulating employee participation in corporate organs: the Employee Codetermination Act 1976; the Work Constitution Act 1952; the Act on Employee Codetermination in the Supervisory Boards and Managing Boards of the Coal and Iron and Steel-producing Industry 1951; and the Act supplementing the Act on Employee Codetermination in the Supervisory Boards and Boards of Directors of the Coal, Iron and Steel Industry 1956 (Halbach et al. 1994). For further discussion, also see Farnham and Pimlott (1983); Rose (2001); Salamon (1992); Thorsrud and Emery (1970); and DOL (1980).

2.4.4.7 European works councils

The European Works Councils are established under the provisions of the Council Directive 94/45/EC of 22 September 1994 (Traub-Merz 2001). It requires all member states to comply with the provisions for the establishment of a European Works Councils or a procedure in Community-scale undertakings and Community-scale groups of undertakings for the purposes of informing and consulting employees (Traub-Merz 2001).

2.4.4.8 Control

This type of participation is the method that employee-owned organizations employ. It involves those organizations in which employees retain ultimate decision-making powers, usually in the form of workers' cooperatives, for example, in the case of the Mondragon cooperatives in Spain (Lashley 2001). 'Producers' cooperatives' is another term used to express the employee ownership of a company (Strauss 1979). This can also occur in the case of buy-out in a case of privatization of public enterprises (Thaiarry 1987; Boncodin & Sto Tomas 1987).

2.4.4.9 Financial Participation

This type of participation is not included in the Marchington (et al. 1992)'s model discussed above. It involves employee involvement in financial programs such as profit sharing or employee shareholding schemes, either as a result of the employment condition agreement or by the initiative of employer gain-sharing, profit sharing, and Scanlon plans (these are methods for sharing profits with employees according to some formula), and worker ownership or employee stock ownership (Cascio 1995). For further discussion see DOL (1980) and for further discussion on profit sharing and pension scheme participation see Schuller (1993). For profit sharing and share ownership see Poole (1988) and see Gomez-Mejia and Welbourne (2000) for issues in gainsharing.

2.4.5 Employee Participation in Thailand

Further to the introduction of industrial democracy in Thailand in chapter one, this section reviewed the various forms of industrial democracy through employee participation practices in Thailand.

2.4.5.1 Collective Bargaining

Collective bargaining is a major method of achieving the objectives of trade unions in Thailand. The collective bargaining process is prescribed under the provision of the Labour Relations Act of B.E. 2518 (1975) (Chandravithun & Vause 1994; Joungtrakul 1986; Suppanakorn 1996; Phipatanakul 1992). The Act also recognizes the rights of a group of (not less than fifteen percent of) employees in the company who can join together to submit a demand and negotiate with the employer

(Phipatanakul 1992; Chandravithun & Vause 1994). It is a prevailing practice in business and industry in Thailand (Kosiyanon 1987; Phipatanakul 1992).

2.4.5.2 Legal Enactment

The method of legal enactment is a prevailing practice by trade unions in Thailand. Trade unions at the national level (the Council of Employees' Organizations) continually campaign for amendment and enactment of labour legislation (DOLPW 2003; DOLPW 2002b). It is the tradition now on May Day of each year for the trade union at the national level to conduct campaigns for amendment of the existing laws and express demands for new laws. The proposal is submitted to the government each year (DOLPW 2001).

2.4.5.3 Information

Disclosure of information to employees is a prevailing practice and is accomplished through several methods such as employees' newsletters, employees' handbooks, and bulletin boards (Siengthai 1988b; Siengthai 1988c). At the same time company websites have become a means for information disclosure and dissemination. An annual report is published and is also available to employees. In addition, a disclosure award programme was established by the Securities and Exchange Commission, Thailand in 2002 to encourage more and accurate disclosure of information in public companies (SECT 2004). However, it was noted that employers disclose only that information that they want to disclose but other information that employees want to know (such as profit and loss), employees and trade unions have to find by themselves (Srikasikul 1993).

2.4.5.4 Communication

Several means are used in communicating with employees, including meetings and similar means of information disclosure (Siengthai 1988b). Suggestions and QCC are also used (Kosiyanon 1987; Siengthai 1988b; Suttawet 2002a).

2.4.5.5 Consultation

There are three types of committees established for consultation purposes. The first type is the committee set up by the employers' own initiative, such as Joint Consultation Committee (JCC) (Siengthai 1988a; Phipatanakul 1979; Siengthai

88

1988c; Suttawet 2002a). The second type is the committee prescribed by law, but not compulsory, such as employee committee under the Labour Relations Act of B.E. 2518 (1975) (Phipatanakul 1979). The third type consists of the committees compulsory by law, such as welfare committees and safety committee (Thongdee 2004; Siengthai 1988b).

2.4.5.6 Co-determination

There are no Works Councils with comparable power to the German or European Works Councils in Thailand. There are Employee Committees established under the provisions of Labour Relations Act of B.E. 2518 (1975) (Phipatanakul 1979). Although election of members of the committee is prescribed by the law, this committee has a consultation function only and has no power of co-determination. Employee representation at the company board of directors is practiced in some small companies, for example, the Thanathep Printing Company Limited (Piriyarangsan 1997; Suttawet 1993).

2.4.5.7 Control

There are some cases of employees holding majority shares of the company, for example, in the case of Thanathep Printing Company Limited where employees hold forty percent of the total shares of the company (Piriyarangsan 1997, Suttawet 1993). The majority of the members of the board of directors are employees (Piriyarangsan 1997; Suttawet 1993). Employee credit unions can be considered as a form of employee control as employees are shareholders and the board of directors are elected from shareholders who are employees (OSC 2005a).

2.4.5.8 Financial Participation

Two major methods of financial participation in Thailand are employee shareholding and employee provident funds. The shareholding method occurs mostly in the case of the private companies transforming into public companies and allows employees to purchase company shares at the par or at a special rate. It also happens when a public enterprise is transforming into a public company, such as in the recent case of the Electricity Generation Authority of Thailand (EGAT) where employees were given the privilege of buying the new company shares at the par price at the amount equivalent to eight times of their salary (Marelookchandra 2005). Employee

provident funds are managed under the provision of the Employee Provident Fund Act of B.E. 2530 (OSC 2005b). The Act requires that, in a way similar to the appointment of a member of the board of directors of a company, employee representatives be appointed to the fund management committee.

2.5 Cultural Dimensions

The cultural concept and its impact on management are introduced in chapter one. This section elaborates more on the cultural dimensions as related to the implementation of industrial relations. Culture has been realized as one of the important factors impacting management practices (Adler 1997) in many management fields, such as strategic management (Thompson & Strickland III 1995; Wheelen & Hunger 1990), change management (Whiteley 1995; Rye 2001), marketing management (Peter & Olson 1996; Holloway, Mittelstaedt & Venkatesan (eds) 1971), and human resource management (Mabey & Salaman 1995; Whiteley, Cheung & Zhang 2000). In the area of research, scholars have been giving importance to culture as one of the factors impacting research throughout the research process. Much writing on how to conduct research takes into account the impact of cultures and the research on culture (Schein 1996; Adler 1984; Trompenaars 1996; Chapman 1997; Quaddus & Tung 2002; Tung & Quaddus 2002; Myers et al. 2000; McDonald 2000; van de Vijer & Poortinga 1997; Hofstede 1998). A comparative study of management systems of various countries, for example in Asian in particular Chinese, Japanese and Korean (Chen 1995), a handbook for international management research (Punnett & Shenkar 1996) is insightful. However, more research is needed in the area of applying management theories, and especially industrial relations, in different cultural settings. In this section discussion will be made on selected research relateing to culture and industrial relations.

Hofstede (1984) in his book "Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work-Related Values" presents the result of his research conducted in 40 countries including Thailand. This research surveyed 116,000 employees of an international company operating in those 40 countries. He classifies cultural dimensions into four headings. The first dimension is "Power Distance" which relates to the question of: How readily do individuals accept the unequal distribution of power in organizations and institutions? The second dimension is "Uncertainty Avoidance" which relates to

the question of: How threatening are uncertain and ambiguous situations, and how important are rules, conformity, and absolute truths? The third dimension is "Individualism-Collectivism" which relates to the question of: Are people responsible for their own welfare within a loosely knit social framework, or does the group look out for individuals in exchange for loyalty? The fourth dimension is "Masculinity-Femininity" which relates to the question of: How important are masculine attitudes (assertiveness, money and possessions, and performance) versus feminine attitudes (concern for people, the quality of life, and the environment)?

One of the topics included in his research is related to the application of industrial democracy in those countries. His research has been "instrumental in furthering an understanding of cross cultural management theory and practice, revealing that members of different societies hold divergent values concerning the nature of organizations and interpersonal relationship within them" (Fernandez et al. 1997). He argues that "all forms of industrial democracy are in themselves ways of reducing power distance. They come more naturally to smaller power distance cultures than [to] larger power distance cultures" (Hofstede 1984, p.268). His findings in this dimension indicate that in higher power distance countries there will be a stronger ideological push towards models of formal participation (for example, through workers' councils or boardroom representation) but also that there will be more 'de facto' resistance against them because they are more in conflict with the present situation (Hofstede 1984). He indicated in his research that Thailand was ranked 64 in his Power Distance Index which is above an overall mean of 51. This indicates that Thailand is a rather high power distance country and thus Thai culture should have some implications for the implementation of industrial democracy.

In relation to the application of American management theories, he recommends that American theories should be adapted to local cultures rather than imposed on them (Kreitner 1998; Hofstede 1980).

Komin's (1990) research "The Psychology of the Thai People: Values and Behavioral Patterns" was generally introduced in chapter one. This section discusses the cultural relativity and management theory identified in her research. She made three very important recommendations. First, she asserts that:

As a culture which values 'ego' and 'face' straightforward negative performance feedback, strong criticism, and face-to-face confrontation techniques should be avoided. When necessary, indirect means are used. 'Face-saving' is a key criteria in handling all person-related decisions, particularly negative ones. A compromise is often used as an effective means to save face, and to keep the 'surface harmony', even at the expense of some task or organizational progress (Komin 1990, p.257).

The second point is that:

Thai employees can be motivated to work devotedly for the leader they like and respect. Reasonable authority and special privileges are accepted. Impersonal, cut-and-dried type of system oriented managerial style is not as effective as the benevolent paternalistic leadership style. Straightforward, ambitious and aggressive personalities similar to the West, although highly capable, are not tolerated and are hardly ever successful. But personalism with a 'soft' and polite approach often guarantees cooperation. Participative models of management should be selectively used where truly appropriate, because although democracy is an attractive legitimate 'form', the substance of democracy is still lacking in the basic value systems of the Thai. Take for instance, some Thai educational institution which has introduced the one-man-one-vote system, has proved to have done more harm than good to the organizational growth (Komin 1990, pp.257-258).

The third point she made is that:

In a culture loosely committed to any ideology, any new system approach or new organizational culture (a system of shared meaning among organizational members) can be indoctrinated, but not without a relation oriented leadership style, and not overlooking the above two general guiding implications (Komin 1990, p.258).

She also comments on the application of American theory based on Hofstede's (1984) findings that:

Therefore, these American management theories will work with the American subordinates and with those from 'small power distance' cultures like Canada, Germany, or Australia, more than with subordinates from a 'large power distance' culture like the Thai, in which quite some degree of arbitrariness with regards to authority, hierarchy, special privileges, and power, etc., are accepted facts of life, and they are often personalized (Komin 1990, p.262).

Piriyarangsan (1989) found in his research that 'Bunkhun', which is one of the major Thai values, has a strong impact on the relationship between Thai employer and

employee. 'Bunkhun" as described by Komin (1990) is gratitude or the repaying of favour with favour. According to Piriyarangsan (1989), some employers claimed that to hire labour was to render 'Bunkhun' in the form of money income to employees.

2.6 Conclusion

This chapter presents literature going into this research and expanded from the introduction made in chapter one. The industrial relations system as a framework for embedded industrial democracy was presented, followed by the Thai industrial relations system. A theoretical framework for this research was then presented and finally the cultural dimensions were discussed. Literature directed by the findings will be introduced in chapter seven.

CHAPTER 3:
THEORIES OF QUALITATIVE RESEARCH METHODOLOGIES

The assumption is made by the researcher that it is necessary to become fully aware of consenting and contrasting theories concerning research activities. As a prelude to the detailed accounts of research activities and methods chosen (see chapter four), a careful review of theories was undertaken. The objective of this chapter is to present a selection of the theories that were considered, sometimes critically, to guide the conduct of this research. The chapter introduces the research questions and describes the philosophical foundation of the research methodology. It presents research paradigms and strategies including the theories of research design. Included are data collection, data management and data analysis processes. The important topic of research ethics was addressed. The theories described here were selected as being insightful for the following research questions:

How do the selected stakeholders express their knowledge of industrial democracy? What are the similarities and differences in perceptions of the 'industrial democracy in practice' concept held by members of the selected stakeholder groups? What are emergent best practices in industrial democracy?

3.1 Theories of Philosophical Foundations

This research is a qualitative research. In qualitative research, a philosophical framework is particularly important for both the researcher and the respondent. Maykut and Morehouse (1994, p.2) suggest that differences in "the way qualitative and quantitative researchers approach research appear not only on the surface where they can be easily detected, but also on very basic levels that cannot be easily noticed if one does not understand the assumptions that underscore the research practices" They go on to argue that:

> Without an understanding of these understandings, many of us see any research problems as variations of quantitative inquiry, that is, we think in terms of the null hypothesis, objective data collection, reliability and validity. Metaphorically, we tend to see new things with the older, more established blueprints in our minds. Another potential problem of not having a sense of the philosophic understandings of qualitative and quantitative research is the inability to make a strong case for conducting a qualitative research project in that particular situation and/or setting (Maykut & Morehouse 1994, p.2).

One of the deep differences between quantitative and qualitative research is the philosophic underpinning (Maykut & Morehouse 1994). The philosophy of 'becoming', which in turn leads to the constructivist ontology, interpretive epistemology and qualitative methodology, is relativist in nature. The central tenets are that individuals construct their own versions of reality and when in social settings, they do this together through talk in interaction. A family of 'becoming' research approaches includes Ethnomethodology (Garfinkel 1967), symbolic interactionism (Mead 1963 orig. 1934), hermeneutic inquiry (Heidegger 1962; Smith 1983), grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss 1967), naturalist inquiry (Filstead 1972) and ethnography (Fetterman 1989). To gain more understanding of the differences, Maykut and Morehouse (1994) propose that a series of questions be asked in framing research within philosophy, as displayed in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Framing research within philosophy

Areas of Philosophy and Research	Questions
Philosophy	Is life a potentiality or an actuality?
Ontology raises questions about the nature of reality.	What is the nature of the world? What is real? What counts as evidence?
Epistemology is interested in the origins and nature of knowing and the construction of knowledge.	What is the relationship between the knower and the known? What role do values play in understanding knowledge?
Methodology governs the process and techniques that are legitimate to use.	Are causal links between bits of information possible?
Teleology is generally concerned with questions of purpose.	Is the purpose to understand or test?

Source: Adapted from Maykut and Morehouse 1994, p.4.

Another way to think of philosophy is to think of paradigms. These are world views or schemata that are so powerful that they demand allegiance in terms of epistemological and methodological procedures, techniques and research tools. Lincoln & Guba (2000, p.15) argue that "our actions in the world, including actions that we take as inquirers, cannot occur without reference to those paradigms …". Creswell confirms their argument that qualitative researchers "approach their studies with a certain paradigm or worldview …" (Creswell 1998, p.74). Thus, in conducting a research it is essential that the researcher choose an appropriate paradigm to guide such a research. The next section discusses paradigm definition, describes briefly the major basic paradigms and paradigm choice for this research.

3.2 Paradigms

A paradigm may be viewed as:

> a set of basic beliefs (or metaphysics) that deals with ultimates or first principles. It represents a worldview that defines, for its holder, the nature of the 'world,' the individual's place in it and the range of possible relationships to that world and its parts, as, for example, cosmologies and theologies do (Guba & Lincoln 1994, p.107).

It can be thought of as "a basic set of beliefs, a set of assumptions we are willing to make, which serve as touchstones in guiding our activities"(Guba & Lincoln 1989, p.80). It is a basic belief system; it cannot be proven or disproven, but it represents the most fundamental positions we are willing to take (Guba & Lincoln 1989). The concept of paradigm has been associated most often with the work of Kuhn's (1962) work 'The Structure of Scientific Revolution'. Almost for the first time, Kuhn queried many of the claims and assumptions made by rational empiricists regarding their claims to 'truth'. He installed a dynamism into the idea of paradigmatic change and in so doing, challenged the position that a paradigm, (such as scientism) would not eventually be toppled. At the time of Kuhn's work, in spite of the work of naturalistic researchers (Whyte 1948) 'legitimate' research was still considered to be capable of discovering 'truths'. Over time, and with the contribution of groups such as the 'Chicago School' researchers, (see Woods 1992), the relativist paradigm became accepted. Lincoln and Guba assert that paradigms represent "a distillation of what we think about the world (but cannot prove)" (Lincoln & Guba 1985, p.15).

Guba argues that paradigms can be characterized by the way their proponents respond to three basic questions, which can be characterized as the ontological, the epistemological, and the methodological questions. These questions were posed in Table 3.1. Guba (1990, pp.18-19) elaborates:

> The answers that are given to these questions may be termed, as sets, the basic belief systems or paradigms that might be adopted. They are the starting points or givens that determine what inquiry is and how it is to be practiced. They cannot be proven or disproven in any foundational sense; if that were possible there would be no doubt about how to practice [the] inquiry. But all such belief systems or paradigms are human constructions, and hence subject to all the errors and foibles that inevitably accompany human endeavors.

In both the 1994 and 2000 editions of the 'Handbook of Qualitative Research', (Denzin & Lincoln (eds) 1994; Denzin & Lincoln (eds) 2000), a paradigm thus may be viewed as a basic set of beliefs or assumptions or worldview that guides research. Creswell (1998, p.74) endorses the hierarchy of questions and research activities when he describes "the nature of reality (the ontology issue), the relationship of the researcher to that being researched (the epistemological issue), the role of values in a study (the axiological issue), and the process of research (the methodological issue)". Denzin and Lincoln (2000, p.19), using slightly different imagery, support this idea when they talk about a paradigm as "the net that contains the researcher's epistemological, ontological, and methodological premises may be termed a paradigm[s], or an interpretive framework". Guba (1990, p.17) reminds us of the action-oriented nature of paradigm as a "basic set of beliefs that guides action … action taken in connection with a disciplined inquiry".

3.2.1 The Major Basic Paradigms

Researchers often refer to four paradigms and these are positivism, postpositivism, critical theory, constructivism (Guba 1990; Guba & Lincoln 1989) and, in the 2000 edition of their work (Lincoln & Guba 2000), participatory action research (Heron 1996; Heron & Reason 1997). A brief description of the five paradigms follows.

3.2.1.1 Positivism

According to Guba (1990), p.19) the basic belief system of positivism is "rooted in a realist ontology, that is, the belief that there exists a reality out there, driven by

immutable natural laws. The business of science is to discover the 'true' nature of reality and how it 'truly' works. [And that] the ultimate aim of science is to predict and control natural phenomena" (Guba 1990). Guba (1990) summarized the basic belief system (paradigm) of conventional (positivist) inquiry as shown in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: The basic belief system of positivist inquiry

Ontology	Realist - reality exists "out there" and is driven by immutable natural laws and mechanisms. Knowledge of these entities, laws, and mechanisms is conventionally summarized in the form of time- and context-free generalizations. Some of these latter generalizations take the form of cause-effect laws.
Epistemology	Dualist/objectivist - it is both possible and essential for the inquirer to adopt a distant, non-interactive posture. Values and other biasing and confounding factors are thereby automatically excluded from influencing the outcomes.
Methodology	Experimental/manipulative - questions and/or hypotheses are stated in advance in propositional form and subject to empirical tests (falsification) under carefully controlled conditions.

Source: Based on Guba 1990, p.20.

3.2.1.2 Postpositivism

There have been recent substantive works on various approaches to paradigmatic issues (see Guba & Lincoln 1994; Lincoln & Guba 2000). Guba's (1990) work exclusively relates to this. He asserts that "postpositivism is best characterized as a modified version of positivism. Having assessed the damage that positivism has incurred, postpositivists struggle to limit that damage so as to adjust to it [although] prediction and control continue to be the aim" (Guba 1990, p.20). Guba further asserts that "the basic belief system of postpositivism differs very little from that of positivism" (Guba 1990, p.23). Guba summarized the basic belief system of postpositivist inquiry as shown in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3: The basic belief system of postpositivist inquiry

Ontology	Critical realist - reality exists but can never be fully apprehended. It is driven by natural laws that can be only incompletely understood.
Epistemology	Modified objectivist - objectivity remains a regulatory ideal, but it can be only be approximated, with special emphasis placed on external guardians such as the critical tradition and the critical community.
Methodology	Modified experimental/manipulative - emphasize critical multi-prism. Redresses imbalances by doing inquiry in more natural settings, using more qualitative methods, depending more on grounded theory, and reintroducing discovery into the inquiry process.

Source: Based on Guba 1990, p.23.

3.2.1.3 Critical Theory

Critical theory is a form of critical science (Schwandt 1990; Popkewitz 1990). Guba argues that a more appropriate label of critical theory would be "ideologically oriented inquiry" (Guba 1990, p.23). He asserts that it should include neo-Marxism, materialism, feminism, Freire-ism (after the famous educationalist Paolo Friere), participatory inquiry and other similar movements as well as critical theory itself. He reasons that these perspectives are properly placed together because they converge in rejecting the claim of value-freedom made, then and now, by positivists and postpositivists. The basic belief system of the critical theory (ideological) paradigm is summarized by Guba as shown in Table 3.4. For further discussion on critical theory, see Bronner & Kellner (eds) (1989) and see Hesse-Biber, Gilmartin & Lydenberg (eds) (1999) for feminist approaches.

Table 3.4: The basic belief system of critical theory inquiry

Ontology	Critical realist, as in the case of postpositivism.
Epistemology	Subjectivist, in the sense that values mediate inquiry.
Methodology	Dialogic, transformative; eliminate false consciousness and energize and facilitate transformation.

Source: Based on Guba 1990, p.25.

3.2.1.4 Constructivism

Guba believes that proponents of both positivist, postpositivist and critical theory paradigms feel that there can be an accommodation between their positions (Guba 1990). He further elaborates that constructivist thinkers feel that the positivist (and postpositivist) paradigms are incommensurate with the constructivist paradigm, the latter being badly flawed (Guba 1990). In the later work of qualitative research theorists (Denzin & Lincoln (eds) 1994; Denzin & Lincoln (eds) 2000), various arguments have been made but they have not seriously contended Guba's (1990) position. However, in the last two decades or more, this debate has become more sophisticated, the claim for incommensurability being questioned (Hassard 1988; Gioia & Pitre 1990; Calas & Smircich 1999). Guba summarized the basic belief system of constructivism inquiry as shown in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5: The basic belief system of constructivism inquiry

Ontology	Relativist - realities exist in the form of multiple mental constructions, socially and experientially based, local and specific, dependent for their form and content on the persons who hold them.
Epistemology	Subjectivist - 'inquirer and inquired into' are fused into a single (monistic) entity. Findings are literally the creation of the process of interaction between the two.
Methodology	Hermeneutic, dialectic - individual constructions are elicited and refined hermeneutically, and compared and contrasted dialectically, with the aim of generating one (or a few) constructions on which there is substantial consensus.

Source: Based on Guba 1990, p.27.

3.2.1.5 Participatory Action Research

In their 2000 work (Lincoln & Guba 2000), this paradigm was added to the previous set of approaches in Guba (1990) and Guba & Lincoln (1994). Heron argues that there are two strands of the participative paradigm, the epistemic and the political (Heron 1996). The basis that formed the epistemic strand is concerned with truth-values summarized by (Heron 1996) is shown in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6: The basis that formed the epistemic strand of participative paradigm

Ontology	An ontology that affirms a mind-shaped reality which is subjective-objective: it is subjective because it is only known through the form the mind gives it; and it is objective because the mind interpenetrates the given cosmos which it shapes.
Epistemology	An epistemology that asserts the participative relation between the knower and the known, and, where known is also knower, between knower and knower. Knower and known are separate in this interactive relation. They also transcend it, the degree of participation being partial and open to change. Participative knowing is bipolar: empathic communion with the inward experience of a being; and enactment of its form of appearing through the imaging and shaping process of perceiving it.
Methodology	A methodology that commends the validation of outcomes through the congruence of practical, conceptual, imaginal and empathic forms of knowing among co-operative knowers, and the cultivation of skills that deepen these forms. It sees inquiry as an intersubjective space, a common culture, in which the use of language is grounded in a deep context of nonlinguistic meanings, the lifeworld of shared experience, necessarily presupposed by agreement about the use of language itself.

Source: Heron 1996, p.11; Lincoln & Guba 2000, p.169.

3.3 Sociological Perspectives

At the heart of this study lies the concept of industrial democracy. The term describes one way (the participative, democratic way) that the many groups connected to industrial relationships might relate to each other. In this regard, the study has a sociological anchor. The next section owes a debt to Burrell & Morgan (1979) who have become acknowledged as classical writers about the different assumptions that underpin like and competing sociological theories. They argue for the importance of this by saying that "all social scientists approach their subject via explicit or implicit assumptions about the nature of the social world and the way in which it may be investigated" (Burrell & Morgan 1979, p.1). Assumptions are made about the very essence of the phenomena under study (ontology), the grounds of knowledge (epistemology), the relationship between human beings (human nature) and the way in which one attempts to investigate and obtain knowledge about the real world (methodology). Hassard (1994) has gone on to offer some controversial ideas about assumptions and, in particular, assumptions of commensurability between paradigms.

Burrell and Morgan (1979) suggest that the nature of social science can be thought of in terms of the subjective-objective dimension, and assumptions about the nature of society in terms of regulation-radical change dimension. Based on these two dimensions, Burrell and Morgan came up with four distinct sociological perspectives or paradigms that could be utilized for the analysis of a wide range of theories about how society appears to work. They termed these: radical humanist, radical structuralist, interpretive and functionalist (Burrell & Morgan 1979). They elaborate that the relationship between these paradigms is displayed in Figure 3.1

Figure 3.1: Four paradigms for the analysis of social theory
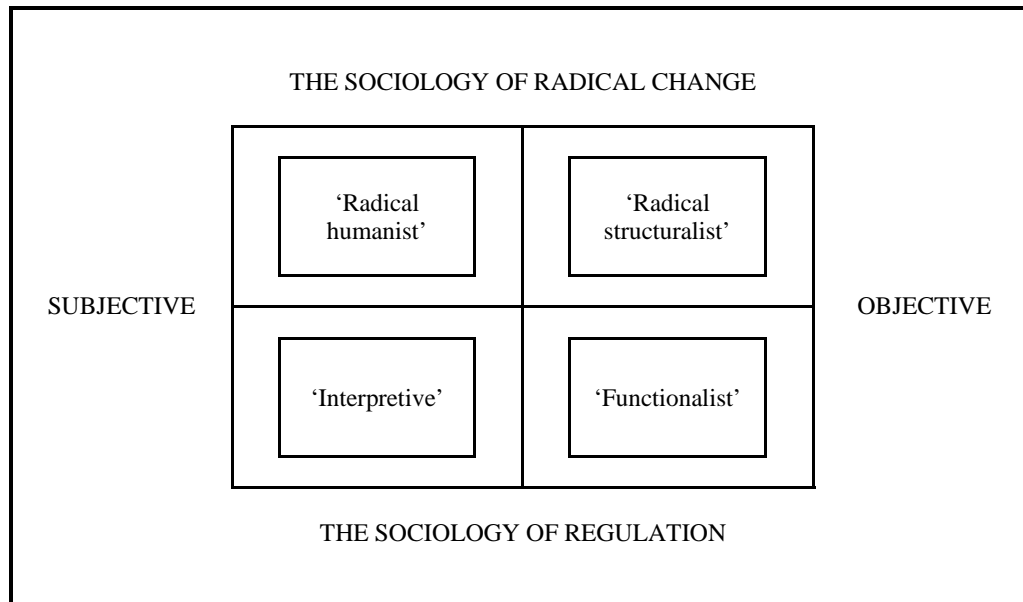
Source: Adapted from Burrell & Morgan 1979, p.22.

The four paradigms identified by Burrell and Morgan represent metatheoretical assumptions which underpin theoretical statements.

> …the four paradigms are mutually exclusive. They offer alternative views of social reality, and to understand the nature of all four is to understand four different views of society. They offer different ways of seeing. A synthesis is not possible, since in their pure forms they are contradictory, being based on at least one set of opposing meta-theoretical assumptions. They are alternatives, in the sense that one can operate in different paradigms sequentially over time, but mutually exclusive, in the sense that one cannot operate in more than one paradigm

at any given point in time, since in accepting the assumptions of one, we defy the assumptions of all the others (Burrell & Morgan 1979, p.25).

3.3.1 The Functionalist Paradigm

According to Burrell and Morgan, this paradigm "has provided the dominant framework for the conduct of academic sociology and the study of organizations. It [also] represents a perspective which is firmly rooted in the sociology of regulation and approaches its subject matter from an objectivist point of view" (Burrell & Morgan 1979, p.25). Its major characteristic is a concern for "providing explanations of the status quo, social order, consensus, social integration, solidarity, need satisfaction and actuality" (p.26). "It approaches these general sociological concerns from a stand point which tends to be realist, positivist, determinist and nomothetic" (p.26). It is concerned "with the effective 'regulation' and control of social affairs" (p.26). Applied to this study, had the functionalist assumption been made, there would have been little reason to conduct an interpretive study. There is much evidence in the form of laws and various legal Acts about industrial relations and industrial democracy. Researches would be focused on various irregularities such as the incidence of strikes, disputes, stoppages as a proportion of functional activity within industries or organizations.

3.3.2 The Interpretive Paradigm

Burrell & Morgan (1979) argue that the theorists located within the interpretive paradigm adopt an approach consonant with a subjectivist approach to the analysis of the social world. This makes its links with structural sociology more often implicit than explicit. They say:

> The interpretive paradigm is informed by a concern to understand the world as it is, to understand the fundamental nature of the social world at the level of subjective experience. [And that] it seeks explanation within the realm of individual consciousness and subjectivity, within the frame of reference of the participant as opposed to the observer of action (p.28).

They further elaborate that:

> In its approach to social science it tends to be nominalist, antipositivist, voluntarist and ideographic. It sees the social world as an emergent social process which is created by the individuals concerned. Social reality[,] insofar as it is recognized to have any existence outside the

consciousness of any single individual, is regarded as being little more than a network of assumptions and intersubjectively shared meanings. … Interpretive philosophers and sociologists seek to understand the very basis and source of social reality. [And that] they often delve into the depths of human consciousness and subjectivity in their quest for the fundamental meanings which underlie social life (pp.28-31).

It is the interpretive set of assumptions that most closely resembles this study. It was recognized from the outset that the Industrial Relations in Thailand most resembled a web of interacting and intersubjective perspectives. The research effort was focused on investigating the meanings people put on such symbolic ideas as industrial democracy, participation and empowerment.

3.3.3 The Radical Humanist Paradigm

This paradigm is defined by its concern to develop "a sociology of radical change from a subjectivist standpoint" (Burrell & Morgan 1979, p.32). Burrell and Morgan argue that the approach to social science used in this paradigm has much in common with that of interpretive paradigm, in that it views "the social world from a perspective which tends to be nominalist, anti-positivist, voluntarist and ideographic…., its frame of reference is committed to a view of society which emphasizes the importance of overthrowing or transcending the limitations of existing social arrangements" (p.32). This paradigm places most emphasis upon "radical change, modes of domination, emancipation, deprivation and potentiality" (Burrell & Morgan 1979, p.32). Although this study resonated with ideas about voluntarism and ideographic accounts of social life, there was not a strong emphasis, going into the study, on any radical criticism of society. In keeping with the 'emergence' condition of Grounded Theory (Glaser & Strauss 1967), any such notions might well emerge from respondents and it was in this spirit that the radical humanist category was considered.

3.3.4 The Radical Structuralist Paradigm

Burrell and Morgan argue that theorists located within this paradigm advocate "sociology of radical change from an objectivist standpoint" (Burrell & Morgan 1979, p.33). They elaborate that radical structuralism is committed to "radical change, emancipation, and potentiality, in an analysis which emphasizes structural conflict, modes of domination, contradiction and deprivation. It approaches these

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general concerns from a standpoint which tends to be realist, positivist, determinist and nomothetic" (p.34). It seems paradoxical to argue that there might be a place in this study for an objectivist standpoint in any shape or form. However, if, as was the case in this study, respondents' voices were to be faithfully heard, then there might well be some areas of the study that were referred to as factual and objective. The Grounded Research re-theorised version of Grounded Theory (Whiteley 2004) recognised such contingencies within the framework of 'socially stable constructs'.

Burrell & Morgan (1979) suggest that for analysing the nature of social science, it is useful to conceptualize four sets of assumptions related to ontology, epistemology, human nature and methodology (Burrell 1996; Hassard 1994) as shown in Figure 3.2.

Figure 3.2: Scheme for analysing assumptions about social science
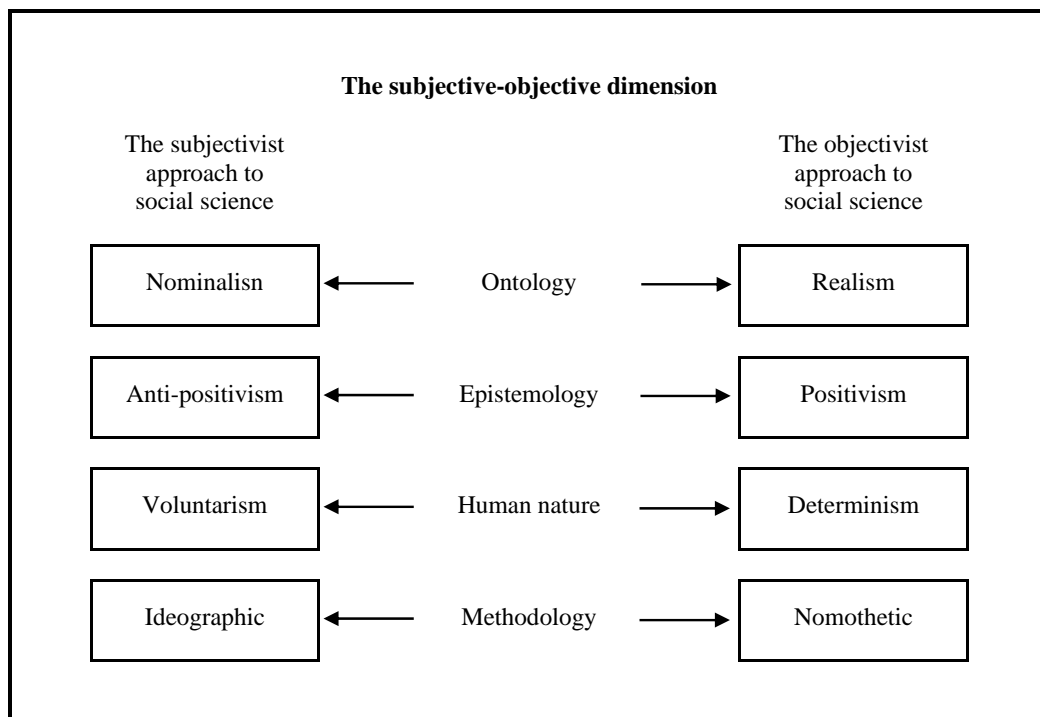
Source: Adapted from ideas by Burrell 1996, p.650; Hassard 1994, p.67.

Based on Figure 3.2, Burrell & Morgan (1979) say that the contrast between the nominalist and the realist ontology revolves around the assumption that the social

world external to individual cognition is made up of nothing more than names, concepts and labels which are used to structure reality. The nominalist does not "admit to there being any real structure to the world which these concepts are used to describe" (Burrell & Morgan 1979, p.4). At the same time Burrell & Morgan elaborate on realism, suggesting that it postulates that the social world external to individual cognition is a real world made up of hard, tangible and relatively immutable structures. For the realist:

> The social world exists independently of an individual's appreciation of it. The individual is seen as being born into and living within a social world which has a reality of its own. It is not something which the individual creates - it exists out there; ontologically it is prior to the existence and consciousness of any single human being (Burrell & Morgan 1979, p.4).

On epistemological issues, Burrell & Morgan draw attention to the contrast between positivism and anti-positivism "positivist epistemology is in essence based upon the traditional approaches which dominate the natural sciences" (p.4). Positivists may differ in terms of detail in their approach, for example, issues about how to verify or to falsify hypotheses. On the other hand, anti-positivists reject the standpoint of the observer, which characterizes positivist epistemology, as a valid vantage point for understanding human activities. They maintain that one can only understand the world by occupying the frame of reference of the participant in action. One has to understand from the inside rather than the outside, a view proposed earlier by Filstead (1972). From this point of view social science "is seen as being essentially a subjective rather than an objective enterprise" (Burrell & Morgan, 1979, p.5), an approach taken by earlier naturalistic researchers such as Whyte (1948).

Regarding human nature, Burrell & Morgan (1979 p.6) argue that the debate revolves around the issue of what model of man is reflected in any given social-scientific theory. At one extreme we can identify "a determinist view which regards man and his activities as being completely determined by the regulatory situation or environment in which he is located". This is the view of structural sociologists (Durkheim 1938; Parsons 1949; Blau 1970). At another extreme we can identify "the voluntarist view that man is completely autonomous and free willed" (Burrell & Morgan 1979, p.6).

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Concerning methodological issues, Burrell & Morgan (1979) present the contrast between the ideographic and nomothetic theory. In arguing (p.6) that "the ideographic approach to social science is based on the view that one can only understand the social world by obtaining first-hand knowledge of the subject under investigation" they come close to more recent writers (Schwandt 2000; Charmaz 2000).

Based on the comparison and discussion of the five basic paradigms of qualitative research (Guba & Lincoln, 1989; Guba, 1990; Lincoln & Guba, 2000; Heron, 1996; Heron & Reason, 1997) and in line with the research objectives, the research paradigm and strategy adopted for this research will be discussed in chapter four.

3.4 Research Design

As presented in chapter one, a research design is "a journey from the intensely philosophical through the procedural to the practical and on to the final step of the representational" (Whiteley 2002a, p.22). It is a plan for collecting and analyzing data in order to answer the research question (Holsti 1969). It includes "the overall approach to be taken and detailed information about how the study will be carried out, with whom and where" (Maykut & Morehouse 1994, p.64). It is a "planning for certain broad contingencies without, however, indicating exactly what will be done in relation to each" (Lincoln & Guba 1985, p.226). Patton asserts that:

> A qualitative design needs to remain sufficiently open and flexible to permit exploration of whatever the phenomenon under study offers for inquiry. Qualitative designs continue to be emergent even after data collection begins. [And that} the degree of flexibility and openness is, however, also a matter of great variation among designers (Patton 1990, p.196).

Lincoln & Guba (1985) propose ten elements of the naturalistic design and these were found to be very useful for this research. These elements are supposed to be broad bins or pigeonholes that will be filled out by the researcher as the inquiry progresses (Lincoln & Guba 1985). These elements include: determining a focus for the enquiry; determining fit of paradigm to focus; determining the fit of the enquiry paradigm to the substantive theory selected to guide the inquiry; determining where and from whom data will be collected; determining successive phases of the inquiry;

determining instrumentation; planning data collection and recording modes; planning data analysis procedures; planning the logistics; and planning for trustworthiness (Lincoln & Guba 1985). The trustworthiness (rigour) element was taken very seriously in this research and the steps taken to illustrate rigour are shown later. Eight characteristics of qualitative research that are important to be considered in designing a qualitative study were presented. These were in tune with Lincoln and Guba's characteristics and are presented here to show that although authors express characteristics differently, there is an agreed core of activities. Those include, from Maykut and Morehouse (1994) an exploratory and descriptive focus; emergent design; a purposive sample; data collection in the natural setting; emphasis on 'human-as-instrument'; qualitative methods of data collection; early and ongoing inductive data analysis. Based on these eight features and Lincoln and Guba (1985), they proposed a framework for designing and implementing a qualitative research study as displayed in Figure 3.3.

Figure 3.3: Characteristics of qualitative research


```
                    ┌─────────────────┐
                    │ Emergent design │
                    └─────────────────┘
                    ┌─────────────────┐
                    │ Focus of inquiry│
                    └─────────────────┘
     Indicates need                    Suggests
       to refine

┌──────────────┐   ┌──────────────┐   ┌──────────────┐
│Early and     │   │  Emphasis    │   │Purposive     │
│ongoing       │   │     on       │   │sample        │
│inductive data│   │human-as-     │   │              │
│analysis      │   │instrument    │   │              │
└──────────────┘   └──────────────┘   └──────────────┘

     Yield data for                Explored through

                ┌──────────────────┐
                │Qualitative methods│
                │of data collection │
                │in natural setting │
                └──────────────────┘
                ┌──────────────────┐
                │Research outcomes  │
                │presented using a  │
                │case study approach│
                └──────────────────┘
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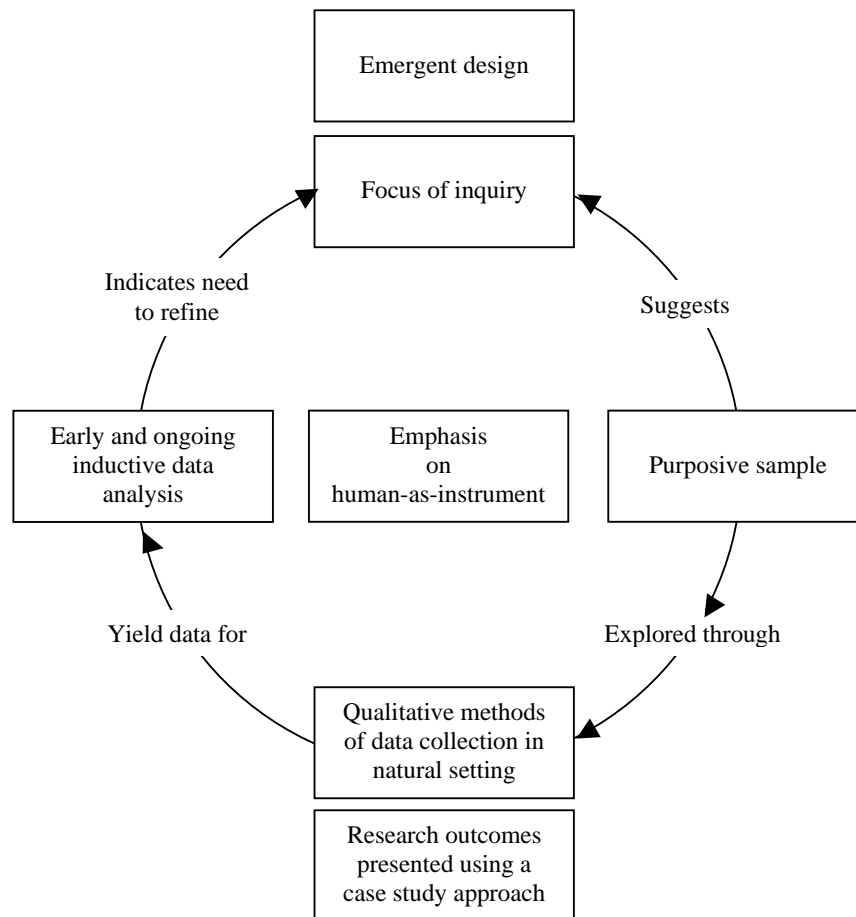
Source: Adapted from Maykut and Morehouse 1994, p.48.

3.5 Data Collection

This section discusses the various theories of data collection. The actual data collection activities come later in chapter four. The goal of qualitative research is to produce high quality, meaningful and relevant data, such that it is possible to emerge valuable insights within a social context (Whiteley 2002b, p.4). The quality of data collected and used depends on the methods used to collect such data. The researcher "should determine the most practical, efficient, feasible, and ethical methods for collecting data as the research progresses" (Marshall & Rossman 1999, p.138). This section presents the data collection process and its major activities.

3.5.1 Data Collection Process

According to Creswell, data collection can be visualized as "a series of interrelated activities aimed at gathering good information to answer emerging research questions" (Creswell 1998, p.110). According to Creswell (1998) a series of activities in the process of collecting data in qualitative research can be grouped into seven main headings. The first step of the process is to locate a site or an individual to study. This was done by identifying those key stakeholders who were related in an influential way to Thai industrial relations.

Gaining access to the site and individual(s) and establishing a rapport with them was the next step. In developing the framework within which respondents could and should be accessed, the research worked within the ethical edicts of Curtin University and also those from theorists such as (but not restricted to) these by Creswell (1998, pp.115-116). Respondents' right to voluntarily withdraw from the study at any time was made clear and was a guiding force in the study. The central purpose of the study and the procedures to be used in data collection were made clear to respondents in connection with the protection of their confidentiality. Possible expected benefits to accrue to the respondents were suggested (such as gaining more insight into industrial democracy from various points of view). Concerns such as these were taken into account during the planning for access.

Determining a strategy for the purposeful sampling of individuals was not too difficult in the sense that, as a beginning, those who appeared to be relevant were targeted with the provision that, if it happened, theoretical sampling would expand the sample. As this was a grounded theory study, the investigator chose participants based on their ability to contribute to an evolving theory and the process is called theoretical sampling (Creswell 1998).

The fourth step in the process was to collect data. The most common data collection approaches used in qualitative research are participation, observation, interview, and review of documents (Marshall & Rossman 1999). In this study, data was collected using documentation, interview and informal and experiential data collected during the preliminary data collection process.

The fifth step in the process of data collection was to record information obtained through the data collection methods used in the research. This process "involves recording information through various forms such as observational field-notes, interview write-ups, mapping, census taking, photographing, sound recording, and collecting and organizing documents" (Creswell 1998, p.128). Of those above, field notes, tape recorded interviews, mapping, accessing recorded documentation were used in this study.

The sixth step in the process of data collection was to resolve field issues. Several field issues were collected and discussed by Creswell (1998); some were pertinent to this study. Gaining access to the research site and making initial contact with persons in the field required the building of trust or credibility at the field site. This was a serious issue in this research, especially as the researcher was more compatible with sites populated by peers than those by, for example, employees. For the latter, the researcher went to great lengths to remember his own employee days, and for this respondent group he used a 'life-story' approach to preface interview questions. Writing down "jottings", incorporating "quotes" into field-notes and making sure that, in interviews, saying "little" was best, were all taken into account. The technical elements like having tapes that will work in the transcribing machine were constantly a concern, as was the efficient and convenient (for the respondents) scheduling of times. Attention was paid to locating and gaining permission to use documentary materials. The idea of an audit trail (Whiteley 2002b), necessitated many different recording methods ranging from handwritten notes to the use of memos.

The final step of the data collection process is storing data. All data collected was maintained in a lockable cabinet kept in the researcher's personal office for use in the total process of this research.

3.5.2 Data Collection Methods – The theory

Marshall and Rossman assert that "qualitative researchers typically rely on four methods for gathering information" (Marshall & Rossman 1999, p.105): participation in the setting; direct observation; in-depth interviewing; and analyzing documents and material culture (Marshall & Rossman 1999). These primary methods "form the core of qualitative inquiry - the staples of the diet" (Marshall & Rossman 1999,

p.105). Several secondary or specialized methods are also used to supplement them, for example: life histories and narrative inquiry; historical analysis; films, videos, and photographs; kinesics (the study of body motion and its accompanying messages); proxemics (the study of people's use of space and its relationship to the culture); unobtrusive measures; questionnaires and surveys; and projective techniques and psychological testing (Marshall & Rossman 1999). In order to choose appropriate data collection methods for implementing throughout this research, a review and discussion of the four primary methods will be made.

3.5.2.1 Participation

The participation method has been "developed primarily from the disciplines of cultural anthropology and qualitative sociology" (Marshall & Rossman 1999). This method is typically called participant observation (Marshall & Rossman 1999; Maykut & Morehouse 1994). To describe the nature of participant observation method Marshall and Rossman write the following:

> As its name suggests, participant observation demands firsthand involvement in the social world chosen for study. Immersion in the setting allows the researcher to hear, see, and begin to experience reality as the participants do. Ideally, the researcher spends a considerable amount of time in the setting, learning about daily life there. This immersion offers the researcher the opportunity to learn directly from his own experience of the setting. [And that] these personal reflections are integral to the emerging analysis of the cultural group of interest (Marshall & Rossman 1999, p.106).

Maykut & Morehouse (1994, p.72) assert that "participant observation, by definition, requires the researcher to be in the field or present in the natural setting where the phenomenon under study takes place". Gans (1999) distinguishes three types of roles of participant observer: the total participant, the field worker who is completely involved emotionally in a social situation and who only after it is over becomes a researcher again and writes down what has happened; the researcher-participant, who participates in a social situation but is not personally involved so that he can function as a researcher; the total researcher, who observes without any personal involvement in the situation under study. Gans then argues that:

> Participant-observation [researcher-participant] then is the taking of a formal participatory role in a social situation without the emotional

involvement that normally accompanies participation; it requires the surrender of any personal interest one might have in the situation in order to be free to observe it, and the people who are creating it (Gans 1999, p.42).

It is one of the methods for gathering observational data (Patton 1990). Patton argues that "the purpose of observational data is to describe the setting that was observed, the activities that took place in the setting, the people who participated in those activities, and the meaning of what was observed from the perspective of those observed" (Patton 1990, p.202). In practice "in the broadest sense, the participant observer asks the questions: What is happening here? What is important in the lives of people here? How would they describe their lives and what is the language they would use to do it?" (Maykut & Morehouse 1994, p.69). The participant observer "begins with a broad focus of inquiry and through the ongoing process of observing and participating in the setting, recording what she or he sees and hears and analysing the data, salient aspects of the setting emerge" (Maykut & Morehouse 1994, p.69). One of the outstanding benefits of this method is that "the participant observer can also discover things no one else has ever really paid attention to" (Patton 1990, p.204) and "there was simply no substitute for direct experience through participant observation" (Patton 1990, p.202).

Participant observation is "the method of data collection which draws most heavily upon various skills of the researcher" (Maykut & Morehouse 1994, p.69). The participation method when used with action research is called participatory action research (Kemmis & McTaggart 2000). Several different approaches to inquiry for which the term participatory action research is sometimes used, include industrial action research (Kemmis & McTaggart 2000). It is "typically consultant driven, with very strong advocacies for collaboration between social scientists and members of different levels of the organization" (Kemmis & McTaggart 2000, p.572). Kemmis and McTaggart explain the sites and settings of industrial action research as follows:

> Participants in industrial action research are typically shop-floor employees, middle managers, and professional consultants from outside the organization working in collaboration. The approach has been documented in a wide variety of industrial (and service) settings, and persuasive evidence of the broad positive effect of workplace

"democratization" using action research approaches is widespread (Kemmis & McTaggart 2000, p.572).

However, it was criticized that "industrial action research has not adequately engaged the problem of the hierarchies and goals of industrial settings" (Kemmis & McTaggart 2000, p.572). At the same time participation in the industrial action research "is too limited to the lower echelons of organizations, and thereby senior management, company directors, and shareholders are insulated from questions about basic organizational values and directions" (Kemmis & McTaggart 2000, p.572).

3.5.2.2 Observation

Marshall and Rossman assert that "observation is a fundamental and highly important method in all qualitative inquiry" (Marshall & Rossman 1999, p.107). "Even studies based on direct interviews employ observational techniques to note body language and other gesture cues that lend meaning to the words of the persons being interviewed" (Angrosino & Mays de Perez 2000, p.673; Marshall & Rossman 1999). The method is used to discover complex interactions in natural social settings (Marshall & Rossman 1999). Marshall and Rossman explain the characteristics of the observation method as follows:

> For studies relying exclusively on observation, the researcher makes no special effort to have a particular role; often, to be tolerated as an unobtrusive observer is enough. Classroom observational studies are one example often found in education. Through observation, the researcher documents and describes complex actions and interactions. Without other sources of information, however, the meaning of these actions can only be inferred. This method assumes that behavior is purposeful and expressive of deeper values and beliefs. Observation can range from highly structured, detailed notation of behavior guided by checklists to a more holistic description of events and behavior [of those being observed] (Marshall & Rossman 1999, p.107).

One of the most fundamental distinctions "that differentiates observational strategies concerns the extent to which the observer will be a participant in the setting being studied" (Patton 1990, p.206). According to Patton, "the extent of participation is a continuum that varies from complete immersion in the setting as full participant to complete separation from the setting as spectator" (Patton 1990, p.206). Patton further elaborates that:

In some cases the researcher may begin as an onlooker and gradually become a participant as the study progresses. In other cases the evaluator may begin as a complete participant in order to experience what it is like to be initially immersed in the program and then gradually withdraw participation over the period of the study until finally taking the role of occasional observer from the onlooker stance (Patton 1990, p.206).

Three major distinctions between the participant observation and observation methods can be identified as follows: participant observation requires the researcher to fully engage in experiencing the setting under study while at the same time trying to understand that setting through personal experience, observations and talking with other participants about what is happening, while in observation method the researcher enters the setting as an onlooker to make direct observation (Patton, 1990); "in participant observation the researcher shares as intimately as possible in the life and activities of the setting understudy" (Patton 1990, p.207), while "for studies relying exclusively on observation, the researcher makes no special effort to have a particular role" (Marshall & Rossman 1999, p.107); in participant observation the processes of observation are part of the processes of data collection through interviewing while in the observation method the researcher enters the program as an onlooker to make direct observations of program activities and the processes of observation are separate from the processes of data collection (Patton, 1990).

Creswell suggests that the procedure of being an outsider initially, followed by becoming an insider over time is preferable (Creswell, 1998). However, when the researcher's role has been changed from an observer to a complete participant, the method became participant observation (Patton, 1990).

3.5.2.3 Interviewing

Interviewing is "one of the most basic forms of data gathering" (Chadwick 1984, p.103). Fontana and Frey argue that "it seems that everyone, not just social researchers, relies on the interview as a source of information, with the assumption that interviewing results in true and accurate pictures of respondents' selves and lives" (Fontana & Frey 2000, p.646). Interviewing is now being used in several ways. In our daily lives, "one cannot escape being interviewed; interviews are everywhere, in the forms of political polls, questionnaires about doctor's visits, housing applications, forms regarding social service eligibility, college applications,

talk shows, news programs - the list goes on and on" (Fontana & Frey 2000, p.646). In our society nowadays, most young adults have had considerable experience with interviews of some kind such as when applying for a job, or reporting an incident to the police (Chadwick 1984). The 'interview society' is a universal phenomenon as its applications are similar all over the world. The interview "as applied in social science research may differ in format or objective from some of these other kinds of interviews, but many of the principles of conducting a successful interview are the same whether the context is a research project or a lawyer-client exchange" (Chadwick 1984, p.103).

The qualitative research interview is "a communicative action in which the principal focus is placed on eliciting feedback so that the message sent seeks to confirm its meaning to the receiver" (Whiteley et al. 1998, p.6). An interview is a "conversation with a purpose" (Berg 1998, p.57). The purposes for doing an interview, according to Lincoln and Guba include: obtaining here-and-now constructions of persons, events, activities, organizations, feelings, motivations, claims, concerns, and other entities; reconstructions of such entities as experienced in the past; projections of such entities as they are expected to be experienced in the future; verification, emendation, and extension of information (constructions, reconstructions, or projections) obtained from other sources, human and nonhuman (triangulation); and verification, emendation, and extension of constructions developed by the inquirer (member checking) (Lincoln & Guba 1985).

Interviews "include a wide variety of forms and a multiplicity of uses" (Fontana & Frey 2000, p.645). The most common form of interviewing involves individual, face-to-face verbal interchange and it can be structured, semi-structured, or unstructured (Fontana & Frey 2000). The structured interview is often referred to as a focused interview and unstructured interviews most resemble narrative and conversation.

For the purpose of qualitative research, "the shape that an interview may take has been described in various ways" (Maykut & Morehouse 1994, p.81). One of the major differences that exist among interviews is "the amount of structure that the researcher imposes on the respondent" (Chadwick 1984, p.104). Chadwick argues that "interviews range along a continuum from the highly structured interview

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schedule which permits no deviation to the largely unstructured, undirected exploratory interviews" (Chadwick 1984, p.104). According to Chadwick four characteristics of the nature of the highly structured interview can be identified. First, it will usually contain a series of very specific questions that are to be read to the respondent, along with a set of predetermined response categories. Second, the working form and order of the questions is designed to be exactly the same for all respondents. Third, the respondents simply select one of the answers provided and the interviewer records that response in the appropriate place on the interview schedule. Finally, few, if any, open-ended items or questions are used (Chadwick 1984). Chadwick further elaborates that "at the other end of the continuum is the exploratory interview, in which the interviewer is to explore a variety of pre-selected topics with the respondents but with little concern for asking specific questions in any pre-established format or sequence" (Chadwick 1984, p.104). The interviewer does not use a predetermined standard set of questions to ask all respondents or gives any attention to developing response categories for the subject as practiced in the highly structured interview (Chadwick 1984).

Chadwick argues that "between these two extremes are a variety of other ways of conducting interviews ..." (Chadwick 1984, p.104). Chadwick explains them as follows:

> Near the more structured pole of the continuum might be an interview that includes specific questions but asks them in a largely open-ended format. That is, questions but not response categories are predetermined. The respondents are all asked the same questions but are given their freedom in answering them in the manner they choose. The researcher then is faced with the responsibility of coding the responses into categories for analysis. Nearer the other pole is the situation where the researcher has some rather specific topics that are to be covered, and these are included in an interview guide. However, the exact manner in which the questions are asked and their sequence are determined in the course of the interview itself. The guide is used to make sure that all of the issues of concern receive attention during the course of the encounter but the interview itself remains unstructured (Chadwick 1984, p.104).

Patton (1990) offers three choices of approaches. The first approach is the informal conversational interview. This type of interview relies entirely on the spontaneous generation of questions in the natural flow of an interaction, typically an interview

that occurs as part of ongoing participant observation fieldwork. The second approach offered by Patton is the general interview guide approach. It involves outlining a set of issues that are to be explored with each respondent before interviewing begins. The third approach is the standardized open-ended interview. It consists of a set of questions carefully worded and arranged with the intention of taking each respondent through the same sequence and asking each respondent the same questions with essentially the same words (Patton 1990).

Berg (1998) also classifies the interview into three types. The first type is the standardized interview. This type of interview uses a formally structured schedule of interview questions. The interviewers are required to ask subjects to respond to each question. The second type is the un-standardized interview. In contrast to the rigidity of standardized interviews, un-standardized interviews do not utilize schedules of questions. The third type offered by Berg is the semi-standardized interview. It is located somewhere between the extremes of completely standardized and completely un-standardized interviewing structures. This type of interview involves the implementation of a number of predetermined questions and/or special topics. These questions are typically asked of each interviewee in a systematic and consistent order, but the interviewers are allowed freedom to digress; that is, the interviewers are permitted (in fact expected) to probe far beyond the answers to their prepared and standardized questions (Berg 1998).

In general qualitative interviews are "relatively loosely structured and open to what the interviewee feels is relevant and important to talk about, given the interest of the research project" (Alvesson 2003, p.13). Maykut and Morehouse (1994) provide three main formats for an interview: the unstructured interview, the interview guide, and the interview schedule. The unstructured interview is an informal conversation initiated and guided by the researcher while in the field (Maykut & Morehouse 1994). The purposeful conversation is not scripted in advance, but the researcher asks questions pertinent to the study as opportunities arise, then listens closely to people's responses for clues as to what question to ask next, or whether it is important to probe for additional information (Maykut & Morehouse 1994). An interview guide is "a list of questions or issues that are to be explored in the course of an interview" (Patton 1990, p.283), while "an interview format consisting of a

detailed set of questions and probes is called an interview schedule" (Maykut & Morehouse 1994, p.83).

In the structured interview, Lincoln & Guba assert that "the problem is defined by the researcher before the interview. The questions have been formulated ahead of time, and the respondent is expected to answer in terms of the interviewer's framework and definition of the problem" (Lincoln & Guba 1985 p.208). To put it another way, the structured interview is "the mode of choice when the interviewer knows what she or he does not know and can therefore frame appropriate questions to find it out" (Lincoln & Guba 1985, p.269).

A more highly structured format would also be selected "if the researcher desired to obtain the same basic set of information from all subjects and if a large sample of respondents was to be included in the study" (Chadwick 1984, p.105). In the structured interview the questions are "in the hands of the interviewer and the response rests with the interviewee" (Lincoln & Guba 1985, p.169). "The interviewer controls the pace of the interview by treating the questionnaire as if it were a theatrical script to be followed in a standardized and straightforward manner" (Fontana & Frey 2000, p.649). In the structured interview "there is very little flexibility in the way questions are asked or answered in the structured interview setting" (Fontana & Frey 2000, p.649). Normally an interview schedule consisting of a detailed set of questions and probes is used in the structured interview (Maykut & Morehouse 1994). The major weakness of this type of interview according to Patton (1990) is that there is "little flexibility in relating the interview to particular individuals and circumstances; standardized wording of questions may constrain and limit naturalness and relevance of questions and answers" (Patton 1990, p.289).

In an unstructured interview, "the format is non-standardized, and the interviewer does not seek normative responses. Rather, the problem of interest is expected to arise from the respondent's reaction to the broad issue raised by the inquirer" (Lincoln & Guba 1985, p.268). It can provide "a greater breadth of data than the other types, given its qualitative nature" (Fontana & Frey 2000, p.652). It does not utilize schedules of questions as in the structured interview. Interviewers begin with "the assumption that they do not know in advance what all the necessary questions

are. Consequently, they cannot predetermine fully a list of questions to ask (Berg 1998, p.61). Berg further argues that "they also assume that not all subjects will necessarily find equal meaning in like-word questions - in short, that subjects may process different vocabularies" (Berg 1998, p.61). The unstructured interview, according to Lincoln and Guba, is "the mode of choice when the interviewer does not know what he or she doesn't know and must therefore rely on the respondent to tell him or her" (Lincoln & Guba 1985, p.269). In addition, both questions and answers are provided by the respondent in the unstructured interview (Lincoln & Guba 1985). In the unstructured interview, Berg asserts that "interviewers must develop, adapt, and generate questions and follow-up probes appropriate to the given situation and the central purpose of the investigation" (Berg 1998, p.61). It is best suited for "exploratory studies and for studies in which detailed information might be needed on more complex and detailed issues" (Chadwick 1984, p.105).

Maykut and Morehouse assert that "whether unstructured interviews are conducted in the field or arranged, the contents of the interviews must be written down. [The] [i]nformal interviews in the field are reconstructed and entered into the researcher's field notes" (Maykut & Morehouse 1994, p.83). They further assert that "arranged interviews are frequently audio tape-recorded, and if tape-recording is not desirable or possible, the researcher may take some notes during the interview and then reconstruct the interview afterwards" (Maykut & Morehouse 1994, p.83). Some of the weaknesses of this type of interview include: different information collected from different people with different questions; less systematic and comprehensive if certain questions do not arise "naturally"; and data organization and analysis can be quite difficult (Patton 1990).

Each type of interview has its own strengths and weaknesses. The type of interview that the researcher chooses will be "determined by the particular research needs and the purposes of the research" (Chadwick 1984, p.105). In order to choose an appropriate type of interview to be used as an effective data collection method in this research, a comparison will be made among the three major qualitative interview types.

Patton argues that "the common characteristic of all three qualitative approaches to interviewing is that the persons being interviewed respond in their own words to express their own personal perspective (Patton 1990, p.287). He further argues that "while there are variations in strategy concerning the extent to which the wording and sequencing of questions ought to be predetermined, there is no variation in the principle that the response format should be opened-ended" (Patton 1990, pp.287-290). Based on Patton (1990) a comparative table of type of interview, characteristics, strengths and weaknesses of the major types of interview is presented in Table 3.7.

Table 3.7: Comparison of three types of qualitative interview

Variations in Interview Instrumentation			
Type of Interview	*Characteristics*	*Strengths*	*Weaknesses*
(1) Informal conversational interview	Questions emerge from the immediate context and are asked in the natural course of things; there is no predetermination of question topics or wording.	Increases the salience and relevance of questions; interviews are built on and emerge from observations; the interview can be matched to individuals and circumstances.	Different information collected from different people with different questions. Less systematic and comprehensive if certain questions do not arise "naturally." Data organization and analysis can be quite difficult.
(2) Interview guide approach	Topics and issues to be covered are specified in advance, in outline form; interviewer decides sequence and wording of questions in the course of the interview.	The outline increases the comprehensiveness of the data and makes data collection somewhat systematic for each respondent. Logical gaps in data can be anticipated and closed. Interviews remain fairly conversational and situational.	Important and salient topics may be inadvertently omitted. Interviewer flexibility in sequencing and wording questions can result in substantially different responses from different perspectives, thus reducing the comparability of responses.
(3) Standardized open-ended interview	The exact wording and sequence of questions are determined are asked the same basic questions in the same order. Questions are worded in a *completely*	Respondents answer the same questions, thus increasing some comparability of responses; data are complete for each person on the topics addressed in the	Little flexibility in relating the interview to particular individuals and circumstances; standardized wording of questions may

	open-ended format.	interview. Reduces interviewer effects and bias when several interviewers are used. Permits evaluation users to see and review the instrumentation used in the evaluation.	constrain and limit naturalness and relevance of questions and answers.
(4) Closed, fixed response interview	Questions and response categories are determined in advance. Responses are fixed; respondent chooses from among these fixed responses.	Data analysis is simple; responses can be directly compared and easily aggregated; many questions can be asked in a short time.	Respondents must fit their experiences and feelings into the researcher's categories; may be perceived as impersonal, irrelevant, and mechanistic. Can distort what respondents really mean or experienced

Source: Adapted from Patton 1990, pp. 288-289.

3.5.2.4 The Review of Documents

Hakim argues that "information from records and documents enters into virtually all types of study in some degree, though usually providing only a minor part of the data" (Hakim 2000, p.46). Researchers "supplement participant observation, interviewing, and observation with gathering and analyzing documents produced in the course of everyday events or constructed specifically for the research at hand" (Marshall & Rossman 1999, p.116). The review of documents is an unobtrusive measure in research (Berg 1998; Marshall & Rossman 1999). It is "rich in portraying the values and beliefs of participants in the setting" (Marshall & Rossman 1999, p.116). Hitchcock and Hughes describe the nature of documents as follows:

> Documents are mainly written texts which relate to some aspect of the social world. Such written texts or documents range from official documents to private and personal records, such as diaries, letters and photographs, which may have been intended for the public gaze. Documents may be distinguished in terms of their accessibility. Documents will range from those which are readily accessible, usually public records, to private documents which have little or no formal means of access (Hitchcock & Hughes 1995), p.212).

Hodder (2000, p.703) describes the distinctions between documents and records as follows:

Thus records include marriage certificates, driving licenses, building contracts, and banking statements. Documents on the other hand, are prepared for personal rather than official reasons and include diaries, memos, letters, field notes, and so on. In fact, the two terms are often used interchangeably, although the distinction is an important one and has some parallels with the distinction between writing and speech… Documents, closer to speech, require more contextualized interpretation. Records, on the other hand, may have local uses that become very distant from officially sanctioned meanings…

Marshall and Rossman (1999, p.116) argue that "archival data are the routinely gathered records of a society, community, or organization, and may further supplement other qualitative methods". They further assert that:

As with other methodological decisions, the decision to gather and analyze documents or archival records should be linked to the research questions developed in the conceptual framework for the study. Furthermore, documents must be viewed with the skepticism that historians apply as they search for 'truth' in old texts (p.117).

3.6 Data Management

Huberman and Miles define data management as "the operation needed for a systematic, coherent process of data storage and retrieval" (Huberman & Miles 1998, p.180). They further assert that these operations are aiming at ensuring high-quality, accessible data; the documentation of just what analyses have been carried out; and the retention of data and associated analyses after the study is completed (Huberman & Miles 1998).

Marshall & Rossman, noted that "over the years, researchers have developed a variety of data management strategies ranging from color and number coding on index cards to computer programs; these techniques are often shared as part of the 'folklore of fieldwork'" (Marshall & Rossman 1999, p.150). Creswell believes that "with the advent of the use of computers in qualitative research, more attention will likely be given to how qualitative data are organized and stored, whether the data are field notes, transcripts, or rough jottings" (Creswell 1998, p.133). Huberman & Miles further elaborate on the procedure of dada management as follows:

Normally, the immediately collected information is not immediately available for analysis, but requires some processing; raw field notes can be indecipherable scribbles to anyone but the researcher, and must be

corrected, extended, edited, and typed up. Audiotapes need to be transcribed, corrected, [and] edited … (Huberman & Miles 1998, p.183).

They further elaborate that:

> A good storage and retrieval system is critical for keeping track of what data are available; for permitting easy, flexible, reliable use of data - often by several members of a research team - at different points in time over a project's life; and for documenting the analyses made so that the study can, in principle, be verified or replicated (Huberman & Miles 1998, p.183).

In order to be effective in data management Huberman & Miles (1998) propose a checklist of what information needs to be stored, retrieved, and, usually retained for a number of years for a qualitative study. Their checklist included the following items: raw material: field notes, tapes, site documents; partially processed data: write-ups, transcriptions. Ideally, these should appear in their initial version, and in subsequent corrected, "clean," "commented-on" versions. Write-ups may profitably include marginal or reflective remarks made by the researcher during or after data collection; coded data: write-ups with specific code attached; the coding scheme or thesaurus, in its successive iterations; memo or other analytic material: the researcher's reflections on the conceptual meaning of the data; search and retrieval records: information showing which coded chunks or data segments the researcher looked for during analysis, and the retrieved material: records of links made among segments; data displays: matrices, charts, or networks used to display retrieved information in a more compressed, organized form, along with the associated analytic text. Typically, there are several revised versions of these; analysis episodes: documentation of what the researcher did, step by step, to assemble the displays and write the analytic text; report text; successive drafts of what is written on the design, methods, and findings of the study; general chronological log or documentation of data collection and analysis work; and finally index of all the above material (Huberman & Miles 1998).

Creswell (1998) suggests some principles about data storage and handling that are especially well suited for qualitative research. First, backup copies of computer files should always be developed and maintained by the researcher. Second, the researcher should use high quality tapes for audio-recording information during interviews. Also, there is the need to make sure that the size of the tapes fits the transcriber's

machine. Third the researcher should develop a master list of types of information gathered; protect the anonymity of participants by masking their names in the data. Fifth the researcher should convert word processing files over to ASCII files for easy entry into some qualitative computer programmes. Finally, he suggests that the researcher should develop a data collection matrix as a visual means of locating and identifying information for a study.

3.7 Rigour or Trustworthiness

Lincoln & Guba (1985) argue that the basic issue in relation to trustworthiness involves the answers to the questions: How can an inquirer persuade his or her audiences (including self) that the findings of an inquiry are worth paying attention to, worth taking account of? What arguments can be mounted, what criteria invoked, what questions asked, that would be persuasive on this issue? Silverman emphasizes that "unless you can show your audience the procedures you used to ensure that your methods were reliable and your conclusions valid, there is little point in aiming to conclude a research dissertation" (Silverman 2000b, p.175). This section describes the theory of criterion for trustworthiness of qualitative research.

3.7.1 Criteria for Trustworthiness

Strauss and Corbin argue that: "A qualitative study can be evaluated accurately only if its procedures are sufficiently explicit so that readers of the resulting publication can assess their appropriateness" (Strauss & Corbin 1990, p. 249). They further argue that "the scientific canons (research standards) that the researcher has assumed should be appropriate to the study" (Strauss & Corbin 1990, p.249). Marshall and Rossman assert that "all research must respond to canons of quality-criteria against which the trustworthiness of the project can be evaluated" (Marshall & Rossman 1999, p.191). The basic issues in relation to trustworthiness according to Lincoln and Guba (1985) include: How can an inquirer persuade his or her audiences (including self) that the findings of an inquiry are worth paying attention to, worth taking account of? and What arguments can be mounted, what criteria invoked, what questions asked, that would be persuasive on this issue?

To answer these questions Lincoln and Guba (1985) propose four alternative constructs of trustworthiness criteria that more accurately reflect the assumptions of

the qualitative paradigm (Marshall & Rossman 1999; Buoy 2002). They are: credibility: The objective of this criterion is to demonstrate that the inquiry was conducted in such a manner as to ensure that the subject was accurately identified and described. It involves the matching of stakeholders' realities with the realities presented by the researcher as attributed to stakeholder; transferability: The researcher must argue that this finding will be useful to others in similar situations, with similar research questions or questions of practice. It is the provision of a clear framework in order to facilitate transferability of judgments on the part of those who may wish to apply the study to their own situation; dependability: The researcher attempts to account for changing conditions in the phenomenon chosen for study and change in the design created by an increasingly refined understanding of the setting. It involves the documentation of the logic of process and method decisions; and confirmability: This is to capture the traditional concept of objectivity. There is a need for asking whether the findings of the study could be confirmed by another. It concerns the ability to track data sources and make use of such data (Lincoln & Guba 1985; Marshall & Rossman 1999; Buoy 2002).

3.7.2 Trustworthiness of Data

Lincoln and Guba (1985) propose four major criteria for establishment of qualitative research data trustworthiness: credibility; transferability; dependability; and confirmability. A discussion on the techniques used to achieve each of the criteria follows.

3.7.2.1 Credibility

Lincoln and Guba (1985) propose five major techniques for the establishment of the credibility for qualitative research data trustworthiness: activities to ensure that credible findings and interpretations will be produced. These activities include prolonged engagement, persistent observation; triangulation and an activity to provide an external check on the inquiry process. This activity is called "peer-debriefing"; an activity aimed at refining working hypotheses as more and more information becomes available. This activity is called "negative case analysis"; an activity that makes possible checking preliminary findings and interpretations against archived "raw data". This activity is called "referential adequacy"; and an activity providing for the direct test of findings and interpretations with the human resources

from which they have come - the constructors of the multiple realities being studied. This activity is called "member checking".

3.7.2.2 Transferability

Guba and Lincoln (1989, p.241) argue that transferability may be thought of as "parallel to external validity of generalization". To ensure the transferability of qualitative research it is essential for the researcher to argue that this finding will be useful to others in similar situations, with similar research questions or questions of practice (Marshall & Rossman 1999). However, according to Lincoln and Guba (1985), the naturalist cannot "specify the external validity of an inquiry; he or she can provide only the thick description necessary to enable someone interested in making a transfer to reach a conclusion about whether transfer can be contemplated as a possibility" (Lincoln & Guba 1985, p.316). They further contend that the naturalist inquirer is "also responsible for providing the widest possible range of information for inclusion in the thick description; for that reason (among others) he or she will wish to engage in purposeful sampling …" (Lincoln & Guba 1985, p.316). Thus, the burden of demonstrating the applicability of one set of findings to another context rests with the researcher who would make that transfer rather than with the original researcher (Marshall & Rossman 1999; Lincoln & Guba 1985).

3.7.2.3 Dependability

Dependability checking is, say Guba and Lincoln (1989), parallel to the conventional criterion of reliability, as it is concerned with the stability of the data over time. It needs to be pointed out that the idea of introducing 'parallel' dimensions that resembled those used in positivist work was discontinued in the later work of the authors (see Denzin and Lincoln 2000). However, it is useful in this chapter to follow through developing theories especially within qualitative research. Marshall & Rossman (1999, p.194) present a more dynamic and iterative view of dependability "the researcher attempts to account for changing conditions in the phenomenon chosen for study and change in the design created by an increasingly refined understanding of the setting". All writers would support the idea that dependability is very different from the positivist notions of reliability where a study "could, quite logically, be replicated" (Marshall & Rossman 1999, p.194).

3.7.2.4 Confirmability

Guba and Lincoln (1989, p.243) argue, again comparing dimensions with scientifically-oriented studies, that confirmability may be thought of as parallel to the conventional criterion of objectivity. Lincoln and Guba (1985) argue that the major technique for establishing confirmability is the confirmability audit. The techniques of establishing dependability as discussed earlier can also be the process for creating confirmabilty of qualitative research (Lincoln & Guba 1985). Confirmability can also be achieved by maintaining a field journal or a research diary (Lincoln & Guba 1985). Although the views of the two authors, Lincoln and Guba, have changed, it is still very useful to see the thinking that sought to elevate in some way, constructivist, interpretive research with its positivist, empirical counterpart. In particular, the researcher is reminded of the need to justify decisions made in the study and also to engage in activities that inspire confidence in the reader.

In addition to the four criteria discussed above there are also other set of criteria proposed and discussed. For further discussion of other criteria see (Strauss 1987; Eisenhart & Howe 1992; Kvale 1996; Smith 1990a; Marshall 1990; Lincoln 1995; Lincoln & Guba 2000). Criteria for theory choice and its problems are discussed in (Kuhn 1977).

3.7.3 Achieving Trustworthiness

As discussed above several techniques may be applied to achieve the four major criteria for trustworthiness. The four major practical techniques include audit trails, familiarization study, triangulation, and authenticity check. A discussion of each technique follows.

3.7.3.1 Audit Trail

According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), the audit trail may be the single most important trustworthiness technique available to the naturalist researcher. Based on the work of Halpern (1983, cited in Lincoln & Guba 1985), they assert that the major useful residues of this study are: "(1) a specification of the items that should be introduced in the audit trail - the trail of materials assembled for the use of the auditor, metaphorically analogous to fiscal accounts; and (2) an algorithm for the audit process itself" (Lincoln & Guba 1985, p.319).

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Maintaining a field journal or research diary is a technique that has broad-ranging application to all four areas: credibility; transferability; dependability; and confirmability (Lincoln & Guba 1985). It provides "a base for a number of judgment calls the auditor must make, for example, the extent to which the inquirer's biases influenced the outcomes" (Lincoln & Guba 1985, p.327). The technique is the reflexive journal, a kind of diary in which the investigator on a daily basis, or as needed, records a variety of information about self and method (Lincoln & Guba 1985). This is "a personal log - a kind of diary …" (Lincoln & Guba 1985, p.281) maintained by the researcher. Similarly, Silverman (2000b) noted that keeping good records, including a research diary, helps to make the researcher's reasoning transparent - to the researcher him/herself as well as to the readers. The diary should include several different kinds of entries such as: reflexive and introspective notations about the state of one's mind in relation to what is happening in the field (developing constructions, commentary on the perceived influence of one's own biases, expectations about what will happen next, and the like); a record of hypotheses and questions that will be useful to follow up and/or to discuss with one's fellow inquirers; and a cathartic section in which one can vent one's frustrations and anxieties (Lincoln & Guba 1985).

3.7.3.2 Familiarization Study

Whiteley and Whiteley (2005) assert that familiarization study is a critical component to the success of subsequent fieldwork of research applying social interaction principles. In their recent work on "The Familiarization Study in Qualitative Research: From Theory to Practice" (Whiteley & Whiteley 2005) they describe two types of familiarization study. The first type is termed 'immersion by osmosis'. An example of this type of study is described in detail in Whiteley and McCabe (2001) and Whiteley and Whiteley (2004). In this study the researchers visited the waterfront, the research site, several times. This was to let the atmosphere, informal customs and practices seep in to the researchers' consciousness (Whiteley & Whiteley 2005). The second type of familiarization is "a more planned type of familiarization. It is directed by the needs of the data collection methods, the profile of the researcher versus those of the respondents and the needs dictated by those theoretical perspectives directly used in the study"(Whiteley & Whiteley 2005, p.10).

3.7.3.3 Triangulation

The term triangulation is "taken from land surveying" (Patton 1990, p.187). Patton (1990) offers four basic kinds of triangulation that contribute to 'verification' and 'validation' of qualitative analysis (notwithstanding the researcher's earlier comments about adopting positivist nomenclature). The first type of triangulation is methods triangulation. This is to check out the consistency of findings generated by different data-collection methods. The second type is triangulation of sources. This is done by checking out the consistency of different data sources within the same methods. The third type is analyst triangulation. This is done by using multiple analysts to review findings. The final type is theory/perspective triangulation. It means using multiple perspectives or theories to interpret the data. A fifth type is often mentioned by writers and that is investigator triangulation where a research team collects field data.

The technique of triangulation is one of the modes "of improving the probability that findings and interpretations will be found credible" (Lincoln & Guba 1985, p.305). Patton believes that "one important way to strengthen a study design is through [method] triangulation or the combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomena or programmes" (Patton 1990, p.187; Lincoln & Guba 1985). Lincoln and Guba assert that:

> As a study unfolds and particular pieces of information come to light, steps should be taken to validate each against at least one other source (for example, a second interview) and/or a second method (for example, an observation in addition to an interview). No single item of information (unless coming from an elite and unimpeachable source) should be given serious consideration unless it can be triangulated (Lincoln & Guba 1985, p. 283).

3.7.3.4 Authenticity

Whiteley (2002b) asserts that "being authentic within data collection means being as true as possible to the respondent's voice" (Whiteley 2002, p.20). Authenticity was articulated by Lincoln and Guba (Lincoln & Guba 1986; Guba & Lincoln 1989). It was further discussed by Lincoln in Lincoln (1995). They developed it in response to a challenge by Smith regarding the veracity of qualitative research (Lincoln & Guba 2000; Guba & Lincoln 1989; Smith 1990a; Smith 2000). There are five criteria

named by Lincoln and Guba (2000). Guba & Lincoln (1989) listed them as fairness, ontological authenticity, educative authenticity, catalytic authenticity, and tactical authenticity.

Fairness was thought to be "a quality of balance; that is, all stakeholder views, perspectives, claims, concerns, and voices should be apparent in the text" (Lincoln & Guba 2000, p.180). Ontological and educative authenticity "were designated as criteria for determining a raised level of awareness, in the first instance, by individual research participants and, in the second, by individuals about those who surround them or with whom they come into contact for some social or organizational purpose"(Lincoln & Guba 2000, p.180). Catalytic and tactical authenticities refer to "the ability of a given inquiry to prompt, first, action on the part of research participants, and second, the environment of the researcher/evaluator in training participants in specific forms of social and political action if participants desire such training"(Lincoln & Guba 2000).

Authenticity checks are required to claim rigour in qualitative research (Whiteley 2002b). It is critical in the process of the data collection and data management including the analysis of data in qualitative research especially if the research is heavily reliant on interviewing techniques for data collection.

3.8 Ethical Issues

Marshall and Rossmann assert that "the qualities that make a successful qualitative researcher are revealed through an exquisite sensitivity to the ethical issues present when we engage in any moral act" (Marshall & Rossman 1999, p.90). According to Carroll "ethics basically refers to issues of right, wrong, fairness, and justice …" (Carroll 1993, p.22). Ethics, according to Hitchcock & Hughes refers to "questions of values, that is, of beliefs, judgments, and personal viewpoints" (Hitchcock & Hughes 1995, p.44) and to them, ethics in research is a question of responsibility. The responsibilities they refer to include:

> The responsibilities relate to the individual researcher, the participants in the research, professional colleagues and the teaching community and toward the sponsors of the research. In this sense, the ethics of research concern the criteria which, on being met, enable the researcher to do right

and correct and which facilitate the adequate discharge of the kinds of responsibilities outlined above (Hitchcock & Hughes 1995, p.44).

Ethical considerations according to Marshall and Rossman are "generic-informed consent and protecting participants' anonymity - as well as situation specific" (Marshall & Rossman 1999, p.90). Berg writes the following:

> Social scientists, perhaps to greater extent than the average citizen have an ethical obligation to their colleagues, their study population, and the larger society. The reason for this is that social scientists delve into the social lives of other human beings. From such excursions into private social lives, various policies, practices, and even laws may result. Thus, [all] researchers must ensure the rights, privacy, and welfare of the people and communities that form the focus of their studies (Berg 1998, p.31).

Berg further argues that "during the past several decades, changing social attitudes about research as well as changing legislation have led professional associations to create codes of ethical conduct" (Berg 1998, p.44). In addition "as a condition of funding, government agencies in various countries have insisted that review and monitoring bodies be established by institutions engaged in research involving human subjects" (Christians 2000, p.140). Finally, Whiteley (2002b, p.26) asserts that "ethical behaviour is at the heart of all research. One of the biggest challenges is the fact that a large part of ethics is undetectable. The researcher's own integrity is the arbitrator of ethical behaviour, especially as field work is transitory and elusive". It involves the decision making and responsibility including the social and moral obligations of the researcher (Smith 1990b; House 1990; Punch 1998).

3.8.1 Codes of Ethics

In order to prevent and resolve various ethical issues each of the major scholarly associations had "adopted its own code, with an overlapping emphasis on four guidelines for directing an inductive science of means toward majoritarian ends" (Christians 2000, p.138). The discussion of the four guidelines and the compliance of the codes of ethics follow.

3.8.1.1 Informed Consent

The first item of the code is informed consent (Christians 2000). Informed consent means "the knowing consent of individuals to participate as an exercise of their

choice, free from any element of fraud, deceit, duress or similar unfair inducement or manipulation" (Berg 1998, p.47). It based on the principle that "research subjects have the right to be informed about the nature and consequences of experiments in which they are involved" (Christians 2000, p.138). Two necessary conditions must be met in order to properly respect human freedom: subjects must agree voluntarily to participate without physical or psychological coercion; their agreement must be based on full and open information (Christians 2000).

Berg argues that "among the most serious ethical concerns that received attention during the past two decades is the insurance that subjects are voluntarily involved and informed of all potential risks" (Berg 1998, p.44). Berg further asserts that "in most institutionally sponsored research, consent must be ensured in writing" (Berg 1998), p.47). However, in certain types of researches verbal consent or implied consent may be utilized (Berg 1998). Implied consent is indicated by the subject taking the time to complete the lengthy questionnaire (Berg 1998) or other similar indications. Berg further argues that:

> A similar kind of implied consent can replace a signed consent slip when researchers conduct tape-recorded in-depth interviews. In this instance, the interviewers fully explain the nature of the project and the potential risks and benefits at the beginning of each interview. Next, the interviewer asked the subjects if they understand the information and are still willing to take part in the interview. Affirmative responses and completed interviews serve the purpose of implying consent in the absence of assigned consent slip. The benefit of this particular style of informed consent is the elimination of any record of the subjects' names … (Berg 1998, p.48).

According to Berg (1998), the concept of voluntary participation in social science research is an important ideal and no hard and fast answers exist for resolving the dilemma of voluntary participation. Berg further suggests that in applying this concept researchers must "balance how voluntary subject' participation will be against their perceptions of personal integrity; their responsibilities to themselves, their profession, and their discipline; and the ultimate effects for their subjects" (Berg 1998, p.46).

3.8.1.2 Deception

The second item of the code is deception (Christians 2000). Christians affirmed that "in emphasizing informed consent, social science codes of ethics uniformly oppose deception" (Christians 2000, p.139). Christians argues that "even paternalistic arguments for possible deception of criminals, children in elementary schools, or the mentally incapacitated are no longer credible" (Christians 2000, p.139). Creswell (1998) argues that in order to gain support from participants a qualitative researcher explains to participants the purpose of the study and does not engage in deception about the nature of the study.

However, it was argued that "within both psychology and medicine some information cannot be obtained without at least deception by omission" (Christians 2000, p.140). Christians elaborates that "the standard resolution for this dilemma is to permit a modicum of deception when there are explicit utilitarian reasons for doing so" (Christians 2000, p.139).

3.8.1.3 Privacy and confidentiality

The third item of the code is privacy and confidentiality (Christians 2000). Christians asserts that "codes of ethics insist on safeguards to protect people's identities and those of the research locations" (Christians 2000, p.139). Thus, it is essential that "confidentiality must be assured as the primary safeguard against unwanted exposure. [And that] all personal data ought to be secured or concealed and made public only behind a shield of anonymity" (Christians 2000, p.139).

Berg points out that "although confidentiality and anonymity are sometimes mistakenly used as synonyms, they have quite distinct meanings" (Berg 1998, p.48). Berg differentiates between the two terms on the basis that "confidentiality is an active attempt to remove from the research records any elements that might indicate the subject's identities. [And that] in a literal sense, anonymity means that the subjects remain nameless" (Berg 1998, p.48). However, in most qualitative research, "because subjects are known to the investigator (even if only by sight and street name), anonymity is virtually nonexistent" (Berg 1998, p.48). Thus, Berg confirmed that, it "is important to provide subject with a high degree of confidentiality" (Berg 1998, p.48). At the same time "professional etiquette uniformly concurs that no one

deserves harm or embarrassment as a result of insensitive research practices" (Christians 2000, p.139).

3.8.1.4 Accuracy

The fourth and final point in the code is accuracy (Christians 2000). Ensuring that data are accurate according to Christians is "a cardinal principle in social science code as well" (Christians 2000, p.140). Christians argues that "fabrications, fraudulent materials, omissions, and contrivances are both nonscientific and unethical. [And that] data that are internally and externally valid are the coin of the realm, experimentally and morally" (Christians 2000, p.140).

3.8.1.5 Reciprocity and Ethics

Marshall and Rossman argue that "roles, reciprocity, and ethical issues must be thought through carefully in all settings but most particularly in sensitive and taboo areas" (Marshall & Rossman 1999, p.90). They assert that "if the researcher will require people to change their routines or donate their time, it must be voluntary" (Marshall & Rossman 1999, p.90). However, the difficult part is that "what is routine and acceptable in one setting may be harmful in another; what is volunteered in one may be withheld in another" (Marshall & Rossman 1999, pp.90-91). Berg has noted that "by carefully considering possible harm to subjects in advance, researchers can sometimes avoid personal embarrassment and breaches of confidentiality" (Berg 1998, p.53). Marshall and Rossman contend that "the researcher cannot anticipate everything, but she or he must reveal an awareness of, and an appreciation for and commitment to, ethical principles for research" (Marshall & Rossman 1999, p.91).

They further elaborate that "people may be giving their time to be interviewed or to help the researcher understand group norms; the researcher should plan to reciprocate" (Marshall & Rossman 1999, p.91). On the reciprocity, they write the following:

> When people adjust their priorities and routines to help the researcher, or even just tolerate the researcher's presence, they are giving of themselves. The researcher is indebted and should be sensitive to this. Reciprocity may entail giving time to help out, providing informal feedback, making coffee, being a good listener, or tutoring. Of course, reciprocity should fit within the constraints of [the] research and personal

ethics and within the constraints of maintaining one's role as a researcher role (Marshall & Rossman 1999, p.90).

3.9 Conclusion

The objective of this chapter was to present a description of the theories related to qualitative research methodology. These theories will then form the basis for choosing the most appropriate theories to use for guiding this research. The chapter began with the introduction of the chapter. The description of research methodology began with the philosophical foundation providing the basis for conducting qualitative research. Several paradigms were reviewed and discussed.

The chapter then described the research design beginning with the discussion of data collection processes including theoretical sampling procedures. The chapter then described data management including data processing, data storage, retrieval and retention. Rigour or trustworthiness of the research was then described and followed by ethical issues which include the code of ethics and the reciprocity and research.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The objective of this chapter is to present the methodological framework used to guide the conduct of this research. The chapter introduces the research objectives and describes research methodology, which include research paradigm, research strategy, research design, data collection, data collection method: in-depth interview, data management, data analysis, rigour criteria, and ethical protocol.

4.1 Research Objectives

      4.1.1 To identify knowledge of industrial democracy in Thailand as perceived by selected stakeholders.

      4.1.2 To investigate the similarities and differences in stakeholder perceptions of industrial democracy.

      4.1.3 To compare the similarities and differences in stakeholder perceptions of industrial democracy.

      4.1.4 To identify problems and difficulties encountered from the practicing of industrial democracy within Thai business organizations.

      4.1.5 To emerge best practice in industrial democracy as expressed by the stakeholders.

4.2 Research Paradigm

This section presents the rationales and arguments for the research paradigm chosen for this research. As discussed in chapter three, in qualitative research, a philosophical framework is particularly important for both the researcher and the respondent. Philosophy can also be thought of in terms of paradigms. It is important, as stated by (Lincoln & Guba 1985, p.15), that "our actions in the world, including actions that we take as inquirers, cannot occur without reference to those paradigms. It is also important that "each person develop a personal belief system about which paradigm or blend of paradigms will guide his or her practice" (Swanson & Holton III 2001, pp.127-128). It is essential to understand and choose an appropriate paradigm or blend of paradigms for a research project, as they may lead to different approaches to solving problems and to different research questions and methodologies (Swanson & Holton III 2001). A paradigm is defined by Kuhn (1996, p.10) as a "coherent tradition of scientific research". As discussed in chapter three a

paradigm can also be defined as "the net that contains the researcher's epistemological, ontological, and methodological premises may be termed a paradigm[s], or an interpretive framework" (Denzin & Lincoln 2000, p.19).

Two sets of major paradigms were discussed in chapter three. The first group of major basic paradigms include: positivism, postpositivism, critical theory, constructivism (Guba 1990; Guba & Lincoln 1989) and participatory action research (Lincoln & Guba 2000; Heron 1996; Heron & Reason 1997). The second group is the sociological perspective group invented by Burrell and Morgan (1979). These paradigms are: the Functionalist Paradigm, the Interpretive Paradigm, the Radical Humanist Paradigm, and the Radical Structuralist Paradigm (Burrell & Morgan 1979).

4.2.1 Paradigm Choice: Constructivism

Based on the comparison and discussion of the five basic paradigms of qualitative research (Guba & Lincoln 1989; Guba 1990; Lincoln & Guba 2000; Heron 1996; Heron & Reason 1997) and in line with the research objectives, the constructivist paradigm was selected as a framework for this research. An enquiry framework for this research was established as shown in Table 4.1. In addition, the interpretive paradigm as presented by Burrell and Morgan (1979) will also be used to guide this research.

Table 4.1: Paradigm choice assumptions

Ontology	**Relativist** Constructivist paradigm assumes a relativist ontology (there are multiple realities) (Creswell 1998). The constructivist paradigm holds that 'reality' is constructed by human beings and it is about the understanding and interpretation of 'the life world' (Lincoln & Guba 2000). This research is to focus on the knowledge and perceptions of stakeholders of the Thai industrial relations system related to industrial democracy in practice in Thailand. The ontological assumption is therefore aligned on the basis of realities being constructed by the stakeholders being investigated. These realities are not objective but subjective and that multiple realities exist.
Epistemology	**Subjectivist** Epistemological questions are about the question of "knowing and the nature of knowledge" (Hitchcock & Hughes 1995, p.19). The epistemological assumption is about "the relationship of the researcher to that being researched" (Creswell 1998, p.76). It is about the fact that "researchers interact with those they study, whether this interaction assumes the form of living with or observing informants over a prolonged period of time or actual collaboration" (Creswell 1998, p.76). This research required the researcher to interact with the stakeholders in the Thai industrial relations system related to their knowledge and perception about industrial democracy in practice in Thailand. The epistemology of this research will be subjectivist: "knower and respondent co-create understandings" (Denzin & Lincoln 2000, p.21).
Methodology	**Qualitative** Research questions posed in this research seek to understand the stakeholders' perspectives and to seek the meaning of such perspectives. To gain the understanding and the meaning of such perspectives it is essential that the researcher must actively interact with the stakeholders throughout the process of the research. Thus the qualitative method is needed in order to focus on the process of the language and action through prevailing inductive logic (Schwandt 1994; Creswell 1998). The qualitative methodological decision for this research was therefore based on the assumptions of the constructivist ontology and subjectivist epistemology.

4.3 Research Strategy

This section presents the rationales and arguments for the strategy chosen for this research. Choosing the right strategy for qualitative research is one of the most important decisions in conducting any research as "a strategy is a framework for action. A strategy provides basic direction. It permits seemingly isolated tasks and activities to fit together; it moves separate efforts toward a common, integrated purpose" (Patton 1990, p.36). The research strategy selected "provides guidance in

selecting particular techniques or methodological practices for specific settings. [And that] method decisions represent strategic choice" (Patton 1990, p.36).

Creswell (1998), in his book "Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design: Choosing Among Five Traditions" suggests five major basic strategies that can be applied in qualitative research. The first strategy is a biographical study which is the study of an individual and his or her experiences "as told to the researcher or found in documents and archival material" (Creswell 1998, p.47). The second strategy is a phenomenological study where it describes "the meaning of the lived experiences for several individuals about a concept or the phenomenon" (Creswell 1998, p.51). It differs from a biography in that a biography reports the life of a single individual (Creswell 1998). The third strategy is grounded theory where he comments that "although a phenomenological study emphasizes the meaning of an experience for a number of individuals, the intent of "a grounded theory study is to generate or discover a theory, and abstract analytical schema of a phenomenon, that relates to a particular situation" (Creswell 1998, pp.55-56). Glaser and Strauss first articulated grounded theory research in 1967 and later elaborated on it through subsequent books (Glaser & Strauss 1967; Glaser 1978; Strauss 1987; Strauss & Corbin 1990). The fourth strategy is an ethnographical study which is "a description and interpretation of a cultural or social group or system" (Creswell 1998, p.58). The final strategy suggests by Creswell is a case study. It is "an exploration of a 'bounded system' or a case (or multiple cases) over time through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information rich in context" (Creswell 1998, p.61). In addition to these five major strategies, symbolic interactionism (Burrell & Morgan 1979; Blumer 1969; Woods 1992) is added as the sixth strategy. According to Woods, symbolic interactionism typically "deals with small-scale, everyday life, seeking to understand processes, relationships, group life, motivations, adaptations …" (Woods 1992, p.635).

Woods (1992) argues that "one of the main approaches in qualitative research among sociologists today is that of symbolic interactionism, deriving from the Chicago School of the 1920s and 1930s" (Woods 1992, p.338).

According to Blumer (1996) the three central principles of symbolic interactionism include: human beings act toward things on the basis of the meanings that the things have for them; this attribution of meaning to objects through symbols is a continuous process, and; meaning attribution is a product of social interaction in human society.

"At its heart was a model of person as a constructor, creator, or coper, continually interacting with the world, adjusting means to ends, and sometime ends to means, both influencing and being influenced by structures. As action builds up among groups of people, so cultures develop; however, like the person, these are processes continually under change and construction and with which the person has a loose, dialectical relationship" (Woods 1992, p.338).

4.3.1 Strategy Choice: Grounded Theory

Based on the research objectives and collective views of qualitative theorists (Lincoln & Guba 2000; Creswell 1998) and the principles of the constructivist paradigm, a relativist ontology, and subjectivist epistemology were adopted for this research. Within this framework a grounded theory approach was taken (Glaser & Strauss 1967). The centrepiece of grounded theory research is "the development or generation of a theory closely related to the context of the phenomenon being studied" (Glaser & Strauss 1967, p.56). The idea is to discover theory in "a systematic yet emergent way" (Whiteley 2000a, p.2). Grounded theory is closely associated with two research traditions, produced in outline below. These are phenomenology and symbolic interactionism.

Over the years there have been many descriptions of the grounded research process and the one produced by Creswell (1998) was useful to this research. He pointed to Glaser & Strauss's (1967) claim that the method is systematic. His procedure is described in Table 4.2. In this study the unit of analysis was a discernible piece of meaning, a construct. First data are coded through either invivo coding or open coding. Invivo coding uses the words of respondents as code names. In open coding a name is given to a code to represent an utterance or piece of meaning. From these, the researcher forms initial categories of information about the phenomenon being studied. Within each category, the investigator finds several properties, or subcategories. These may be similar constructs, opposing constructs, negative or

positive dimensions of constructs, extreme possibilities within or between constructs, all depending on how the information emerges. Axial coding was a device produced by Strauss & Corbin (1990) and vehemently criticized by his original co-author, (Glaser 1998) as working against the central tenet of emergence.

It is presented here to illustrate the variations on grounded theory that have been produced as research needs have evolved. Axial coding uses a logic template in which the researcher identifies a central phenomenon (i.e., a central category about the phenomenon), explores causal conditions (i.e. categories of conditions that influence the phenomenon), specifies strategies (i.e. the actions or interactions that result from the central phenomenon), identifies the context and intervening conditions (i.e. the narrow and broad conditions that influence the strategies), and delineates the consequences (i.e. the outcome of the strategies). In selective coding, the researcher identifies a "story line" and writes a story that integrates the categories in the axial coding model. In this phase, conditional propositions (or hypotheses) are typically presented. Finally, the researcher may develop and visually portray a conditional matrix that elucidates the social, historical, and economic conditions influencing the central phenomenon.

Table 4.2: Dimensions of the two major research traditions used in this research

Dimension	Phenomenology	Symbolic Interactionism (Grounded Theory method)
Focus	Understanding the essence of experiences about a phenomenon.	The 'theories' of respondents.
Discipline origin	Social Psychology Research about the individual within a social setting.	Sociology Research within a social setting
Data collection	Data collection methods that will allow respondents to access and reveal for the researcher the experiences in their 'life-worlds'.	Stories, answers to interview questions, narrative, scenarios, dilemmas.
Data analysis	Statements Meanings Meaning themes General description of the experience	Unit of analysis is an utterance. Utterances are coded and placed in 'categories' of like meaning. Categories are subject to constant

		comparison for relevance, appropriateness, contrary evidence. When no more constructs emerge, judge saturation. Develop concepts and core concepts. Guided by data, be sensitive to emerging theory (theoretical sensitivity).
Normative form	Description of the "essence" of the experience	Discovery of emerging theories of respondents.

Source: Adapted from Creswell 1998, p.65.

4.4 Research Design

This section presents the rationales and arguments for design of this research. The constructivist paradigm was chosen for this study as the aim was to gather perceptions from the respondent groups. A brief outline of the research design shows some of the thinking and planning that underpinned the study. In addition "at once the research design must produce an audit trail so that others can follow the research activities and a more personal learning trail so that the researcher is constantly part of a 'becoming' process of learning" (Whiteley 2002a, p.22).

Whiteley (2002b, p.4) asserts that "the goal of qualitative research is to produce high quality, meaningful and relevant data, such that it is possible to emerge valuable insights within a social context". Achieving this goal depends significantly on the research design chosen by the researcher. To come up with an appropriate research design the theoretical perspectives as discussed in chapter three were taken into account in designing this research. The design of this research as presented in Table 4.3 was based on the decision that the philosophy of this research is the philosophy of becoming (Hitchcock & Hughes 1995). The sociological perspective applied in this research is symbolic interactionism (Blumer 1969; Woods 1992). This research will be an interactive research using in-depth interviews with stakeholders of the Thai industrial relations system. This study assumes a reality that is constructed by the individuals involved in the research situation (Creswell 1998). The epistemology of this research will be subjectivist: knower and respondent co-create understanding Denzin & Lincoln 2000). The qualitative aspects of grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss 1967; Charmaz 2000) will be applied as methodology in this research.

Table 4.3: Research Design

Design Issue	Perspective/Activity	Reasoning
Philosophy	Becoming	Research question is about the formative views of stakeholders including trade union leaders.
Sociology	Symbolic Interaction (Woods 1992)	Symbolic interaction allows the telling of what the industrial democracy means to the stakeholders.
Ontology	Constructivism (Schwandt 2000)	Based on the theory of personal (second orders) constructions of reality.
Epistemology	Interpretive (Lincoln & Guba 2000)	There are no "facts" to be studied or observed. Concepts must be interpreted by both researcher and respondents.
Methodology	Qualitative Aspects of Grounded Theory (Charmaz 2000)	Qualitative methodology seeks to 'give a voice' to respondents.
Analytic Frame	Flexible and iterative (Whiteley 2002a)	Data will be used to inform the formative idea and will, where necessary, allow modification.
Data Collection Methods	Triangulation Documentary data In-depth interview	Face-to-facemethods allow clarification, interpretation and confirmation. Documentation supports issues of intent.
Data Management	Tape recording / Transcript Field notes Technology	So that data is captured. Translates speech to words. In addition to recording, so that body-language can be captured. Also, observation can be added to recording. For efficient data storage and retrieval as well as facilitating connectivity.
Data Analysis	Utterances to codes Code to categories Categories to concepts Constant comparison Constant questioning (Whiteley 2002a)	These are the conventions of content analysis as in Grounded Theory (Glaser & Strauss 1967).

Source: Adapted from Whiteley 2002a, p.23.

As an additional test of this research, some of Patton's (1990) questions were asked and answered. What is the primary purpose of the study? In this research it is to develop insight into industrial democracy in Thailand. What is the focus of the study? The focus is on the key stakeholder groups who impact on the phenomenon. What are the units of analysis? In this study, they are primarily the utterances contributed by respondents during semi-structured interviews. What will be the sampling strategy or strategies? The sampling strategy includes purposive sampling and theoretical sampling. What type of data will be collected? Data were triangulated across documentation and literature, recipients of industrial democracy (employees), and those influential in formulating and implementing activities (employers, legislators, government officials). What control will be exercised? Analytical controls included accuracy checks and inter-rater reliability checks. Other controls were installed to protect the identity of individuals. Analytic controls in place were those incorporated within the grounded research protocols (Whiteley 2000; Whiteley 2004). Patton added practical questions about time, place, logistics, costs and these were addressed and answered as part of the initial approval process of the study.

4.5 Data Collection

This section presents the rationales and arguments for the data collection methods and procedures used in this research. As presented in chapter three, data collection in qualitative research involves several activities. Creswell (1998) suggests that data collection involves seven important activities of locating sites or individual, gaining access and making rapport, purposefully sampling, collecting data, recording information, resolving field issues, and storing data. Based on Creswell (1998) the data collection activities in this research are shown in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Data collection activities selected for the research

Data Collection Activity	Phenomenology	Grounded Theory
What is traditionally studied? (site/individual[s])	Multiple individuals who have experienced the phenomenon.	Multiple individuals who have responded to action or participated in a process about a central phenomenon.
What are typical access and	Finding people who have	Locating a homogeneous

rapport issues? (access and rapport)	experienced the phenomenon.	sample.
How does one select sites or individuals to study? (purposeful sampling strategies)	Finding individuals who have experienced the phenomenon, a "criterion" sample.	Finding a homogeneous sample, a "theory-based" sample, a "theoretical" sample.
What type of information typically is collected? (forms of data)	Long interview protocol.	Interview protocol, memoing.
What are common data collection issues? (field issues)	Bracketing one's experiences, logistics of interviewing.	Interviewing issues (e.g., logistics, openness)
How is information typically stored? (storing data)	Transcriptions, computer files.	Transcriptions, computer files.

Source: Adapted from Creswell 1998, pp.112-113.

4.5.1 Data Collection Sampling: Theoretical Sampling

There are several sampling strategies in qualitative research. Patton (1990) provides sixteen types of sampling strategies. Each type of sampling is used for a different purpose (Patton 1990). Miles & Huberman (1994) provide different types of sampling strategies with different purposes for each strategy. It needs to be said that these authors assume 'transcendental realism' and so many of their comments may resemble elements of positivist research. For example, a random purposeful sampling is used to add credibility to sample when potential purposeful sampling is too large (Miles & Huberman 1994). At the same time a stratified purposeful sampling is used to illustrate subgroups and to facilitate comparisons (Miles & Huberman 1994). A theory based sampling is used to find examples of a theoretical construct and thereby elaborate and examine it (Miles & Huberman 1994). Creswell asserts that "the purposeful selection of participants represents a key decision point in a qualitative study" (Creswell 1998, p.118). Qualitative research "typically focuses in depth on relatively small samples, even single cases (n=1), selected purposefully" (Patton 1990, p.169). In a grounded theory design, Creswell (1998) suggests primary interviews with 20-30 people to achieve detail in the theory by using a theory based or theoretical sampling. The term "theory based" sampling is used by Patton (1990)

and Miles & Huberman (1994) but in grounded theory the term is "theoretical sampling" (Creswell 1998).

Theoretical sampling, as described in Glaser and Strauss (1967) was the guiding force in the sampling strategy.

> Theoretical sampling is the process of data collection for generating theory whereby the analyst jointly collects, codes, and analyzes his data and decides what data to collect next and where to find them, in order to develop his theory as it emerges. This process of data collection is controlled by the emerging theory, whether substantive or formal. The initial decisions for theoretical collection of data are based only on a general sociological perspective and on a general subject or problem area (such as how confidence men handle prospective marks or how policemen act toward Negroes or what happens to students in medical school that turns them into doctors). The initial decisions are not based on a preconceived theoretical framework (Glaser & Strauss 1967, p.45).

Theoretical sampling is "sampling on the basis of concepts that have proven theoretical relevance to the evolving theory" (Strauss & Corbin 1990, p.176). Theoretical sampling, according to Creswell, means that "the investigator examines individuals who can contribute to the evolving theory" (Creswell 1998, p.118). Creswell discussing a particular study into child abuse shows the process.

> The process begins with selecting and studying a homogeneous sample of individuals (e.g. all women who have experienced childhood abuse) and then, after developing the theory, selecting and studying a heterogeneous sample (e.g. types of support groups other than women who have experienced childhood abuse). [And that] the rationale for studying this heterogeneous sample is to confirm the conditions, both contextual and intervening, under which the model holds (Creswell 1998, pp.118-119).

4.5.2 Theoretical Sampling Procedures

Theoretical sampling is more suited to a grounded theory study. This is because the cases can be chosen in terms of the respondents' theories so that the sample size can be changed during the research (Silverman 2000b). Thus the theoretical sampling method was adopted for this study (Glaser & Strauss 1967). The process involved choosing participants who could best contribute to an evolving theory (Creswell 1998). Initially, eight groups of stakeholders of the Thai industrial relations system were identified. The stakeholders originally identified were: employees of non-unionized companies; trade union leaders; employers of a non-unionized company;

an employer organization leader group; government officials; members of tripartite bodies; human resource managers; and labour academics. Each stakeholder group was sampled and stratified across the same levels of responsibility. The respondents' theories necessitated that the sample be expanded or redirected to add a further two groups: the employees of non-unionized company and the trade union leaders groups. The employees of non-unionized companies group was expanded into two groups: the employee at shopfloor level and the employee at supervisory level. The trade union leaders group was also expanded into two groups: the trade union leaders at the company level and the trade union leaders at the national level. The total stakeholder groups finally identified became ten groups altogether and thirty respondents were identified and interviewed in this research.

4.6 Data Collection Method: In-depth Interview

Each data collection method "best yields a particular type of information" (Marshall & Rossman 1999, p.138). They suggest that "the researcher should determine the most practical, efficient, feasible, and ethical methods for collecting data as the research progresses" (Marshall & Rossman 1999, p.138). They further suggest that "in determining which method to use, the researcher should carefully examine the questions guiding the study: Many questions that appear to be 'how' questions are really 'how many' questions in disguise" (Marshall & Rossman 1999, p.138).

Based on the research design in chapter one and the theoretical perspective presented in chapter three, an in-depth interview was chosen as a data collection method of this research. This is because in general, interview is "a useful way to get a large amount of data quickly" (Marshall & Rossman 1999, p.108). Particularly, this research collected data from a total of ten groups of stakeholders within the industrial relations system in Thailand. The specific strengths of the face-to-face interview are listed below. It fosters face-to-face interaction with participants. It is useful for uncovering participants' perspectives. It is a method for data collected in a natural setting. It facilitates immediate follow-up for clarification. It is useful for describing complex interactions. It facilitates discovery of nuances in culture. It provides for flexibility in formulating hypotheses. It provides context information and facilitates analysis, validity checks, and triangulation (Marshall & Rossman 1999). The other strength "is the validity of the data obtained: individuals are interviewed in sufficient

detail for the results to be taken as true, correct, complete and believable reports of their views and experiences" (Hakim 2000, p.36).

Qualitative interviews are typically referred to as depth or in-depth interviews (Lincoln & Guba 1985; Maykut & Morehouse 1994). According to Marshall and Rossman, the "in-depth interviews are much more like conversation than formal events with predetermined response categories" (Marshall & Rossman 1999, p.108). They further assert that "the researcher explores a few general topics to help uncover the participant's views but otherwise respect how the participant frames and structures the responses" (Marshall & Rossman 1999, p.108). Kvale asserts that it is a conversation with structure and purpose (Kvale 1996).

The in-depth interview can be classified as three major types; the structured interview, the semi-structured interview, and the unstructured interview (Chadwick 1984; Patton 1990; Berg 1998; Maykut & Morehouse 1994; Fontana & Frey 2000). Based on Fontana & Frey (2000), the unstructured interview is usually used in qualitative research because it can provide a greater breadth of data than the other types, especially the structured interview. However, this research utilises a semi-structured interview because it has the advantage of enabling the researcher to use techniques from both the structured and unstructured approaches (Hocking 2002). At the same time questions can be specified but they can be open-ended allowing the researcher more freedom to explore and probe the issue (Hocking 2002).

4.6.1 Interview Guide: Semi-Structured Interview

An interview guide is an essential tool for conducting the semi-structured interview. The term "interview guide" is used interchangeably with "semi-structured" and "semi-standardized interview" when used as an interview approach (Fontana & Frey 2000; Patton 1990; Maykut & Morehouse 1994; Berg 1998). In the interview guide "the researcher has some specific topics that are to be covered, and they are included in the interview guide. However, the exact manner in which the questions are asked and their sequence are determined in the course of the interview itself" (Chadwick 1984, p.105). An interview guide is "a list of questions or issues that are to be explored in the course of an interview" (Patton 1990, p.283). Patton (1990) describes the interview guide as follows:

An interview guide is prepared in order to make sure that basically the same information is obtained from a number of people by covering the same material. The interview guide provides topics or subject areas within which the interviewer is free to explore, probe, and ask questions that will elucidate and illuminate that particular subject. Thus the interviewer remains free to build a conversation within a particular subject area, to word questions spontaneously and to establish a conversational style - but with focus on a particular subject that has been predetermined (Patton 1990, p.283).

An interview guide as defined by Patton is "a list of questions or issues that are to be explored in the course of an interview" (Patton 1990, p.283). A different term such as "interview protocol" may also be used (Creswell 1998). It is different from an interview schedule (Maykut & Morehouse 1994). An interview guide is comprised of a relatively short set of topics (categories of inquiry) or a short set of broad open-ended questions (Maykut & Morehouse 1994), while an interview schedule is comprised of many carefully constructed questions, follow-up questions or probes, and possibly other information for the interviewer (Maykut & Morehouse 1994). It is often substantially longer than an interview guide (Maykut & Morehouse 1994). Patton asserts that interview guides can be "developed in more or less detail, depending on the extent to which the researcher is able to specify important issues in advance and the extent to which it is felt that a particular sequence of questions is important to ask in the same way or in the same order for all respondents" (Patton 1990, p.283). Creswell suggests that an interview guide (protocol) should be "about four or five pages in length, with approximately five open-ended questions and ample space between the questions to write responses to the interviewee's comments" (Creswell 1998, p.124).

The interview guide was selected for use in this research as a tool for conducting semi-structured interviews because this research obtained data from ten different groups of stakeholders of the Thai industrial relations system. The interview guide format is "especially suitable for exploring phenomena through interviewing …" (Maykut & Morehouse 1994, p.86). In addition the interview guide has some advantage over the interview schedule in many ways. For example, it makes sure that the interviewer has carefully decided how best to use the limited time available in an interview situation. It also helps make interviewing across a number of different

people more systematic and comprehensive by delimiting in advance the issues to be explored (Patton 1990).

4.6.2 Creating an Interview Guide

The most critical part of creating an interview guide is how to develop appropriate questions (Chadwick 1984). Chadwick emphasizes that "questions must be worded so that they will provide necessary data, and they must be asked in ways that motivate respondents to answer fully and honestly" (Chadwick 1984, p.115). Chadwick further emphasizes that "if the wrong question is asked, or if a question is asked in such a way that the subject either cannot give an appropriate answer or is not motivated to do so, then the interview will not provide reliable data" (Chadwick 1984, p.115).

Based on Patton (1990) there are basically six kinds of questions that can be asked of people in an interview. The first group is experience/behaviour questions. These questions are about what a person does or has done. They are aimed at eliciting descriptions of experiences, behaviours, actions, and activities that would have been observable had the observer been present. The second group is the opinion/values questions. These are questions aimed at understanding the cognitive and interpretive process of people. Answers to these questions tell us what people think about some issue. They tell us about peoples' goals, intentions, desires, and values. The third group is the feeling questions. These are questions aimed at understanding the emotional responses of people to their experiences and thoughts. The fourth is the knowledge questions. Knowledge questions are asked to find out what factual information the respondent has. The fifth is sensory questions. These are questions about what is seen, heard, touched, tasted, and smelt. The purpose of these questions is to allow the interviewer to enter into the sensory apparatus of the respondent. The sixth group is the background/demographic questions. These questions concern the identifying characteristics of the person being interview. Answers to these questions help the interviewer locate the respondent in relation to other people.

According to Chadwick, the central problem in asking questions, especially in an interview, is that of "adequate communication" (Chadwick 1984, p.115). It is important that the researcher must clearly communicate to the respondent what she

or he wants to know (Chadwick 1984). Chadwick (1984) and Berg (1998) suggest some common mistakes that should be avoided in developing interview questions. First is the double-barrelled question. This type of question asks a respondent to respond to two issues (often quite unrelated) at the same time. This type of question creates analysis and interpretation problems. The second type is the complex question. A respondent usually has only a moment to consider how to answer, and in that limited time it is difficult to express one's opinion about a complex issue. The third mistake is the order of questions. The interviewer should begin with questions that are interesting to the respondent and at the same time are non-threatening and relatively easy to answer. Once rapport and interest have been established and the pattern of question and answer has become "natural," the interviewer can proceed to the more complex or sensitive issues. The fourth type is the probe questions. It is almost always necessary to buttress central questions with supplementary probe questions which guarantee, to some extent, that even taciturn respondents will provide the essential minimum of detail. In large-scale studies the probes should be asked uniformly and at specified points so that all respondents have essentially the same "stimulus" presented for response.

With the intent of developing a model or theory and saturating categories, grounded theory study relies heavily on in-depth interviewing and open-ended questions are normally used. Chadwick argues that with the open-ended option, "respondents are encouraged to answer in their own words and to reveal their own definitions of the situation" (Chadwick 1984, p.118). Chadwick further argues that "the interviewer's responsibility is to ask the question and to probe until the respondent has finished the relevant detail, and to record that detail as carefully and fully as possible" (Chadwick 1984, p.118).

At the time of formulating the proposal of this research it has been proposed that an interview schedule is to be used in this research. However, having thoroughly reviewed the data collection methods and the types of interviews, it was found that semi-structured interview and interview guide would be the most suitable method and tool for this research (Chadwick 1984; Maykut & Morehouse 1994; Berg 1998). Thus an interview guide has been developed and used throughout the data collection of this research. It was developed under the procedures adapted from the eleven-

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steps procedures provided by Maykut & Morehouse (1994), which was used as a guideline because it provided a detailed guideline step by step which could resolve or prevent the problems or mistakes that might occur in the process of developing the questions and other parts of the interview guide.

The process for development of this interview guide as adapted from Maykut & Morehouse (1994) are: step one: write out the focus of inquiry; step two: researcher lists words, phrases, concepts, questions, topics that relate to the focus of inquiry; step three: analyse the listing for similarities, group similar ideas together, and describe each group of ideas with a word or phrase. These groups of ideas are potential 'categories of inquiry'; step four: decide which categories of inquiry to include in the interview; step five: make a final decision to develop an interview guide; step six: decide whether to reply on category descriptions or to develop broad open-ended questions for the interview format. Write each category or question on a separate index card to facilitate interview guide formatting; step seven: put the category descriptions or broad questions derived from each selected category into a useful sequence; step eight: prepare a draft of the interview guide, including at the beginning a personal introduction purpose statement, statement on confidentiality, a request for permission to audio-tape, and an explanation as to why the interviewee has been selected for interviewing; step nine: present the interview guide to the expert panel. The expert panel is a group of people who can advise on the sort of questions relevant and appropriate to the design of the interview guide; step ten: make any necessary revisions in the interview guide; and step eleven: begin interviewing.

The processes contained in step one through step eight were completed and step nine of the process was completed one month later. The draft of the interview guide was referred to an academic expert for review and comment. A revision was made based on feedback from the academic expert prior to submission to the expert panel meeting. An expert panel was brought into the process in order to ensure the quality of the interview guide. The objective of this was to trial the interview guide (Berg 1998). The trialling was to facilitate "the identification of poorly worded questions, questions with offensive or emotion-laden wording, or questions revealing the researcher's own biases, personal values, or blind spots" (Berg 1998, p.71).

In establishing the expert panel, a senior industrial relations expert of the Department of Labour Protection and Welfares of the Ministry of Labour was consulted. The industrial relations expert is a person who is familiar with several stakeholders of the Thai industrial relations system. This familiarity was gained through his long time involvement and working in the field of industrial relations in Thai industrial society. The industrial relations expert recommended the names of the person representing each stakeholder group, to be included as members of the expert panel. There were eight stakeholder groups originally identified in this research. The list of the names of prospective members of the expert panel was then prepared. The list included the name, address, and telephone number of each prospective expert panel member.

The researcher then made a personal telephone call to each of the prospective expert panel members of each group to invite each of them to join the research project as a member of an expert panel. Explanations of the research title, its objectives, its scope, its significance and its benefits were clearly made to each of them in a telephone conversation. Individuals were also informed that the participation in the project was on a voluntary basis and they could refuse if they did not want to join the project. They were advised that, even if they had decided to join the project they could stop at any time if they wished to do so. They were also informed that following their agreement to join the project, an official letter of invitation would be sent to them for their reference. Each of them was also informed of the tentative date of the meeting.

All of the prospective members of the expert panel were very cooperative and agreed to join the project. Upon receiving an agreement from each of them, an official letter of invitation to join the project as a member of an expert panel was sent out by post to the address identified and confirmed by each of them. The content of the letter basically was the same explanation given to each of them on the telephone. The date, place and time of the meeting were also specified as indicated to them earlier, in the telephone conversation. This process was performed by the researcher in parallel with other activities during the interview guide construction period. About one week before the meeting was scheduled, the researcher made another personal telephone call to each member of the expert panel to confirm the meeting schedule with them. Comments, suggestions and feedback resulting from the expert panel meeting were

used to make final revision in the interview guide. An English translation copy of the final version of the interview guide for this research is displayed in Appendix A.

4.6.3 Interviewing Equipment

In addition to the interview guide, tape-recording is an essential part of the qualitative interview (Creswell 1998). Lincoln and Guba express that "most obviously, a tape recorder can be utilized, a mode that has many advantages" (Lincoln & Guba 1985, p.271). For example, it provides an unimpeachable data source. It helps in assuring completeness. It provides the opportunity to review as often as necessary to assure that full understanding has been achieved. It provides the opportunity for later review for nonverbal cues such as significant pauses, raised voices, or emotional outbursts. Finally it provides material for joint interviewer training and a reliability check. However, they recommend that "interviews not be tape-recorded unless there are legal or training reasons for doing so …" (Lincoln & Guba 1985, p.272) as they feel that "the advantages of handwritten notes are sufficiently marked to make that the mode of choice" (Lincoln & Guba 1985, p.272). However, Patton argues that "a tape recorder is part of the indispensable equipment of researchers using qualitative methods" (Patton 1990, p.348). Maykut and Morehouse agree with Patton on the importance of tape-recording whenever allowable "to obtain the best possible record of the interviewee's words" (Maykut & Morehouse 1994, p.98). They further assert that "tape-recording is essential if the researcher plans to use interviews as the main source of data" (Maykut & Morehouse 1994, p.98). In addition Silverman (2000a, p.829) asserts that "tapes can be replayed and transcriptions can be improved, and analyses can take off on different tacks unlimited by the original transcript".

This research studied ten different groups of stakeholders of the Thai industrial relations system. As face-to-face interchange is essential in collecting the needed information, the in-depth interview was chosen as the most suitable method and was used as the main source of data for this research. Because of the various advantages of tape-recording discussed above, tape-recording was utilized in all interviews for data collection in this research. However, consent was obtained verbally from all interviewees prior to conducting each of the interviews.

4.6.4 Planning for the Interview

As noted by Marshall and Rossman, "qualitative researchers rely quite extensively on in-depth interviewing" (Marshall & Rossman 1999, p.108). As the interview in a qualitative study is essentially "a conversation between two people we need to examine all the dynamics that make up the conversional interaction" (Whiteley et al. 1998, p.13). The purpose of the conversation in the interview is to obtain information and to get such information questions must be asked (Chadwick 1984). It is "the responsibility of the interviewer to make it clear to the interviewee what is being asked" (Patton 1990, p.309). Chadwick asserts that "the interviewer's language must be understandable to the respondent; at best, the interview will be conducted at the level of language most comfortable to the respondent" (Chadwick 1984, p.115). In order to "understand the words one needs to have knowledge of the vocabulary and the language constructs" (Whiteley et al. 1998, p.13). Language is a means of communication and misunderstanding can occur at anytime. Misunderstanding may be caused by misperception, misinterpretation, and misevaluation (Adler 1997). So "metalinguistics aspects, such as the use of rhetoric, silence, conversational styles, overlapping, body gestures accompanying language activities, are more difficult to investigate but they are no less important" (Usunier 1998, p.143).

Ferraro asserts that "in much the same way that languages are arbitrary systems of communication, the nonverbal aspects also display certain arbitrariness, to the extent that there is a wide range of alternative ways of expressing ideas and emotions nonverbally" (Ferraro 1998, p.66). Thus it is possible to "'listen' to someone and gain meaning from other nonverbal cues as well" (Whiteley et al. 1998, p.13; Ferraro, 1998). Some of the cues such as paralinguistics, proxemics, gender issues, status, and timing are important influences on the planning and administration of the interview (Whiteley et al. 1998).

4.6.4.1 Paralinguistics

Paralinguistics are enhancers of language. Whiteley et al. (1998) asserts that when the words are being said there are also elements at work which can be described as that part of speech which enhances the language. Paralinguistics may be described as follows:

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They are the dynamics that give emphasis to the intention of the speaker. This includes the explosive impact on one word for emphasis. It can be the lowering of the voice to imply secrecy and sharing or trusting. Thumping the table or punching the air in accompaniment to the words will change the conveyed meaning of simple words such as 'yes' or 'no.' They include dynamics such as tone of voice, rate of the utterance, overall pitch and range of the voice as well as facial expressions (Whiteley et al. 1998, p.14).

As these paralinguistic devices are "essential companions to the words" (Whiteley et al. 1998, p.14), "attempts at determining categories of meaning must take such an interview component into account" (Whiteley et al. 1998, p.14).

The ten different groups of stakeholders of the Thai industrial relations system came from different personal and family backgrounds. They also had different educational backgrounds and experience. The ways in which they expressed themselves were also different. The researcher had to pay close attention to the respondent's voice and actions. Sometimes a request for more explanation was made or a local dialect of the North East was used with the respondents in the employees groups.

4.6.4.2 Proxemics

Proxemics is referred to as personal space (Ferraro 1998). It is "the study of people's use of space and its relationship to culture" (Marshall & Rossman 1999, p.127). Ferraro argues that "all cultures have accustomed their people to feel comfortable at a specific distance" (Ferraro 1998, p.79). Proxemics as "the study of space between individuals both physical and psychological is a critical issue for the research interview context" (Whiteley et al. 1998, p.14). To appropriately handle the interview in order to obtain the required information researcher must be aware of both physical and psychological reactions to space of the interviewee.

In Thai culture a male is prohibited from being close to and touching a female no matter whether in private or in public. There may be some exception for husband and wife but it would not be polite to express this in public. Other exceptions may be the relationships of parent and child. Man and woman who are not husband and wife are not supposed to stay together in a private or closed place where other people could not see them. Although globalization may cause certain relaxation of this act, it is

still strictly held by the majority of Thai people. The researcher had to be very careful and act properly with the female respondents. The researcher always sat at the opposite side of the table to the female respondents in any interview. In the case where the interview took place in a private office or meeting room, an office or room where other people could see in from outside was selected or otherwise the door was left open when conducting the interview with female respondents. Under the Thai culture males should not stay too close to each other except if they are close friends. This applies to senior and the junior people as well. The researcher had to keep a distance away from senior government officials and members of official tripartite bodies. This applied to the group of employers and academics as well. When meeting them the researcher had to stand with a calm and respectful manner until the respondent allowed him to sit down. At the same time a more relaxed atmosphere was engaged with male trade union leader groups. However, the researcher had to practice good manners as appropriate to his role as researcher, taking into account that he must be able to obtain information from the respondent in an appropriate and effective way.

4.6.4.3 Gender

Gender is "a significant factor in the researcher/respondent relationship" (Whiteley et al. 1998, p.16). In masculine worlds "the female researcher may have to adopt various ploys to deal with prejudice, sexual innuendo, and unwelcome advances" (Punch 1998, p.165). It was noted that "both the research context and the research topic will impact in varying degrees on the gender issues relating to interviewer/interviewee interaction" (Whiteley et al. 1998, 1998, p.16). It was further elaborated that:

> The research context will incorporate the social dimensions which are dictated by cultural and ethical mores. The research topic will similarly impact on the same dimensions. A research topic focused on sex or abortion issues will be affected by the gender issue in a different way though possibly to the same extent as a research topic focusing on displays of power (Whiteley et al. 1998, p.16).

About one third of the respondents in this research were female, especially in the employees of non-unionized companies group. Special care had to be taken by the researcher in conducting interviews with these groups. The researcher had to be more

polite and pleasant in handling these groups of respondents, both in terms of language and manner. The warm-up time was longer than other groups of respondents. The researcher had to spend longer time in informal conversation until it was certain that the respondent was ready to give an interview. The researcher applied Thai culture by paying respect to all respondents depending on their status. Thai greeting symbol the "wai" was used in all cases to create a warm and friendly atmosphere. However, the manner of "wai" was applied differently depending on their gender, age and status.

4.6.4.4 Status

Status has a certain impact on interviewer/interviewee relationship. The status issue must be taken into account in planning and conducting a qualitative interview. Whiteley suggests that there is "a strong link between the status symbols and the structural symbols of an organization" (Whiteley et al. 1998, p.17; Whiteley 1995). It was then suggested that "this culturally embedded relationship means that a qualitative researcher needs to be alert to the symbols of an organization and the messages that they convey (Whiteley et al. 1998, p.17).

This research studied ten different stakeholder groups in the industrial relations system in Thailand. Data was collected from respondents with different status positions, ranging from workers at shopfloor level to the top management. In addition, respondents in the government sector and members of the official tripartite bodies are those persons at the higher level in the government ranks. Besides that, the trade union leaders at the national level were people well known to the society. The researcher had to adapt himself to each group of respondents. The most critical groups were employees of non-unionized companies and the trade union leaders at the company level. The researcher had to adapt himself in various ways, for example dress, language and a longer warm-up time before starting the interview. When conducting interviews in the factory the researcher had to dress to suit the situation and environments e.g. no coat and tie. In contrast, coat and tie was required for the researcher when interviewing the senior government officials. Similar arrangements were made when interviewing the employer groups. Casual dress was worn by the researcher when conducting an interview with the trade union leaders at the national level. For academic group members, a coat and tie was required in two cases and casual dress for the other one case.

4.6.4.5 Time

Time is one of the issues that needed to be considered by the researcher in conducting interviews. Timing can impact on the interview in two main areas (Whiteley et al. 1998) as follows:

> One is the timing of the interview in relationship to the events surrounding the interview. What occurred in the last half hour before interview can colour the responses and attitudes of the respondent to an extent that data given by them in a different time setting may be totally different and devoid of emotional overtones. For example someone who has just received word of some personal disaster may be strongly affected in their responses even though the event may have nothing to do with the workplace or the topic of the interview. The interviewer is not always privy to these details and it cannot be assumed that the obvious solution is to not conduct the interview. [And that] this timing in relationship to the interview event is possibly more difficult to account for than the second aspect of timing (Whiteley et al. 1998, p.17).

To overcome any problem that might occur from the timing issues of the interview in this research each interview schedule was determined by each respondent. Each respondent chose the most suitable time that was convenient to each of them and the researcher made his own arrangements to accommodate the time given by each respondent. Most of the respondents chose the working day for an interview except a few cases of trade union leaders who chose to give interviews on Saturday which was their non-working day. The time of each interview was varied but most of the interviews took place during the day time. There were two cases of employees of non-unionized companies where the interviews took place at night due to the fact that they were working on the night shift. Before the actual date and time of appointment the researcher made a telephone call to each person to confirm the appointment. All respondents were given the opportunity to change the original appointment time to other times if they wished. Fortunately, there were few cases where the time was changed to suit the respondent's requirement but, in each case, the appointment was still on the same day. Before going into the formal interview process an informal conversation was conducted with the respondent by the researcher, until it was certain that the respondent was ready to give an interview.

4.6.5 Procedures for Conducting Interview

Writers in the literature mostly view interviewing as a series of steps in a procedure (Creswell 1998; Lincoln & Guba 1985; Chadwick 1984; Maykut & Morehouse 1994; Fontana & Frey 2000). The main steps in the interview process are: preparing for interviewing; conducting the interview; and recording the interview.

The first step in preparing for interviewing involves several activities. This step begins with identifying interviewees (Chadwick 1984; Lincoln & Guba 1985; Creswell 1998) based on the selected sampling procedures (Miles & Huberman 1994; Creswell 1998). Once the interviewees have been identified, appointments with interviewees must be made specifying date, time and place for interview. The place selected for conducting interview "if possible should be a quiet location and free from distraction" (Creswell 1998, p.124). It should also be ascertained that "the physical setting lends itself to audio-taping, an essential necessity in accurately recording information" (Creswell 1998, p.124). A letter, requesting interview and providing information about the project and what will be required of him or her, is sent to the interviewee. Prior to the appointment date a follow-up contact is made to confirm the appointment.

Maykut and Morehouse (1994) suggest that the interviewer should gather together the materials and equipment that the interviewer will need to conduct the interview, including tape recorder (batteries, electrical cord, and extension cord), cassette tapes, interview guide, and pen and paper for note taking. They further suggest that the interviewer should gather these materials together into a data collection kit for this and future interviews (Maykut & Morehouse 1994). Lincoln and Guba suggest that the interviewer should practice the interview with an appropriate role "stand-in"; in order to decide on an appropriate sequence of questions; and on the interviewer's own role, dress, level of formality, and the like (Lincoln & Guba 1985).

The second step begins with the interviewer being at the interview site at least one hour before the appointment time. This is to allow for the interviewer to prepare the interview site and to organize and test the interview equipment. The interviewer must meet the interviewee promptly at the scheduled time and place (Maykut & Morehouse 1994). Creswell suggests that the interviewer should have the interviewee complete a consent form and go over the purpose of the study, the amount of time

that will be needed to complete the interview, and plans for using the results from the interview (Creswell 1998). The interviewer should "note whether there is potential background noise that might interfere with a clear recording" (Maykut & Morehouse 1994, p.99). Tape recorder should be tested "with the interviewee, replay the test comments, and suggest adjustments, such as speaking more loudly, if necessary" (Maykut & Morehouse 1994, p.99).

Lincoln and Guba suggest that the respondent should be given an opportunity to "warm up" and can also be given an opportunity to "organize her or his head" by "being asked other general questions leading up to the matters that the interviewer wants discussed in detail later" (Lincoln & Guba 1985, p.270). The interviewer should "stick to the questions, complete within the time specified (if possible), be respectful and courteous, and offer few questions and advice" (Creswell 1998, p.125). Creswell suggests that a good interviewer is "a listener rather than a speaker during the interview" (Creswell 1998, p.125). The interviewer is to record information on the interview guide in the event that the audio-recording does not work and it should be recognized that "quickly inscribed notes may be incomplete and partial because of the difficulty of asking questions and writing answers at the same time" (Creswell 1998, p.125). When the interview is about to come to an end the interviewer should "summarize and 'play back' for respondent what he or she believes has been said" (Lincoln & Guba 1985, p.271). This process, according to Lincoln and Guba, has several advantages for the interviewer. First, it invites the respondent to react to 'member-check the validity of the constructions' the interviewer had made. Second, it often induces the respondent to add new materials of which she or he is reminded on hearing the summary. Finally, it puts the respondent on record, so she or he is less likely to deny the information later (Lincoln & Guba 1985). They also suggest that, "courtesy demands that the interviewer thank the respondent for his or her cooperation" (Lincoln & Guba 1985, p.271).

The final step of interviewing involves recording the interview in writing. Maykut and Morehouse suggest the following:

> Immediately after you have completed the interview, reflect on the interview in writing. The interviewer's notes prepared following the interview are part of your data. Write down the things that the tape recorder did not capture, such as facial expressions, body posture, mood, and any other observations that can contribute to making sense of the interviewee's perspective (Maykut & Morehouse 1994, p.99).

In addition to the interviewing processes described above, Berg (1998) provides the ten commandments of interview for the interviewers. The first commandment is never begin an interview cold. Second, remember your purpose. Third, present a natural front. Fourth, demonstrate aware hearing. Fifth, think about appearance. Sixth, conduct the interview in a comfortable place. Seventh, don't be satisfied with monosyllabic answers. Eighth, be respectful. Ninth, practice, practice, and practice some more. The final commandment is to be cordial and appreciative (Berg 1998).

4.6.6 The Conduct of Interview in this Research

An in-depth semi-structured interview with a developed interview guide was used in the interviews throughout the data collection of this research. In addition to following the interview process described above, a range of steps, in line with the work of (Patton 1990; Whiteley et al. 1998; Marshall & Rossman 1999; Silverman 2000b; Hakim 2000; Fontana & Frey 2000), were also taken into account in conducting each interview.

In particular, in the first step of the interview, the interviewees were identified through the theoretical sampling method. Consultation was made with a senior expert in industrial relations, from the Department of Labour Protection and Welfare of the Ministry of Labour, to come up with a list of prospective interviewees of each stakeholder group. This expert is very familiar with the stakeholders of the Thai industrial relations system through his day-to-day work, carried out in the performance of his official duties and responsibilities. Consultations were also made with some of the members of the expert panel who were able to recommend appropriate interviewees from each stakeholder group. The list of prospective interviewees was then prepared with the exception of the prospective interviewees of the employees of the non-unionized companies as they could not be contacted directly. The list included the specific name and address, including telephone number, of each prospective interviewee. For the employees of the non-unionized

companies, only the name and address, with the name and telephone number of the persons to be contacted, were identified.

Guided by the list the researcher made personal telephone contact with each prospective interviewee to invite each of them to join the research project as a respondent. The persons to be contacted for identifying the employees of non-unionized companies were also contacted by a personal telephone call from the researcher. Explanations of the research title, its objectives, its scope, its significance and its benefits were clearly made to each of them in the telephone conversation. They were also informed that participation in the project was on a voluntary basis and that, if they did not want to join the project, they could refuse. They were advised that, even if they had decided to join the project, they could stop at any time, if they wished to do so. They were requested to state their most convenient date, place and time for the interview and advised that the researcher would comply with their given schedule. They were also informed that following their agreement to join the project an official letter of invitation would be sent to them for their reference.

All of the prospective interviewees were very cooperative and agreed to join the project; except in one case where a prior approval in writing was required from the company headquarters abroad. The researcher followed this requirement and finally received permission to collect data from the respondents in this company. Almost all of the interviews were scheduled at the workplace of each respondent with the exception of three cases of trade union leaders where, as requested by the respondents, the interviews were scheduled at the researcher's office. Upon receiving an agreement and the schedule of interview from each respondent, an official letter of invitation to join the project as respondent was sent out by post mail according to the address identified and confirmed by each respondent. The content of the letter was basically the same as the explanation given to each respondent on the telephone. About one week before the scheduled interview, the researcher made another personal telephone call to each respondent to confirm the interview schedule.

The interview package comprising: a copy of the letter of invitation sent to each respondent, an interview guide with some spare copies, a copy of the candidacy paper or research proposal, tape recorder and tape cassettes with some spare tape cassettes, and a set of spare batteries for the tape recorder, were prepared and put in a

brief case. The researcher's identity card was needed at all times as entering some interview locations required identification and a security check. A checklist of items to be used in the preparation of each interview and a cover sheet of the documents in the package were checked. This was to ensure that all of the required items were available and ready to be used at each interview.

Each group of stakeholders required a different approach in conducting the interview - especially the opening of the interview. The use of language in the interview for the employees and the trade union leader groups required some modification to suit the respondents. Technical terms were avoided and where necessary, they were used with modification and additional explanation to ensure that the respondent had the same understanding as the researcher. The researcher made several rehearsals of story-telling to be used at the opening and the ending of the interview of each stakeholder group.

The second step of the interview was particularly involved with conducting the interview. The researcher made it a rule for himself to arrive at the interview place one hour before the scheduled time of each interview. This was to insure that the researcher was well prepared and was familiar with the interview site and this also allowed enough time to test the interview equipment. The researcher then met with the particular respondent as scheduled. A traditional Thai greeting and informal general conversation was made followed by researcher story-telling.

Although the use of the tape recorder had been practiced and the checklist used at each time before travelling to the interview location, a problem occurred in conducting an interview with a senior member of an official tripartite body. The tape recorder was out of order and the respondent lent to the researcher a tape recorder and a tape cassette. All the interviews were conducted with the individual respondent as scheduled. However, there was one exception in the case of an interview with a trade union leader at the company level. The interview was scheduled and the appointment was made with the president of the trade union, but he brought the secretary-general of the trade union to the interview as well. He explained that it is the rules and regulations of the trade union that when a committee member is giving an interview, there must be another trade union committee member participating as a

witness in such an interview. In this case the president gave an interview and it was witnessed by the secretary-general. This situation was considered acceptable in this research as the secretary-general did not say anything and the situation had been created by the requirement of the respondent himself and his organization. The incident was also considered not to have contaminated any of the data obtained.

The interview was conducted with eight groups of stakeholders and then was later expanded to ten groups of stakeholders as explained in the theoretical sampling procedure. The interviews were conducted during over a two month period. The interview was conducted with 30 respondents who are stakeholders in the industrial relations system in Thailand. The classification of respondents is displayed in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Classification of respondents

Item	Group	Number
1	Employee of non-unionized company: Shop-floor level	3
2	Employee of non-unionized company: Supervisory level	3
3	Trade Union - National level	3
4	Trade Union - Company level	3
5	Employer of non-unionized company	3
6	Employer organization leader	3
7	Government official	3
8	Member of Tripartite Body	3
9	Human Resource Manager	3
10	Academic	3
Total		**30**

It was found in the transcription process that information was missing in eight interviews. In order to ensure that all necessary information needed was collected from all respondents, it was decided by the researcher that additional interviews were necessary. To avoid imposing any unnecessary burdens on the respondents, it was

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agreed with each of them that a telephone conference call interview and tape-recording was to be used. Applying the same procedures as those used when conducting the original face-to-face interview, the telephone conference call interview and tape-recording were conducted with eight respondents.

The third step of the interview involved recording the interview. A tape recorder was used with each interview throughout the data collection process. All tape cassettes were then ready to be transcribed for data analysis. In addition, written notes were taken, to record certain incidents in the interview to be used as reference at a later date and to support data analysis.

4.7 Data Management

Based on theoretical perspectives of data management reviewed in chapter three, data management activities in this research were performed as described below.

4.7.1 Data Processing: Transcription of Interview Data

This research collected data in the field and from literature that allowed the researcher to become familiar with and to the target respondents/stakeholders.

The transcription of the first interview was made by the researcher in order to gain personal experience and to appreciate the whole process of the research. The transcriptions of the twenty-nine (29) interviews were made by five professional fee-for-service transcribers. To ensure the accuracy of the transcription, another professional transcriber, who is a senior transcriber with more experience, was assigned to review and make necessary corrections of all the transcripts made by the five professional transcribers. The results of these transcriptions were that about thirty (30) pages were produced for each interview and in total there were about nine hundred (900) pages of transcripts. All the transcripts were then finally reviewed, corrected and translated into the English language by the researcher. The translated version of the transcripts then became the final transcripts to be used in the data analysis process of this research. There were about three hundred (300) pages of the final transcripts for use in the data analysis.

4.7.2 Data Storage, Retrieval and Retention

A data storage and retrieval system based on Huberman and Miles (1998) and Creswell (1998), was established to handle the storage and retrieval of data in this research. Files were established and maintained for retention, in easily retrievable form, of all study materials, from raw field notes through data displays and final report text (Huberman & Miles 1994; Miles & Huberman 1994; Silverman 2000b). Backup files of data were also established in separate files in computer and in pen drives. The backup files were also recorded in the form of CD Rom. Data obtained during the research is being maintained and retained for five years by the Graduate School of Business of Curtin University of Technology.

4.8 Data Analysis

Content analysis was used according to the protocols of grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss 1967). A meaningful utterance was the unit of analysis. This represented a coded item or construct. Constructs were grouped into categories which included negative and positive cases. Construct comparisons were done within and between categories as the analysis developed. Theoretical sensitivity (Glaser & Strauss 1967) was applied so that, at the stage of concept emergence, theoretical codes could enrich the analysis. From the data, core categories and then core concepts were sought.

In order to help facilitate the process of data management and analysis it was originally planned that the NUD*IST (Richards & Richards 1994; Richards 1999) technology would be used in this research. This includes theory building and developing systematic, conceptually coherent explanations of findings or theories (Weitzman 2000; Charmaz 2000; Creswell 1998). However, it was later decided that the Atlas ti technology was more appropriate and was selected for use instead of the NUD*IST. The decision was made based on the greater simplicity of operation and the benefits derived from using of Atlas ti (Muhr & Friese 2004).

Through the Atlas ti the data analysis in this research was begun by the transforming of each transcript into the text document or primary document. This was done by using the notepad procedure. The primary document of each stakeholder group was then transferred into each hermeneutic file of each stakeholder group. There were ten hermeneutic files. Using the Atlas ti, coding was performed in each hermeneutic

file, one for each stakeholder group. Quotations were recorded for each code. Code comments were made by the researcher on each code. Memos also were made by the researcher where necessary. All the codes of each stakeholder group were reviewed and compared and code merges were made when it was found that one or more codes had similar meaning and could be merged together. Then codes families were established in each stakeholder group. The codes families were populated by grouping all the codes that fell into a similar category. The software allowed concept maps linking all the code in each family to be constructed. Now the data were ready for presentation of the findings and discussion.

4.9 Rigour Criteria

Based on the theoretical perspective discussed in chapter three, four dimensions of rigour or trustworthiness were applied in this research. The four criteria are: audit trail, familiarization study, triangulation, and authenticity.

4.9.1 Audit Trail

An audit trail of this research was established at the early stages of this research. It included relevant data and information from the start of the preparation of the research proposal. Items were revised and updated until the end of the research project. The audit trail of this research comprises four parts.

The first part consists of the files containing hard copies of data and information relevant to this research. The files are divided into eleven parts: general correspondence, admission/enrolment, course work, candidacy, interview guide/note/arrangement, transcriptions, data analysis/coding, drafted text, progress report, research diary, and miscellaneous. They were kept in a locked cabinet in the researcher's private office. The files are used and maintained by the researcher.

The second part of the audit trail is the backup files of relevant data such as the draft text, transcripts, hermeneutic files of data in the Atlas ti, for example, codes, codes families and others similar items.. They were recorded in two pen-drives and kept personally by the researcher.

The third part of the audit trail is the research diary. It is a daily record of all activities related to the research project. It was kept on a daily basis until the end of the research project. A selected sample of what is typically contained in the research diary is displayed below:

> *// 8 April 2005. ... I started working on my dissertation from 0635 hours. I finished the final revision of all code families at about 1000 hours. I revised the stakeholder groups list to reflect the name of each group. I also put the number of concepts (codes) emerged for each category (family). I started to rewrite chapter one. I finished the stakeholder theory and the research design parts of chapter one. I stopped at 2400 hours. ...//*

The last part of the audit trail of this research was the weekly progress report. It summarized the activities during the week. The report comprised accomplishments during the past week and the plan for the following week. Comments also were made in the report. It was submitted to the Graduate School of Business of Curtin University on a weekly basis. A selected sample of the weekly progress report is provided below:

> *// Weekly Progress Report of 9-13 February 2004. ...I have completed four interviews this week. The total number of interviews I have conducted up until today is 22 persons. I will complete 3 interviews next week and I will complete the last group of interviews (5) on 27 February. The total of interview will be 30 people. More interviews may be done afterward if necessary. ... I have completed transcription of one interview by myself. It had been printed out and it is 12 page long. I have sent one tape cassette of the second interview to a professional transcriber for a trying out. ...//*

4.9.2 Familiarization Study

This research studied ten groups of stakeholders of the Thai industrial relations system. Each member of the stakeholder group came from different personal and family educational backgrounds. They had different educational backgrounds and experience. They also had different status, both in terms of work and social roles. In order to be able to obtain the needed information from them through effective interviews - acquaintance and familiarization with them was a must for the researcher (Whiteley & Whiteley 2005). This concept is based on social interaction proposed by Blumer (1984) and put in practice in the waterfront study by Whiteley and McCabe (2001). Whiteley (2002b) writes the following:

> The familiarisation visits and exploratory chats were, in part, conducted so that we could 'hear' the subtle differences in the various voices (and even, for that matter to become aware that there were subtle differences). Fortunately, we were far enough removed in our daily lives from waterfront life to be in as much as danger as we would have been had we been studying academics (Whiteley 2002b, p.22).

In order to get to know them better before the interviews were held, the researcher had to seek opportunities to meet with them through several means both during their on duty and off duty times. Through his personal network in the private sector and his appointment to several committees of business federations, associations and groups, the researcher had chances to make contact and acquaintance with prospective interviewees. These include the committee in the Federation of Thai Industries, Thailand Management Association, Personnel Management Association of Thailand, and APEC CHRO Network Thailand. Through these private sector organizations the researcher had chances to meet with employers, both in the unionized and non-unionized companies, and also with human resource managers. In the government sector the researcher was appointed to a number of councils and committees such as the National Economic and Social Advisory Council, The National Advisory Council for Labour Development, the Employment Development and Job Seekers Protection Committee, and the Skills Development Promotion Committee. These committees comprised government officials, academic, employers and trade unionists and management including human resource managers.

The researcher had to attend several meetings, seminars or training sessions organized by government agencies, the official tripartite bodies and the like, in order to have the chance to meet and become acquainted with the prospective interviewees. Meetings or seminars and training sessions organized by trade union centres at the national level or any other foundations or organizations supporting trade union were also attended by the researcher. In addition social functions hosted by these organizations were also attended by the researcher for the acquaintance and familiarization purposes.

In addition to the above activities the researcher had developed several stories to be used in the opening of the interview sessions for each group of stakeholders interviewed. The stories told about the background of the research project, its

objectives, its significance, its scope, its benefits and the like and its relevance to the particular respondent. The stories for each group required a slightly different level of language to suit the background of the respondent. In some cases, especially for the employees of non-unionized companies groups, a local North Eastern dialect was used in the familiarisation or warm up period of the interview. The researcher made several rehearsals of the story-telling to be used in the opening and at the ending of the interview of each stakeholder group.

4.9.3 Triangulation

Triangulation of data sources was applied in this research. The technique of comparing and cross-checking the consistency of information derived at different times and by different means within this research was applied. This has been done through comparing the perspectives of people from different points of view - the ten groups of stakeholders of the Thai industrial relations system. In addition, documents and other written evidence that could corroborate what respondents reported such as laws, regulations, rules, procedures and announcements related to industrial democracy in Thailand were also checked. For example, interviews conducted in non-unionized companies with employees at shopfloor level, employees at supervisory level and top management in the capacity of employers. Data obtained from these interviews were cross checked against each other to ensure the consistency of information. A similar approach was applied in the case of trade unions and employer organizational group leaders where applicable.

In addition, documents and other written evidence that could corroborate what interview respondents reported such as laws, regulations, rules, procedures and announcements related to industrial democracy in Thailand were also checked. For example, whenever there was any doubt or question about the information obtained from the interview a cross check was made with company documents registered with respective government agencies. In some cases the company working rules and regulations or the agreement on terms and conditions of employment made with trade unions were checked to verify the correctness of the information. In the case of government officials and the members of official tripartite bodies, the laws, rules and regulations governing such government agencies and the official tripartite bodies were also checked to ensure the consistency of the information.

4.9.4 Authenticity

Authenticity checks conducted in this research included: obtaining informed consent from all members of the expert panel and all respondents, accuracy checks, plausibility checks and additional interviews with certain respondents. All the informed consents were obtained from the members of the expert panel during the process of developing the interview guide for this research. All informed consent from all respondents was obtained from each of them during the interview process. An accuracy check for translation of the Thai version of the transcript into the English language was conducted. A plausibility check for accuracy of coding in data analysis process was conducted. Additional interviews were conducted with eight respondents to obtain additional information and clarification of information formerly obtained.

4.10 The Ethical Protocol

Based on the theoretical perspectives presented in chapter three, the following ethical protocols were followed in the conduct of this research.

4.10.1 Informed Consent

In planning and conducting this research the researcher has fully complied with the requirements of the informed consent. In the process of creating an interview guide an expert panel comprising one representative of each of the eight stakeholder groups of the industrial relations system in Thailand was established. The expert panel reviewed and provided feedback on the draft interview guide to the researcher. They were invited to participate in this research project on a voluntary basis. Their consent was obtained in verbal form and a confirmation in writing of their consent was also obtained. In conducting tape-recorded in-depth interviews, verbal consent was applied as originally planned. Each respondent was fully informed at the beginning of each interview of the nature of the project and the potential risks and benefits. Each respondent was then asked by the interviewer if he/she understood the information and was still willing to take part in the interview. All respondents confirmed their voluntarily participation.

4.10.2 Deception

There was no deception practiced in the planning and conduct of this research. All activities in the process of planning and conducting of this research were performed in a straightforward manner.

4.10.3 Privacy and Confidentiality

To comply with the privacy and confidentiality requirements, the members of the expert panel and the respondents were not referred to by their name or position in the body of the research document. All tape-recordings, transcripts and traceable documents were withheld from the respondent's respective organization. The fee-for-service transcription providers were required to sign a personnel agreement for maintaining confidentiality form. The result of the research is presented in a format that does not indicate the origin of the data.

4.10.4 Accuracy

To comply with the accuracy requirement, all information received was handled and processed in a manner that was as true to its original delivery as possible. The Thai language transcriptions provided by the fee-for-service providers were reviewed against tape-recordings and corrections were made by a senior professional transcriber. All transcripts were then reviewed, corrected, and translated into the English language by the researcher before used for data analysis. In order to ensure the accuracy of the translation from Thai into the English language, an accuracy check was performed by members of the researcher's thesis committee. To ensure the plausibility of coding, accuracy checks were made by the thesis committee representative.

4.10.5 Reciprocity

To return the reciprocity to the participants in this research, particularly all the members of the expert panel and all the respondents, a copy of this research, once it has been finally approved, will be sent to them individually by registered mail. A covering letter expressing deep appreciation to them for their participation will be prepared and signed by the researcher.

In addition to having followed the ethical principles discussed above in planning and conducting this research, the researcher has strictly observed the ethical policy and practice as prescribed by Curtin University of Technology. The research proposal was submitted to the thesis committee for review and approval. The presentation of the research proposal was made and approval was granted by the thesis committee. The approved proposal was then submitted to an Academic Board of study for further review and approval. The approved proposal was then referred to the ethics committee.

4.11 Conclusion

The objective of this chapter was to present a detailed description of the research methodology used in this research. The introduction was followed by the research objectives. The description of research methodology began with the research paradigm and strategy.

The chapter then described the research design, beginning with the discussion of the data collection process including the theoretical sampling procedures. Based on the review and discussion of the data collection process and method, an in-depth interview was selected as the method for data collection and an interview guide was selected for use with the semi-structured interview. The chapter then described the data management activities which included data processing, data storage, retrieval and retention, followed by the description of the procedures for data analysis. Rigour or trustworthiness of the research was then described and followed by the ethical protocol and reciprocity. The chapter ended with chapter conclusion.

CHAPTER 5: FINDINGS PRESENTATION

This chapter presents the findings from ten stakeholder groups. Using purposive sampling, as explained in chapter three and chapter four, eight groups were selected. As a result of respondent's suggestions, two more groups were added to the study. The resulting ten stakeholder groups were:

Stakeholder group 1: employees of non-unionized companies - shopfloor level;
Stakeholder group 2: employees of non-unionized companies - supervisory level;
Stakeholder group 3: trade union leaders - national level;
Stakeholder group 4: trade union leaders - company level;
Stakeholder group 5: employers of non-unionized companies;
Stakeholder group 6: employer organization leader group;
Stakeholder group 7: government officials;
Stakeholder group 8: members of tripartite bodies;
Stakeholder group 9: human resource managers;
Stakeholder group 10: labour academics.

The structure of this chapter follows the research objectives:

To identify knowledge of industrial democracy in Thailand as perceived by selected stakeholders
To investigate the similarities and differences in stakeholder perceptions of industrial democracy
To compare the similarities and differences in stakeholder perceptions of industrial democracy
To identify problems and difficulties encountered from the practicing of industrial democracy within Thai business organizations
To emerge best practices in industrial democracy as expressed by the stakeholders

The areas of concern predictably were not identical across the ten stakeholder groups. However, the ten groups did share some major areas of concern. Examples of these are benefits of participation, problems in participation and participation itself. An important point is that while the conceptual categories headings may often be shared across all or most of the stakeholder groups the content of the categories varies significantly.

First, a composite table of industrial democracy categories across the ten stakeholder groups is presented. This is followed by a brief comment. A composite table of the categories of meaning emerged from the ten stakeholder groups described above, can

be seen in table 5.1. The density of the categories, (that is the number of utterances that populate a conceptual category) is shown by the numbers in brackets.

Table 5.1: Conceptual categories of each stakeholder group

SG-1: Employee - shop-floor level	SG-2: Employee - supervisory level	SG-3: Trade union - national level	SG-4: Trade union - company level	SG-5: Employer - non-unionized company
Barriers to implementation (5)	Barriers to implementation (5)	Barriers to implementation (21)	Barriers to implementation (24)	Barriers to implementation (11)
Benefits of participation (43)	Benefits of participation (59)	Benefits of participation (68)	Benefits of participation (49)	Benefits of participation (61)
		Collective bargaining (15)		
Committees (17)	Committees (16)	Committees (54)	Committees (29)	Committees (16)
Communication (22)	Communication (24)		Communication (12)	Communication (22)
Cultural issues (10)	Cultural issues (13)	Cultural issues (9)	Cultural issues (15)	Cultural issues (31)
Democracy (20)	Democracy (20)	Democracy (28)	Democracy (31)	Democracy (22)
Meeting (18)	Meeting (39)	Meeting (13)		Meeting (18)
Others (3)	Others (4)	Others (1)	Others (6)	Others (5)
Participation (47)	Participation (52)	Participation (62)	Participation (54)	Participation (77)
Problems in participation (65)	Problems in participation (33)	Problems in participation (77)	Problems in participation (85)	Problems in participation (71)
			Safety (11)	
Suggestion (16)	Suggestion (6)			
		Trade union issues (83)	Trade union issues (66)	
Training and development (7)	Training and Development (6)	Training and development (17)	Training and development (15)	Training and development (9)
Welfare (13)	Welfare (24)		Welfare (10)	Welfare (8)

Table 5.1: Conceptual categories of each stakeholder group (continued)

SG-6: Employer organization leader group	SG-7: Government officials	SG-8: Members of tripartite bodies	SG-9: Human resource managers	SG-10 : Labour academic
Barriers to implementation (23)	Barriers to implementation (20)	Barriers to implementation (19)	Barriers to implementation (29)	Barriers to implementation (50)
Benefits of participation (45)	Benefits of participation (43)	Benefits of participation (52)	Benefits of participation (56)	Benefits of participation (59)
Collective bargaining (5)	Collective bargaining (7)	Collective bargaining (12)		Collective bargaining (7)
Committees (13)	Committees (25)	Committees (17)	Committees (10)	Committees (7)
	Communication (5)		Communication (57)	Communication (7)
Cultural issues (25)	Cultural issues (26)	Cultural issues (25)	Cultural issues (33)	Cultural issues (17)
Democracy (26)	Democracy (16)	Democracy (30)	Democracy (23)	Democracy (50)
			Meeting (12)	
Others (4)	Others (4)	Others (3)	Others (3)	Others (11)
Participation (81)	Participation (59)	Participation (83)	Participation (85)	Participation (78)
Problems in participation (51)	Problems in participation (96)	Problems in participation (86)	Problems in participation (40)	Problems in participation (83)
Trade union issues (20)	Trade union issues (25)	Trade union issues (29)	Trade union issues (22)	Trade union issues (38)
Training and development (15)		Training and development (12)		
Welfare (5)	Welfare (14)	Welfare (10)	Welfare (13)	Welfare (8)

There were seven conceptual categories (referred to as categories) of meaning shared by all stakeholder groups. These were: barriers to implementation; benefits of participation; committees; cultural issues; democracy; participation; and problems in participation. Five stakeholder groups: Trade union leaders - national level (SG-3), Employers organization leader group (SG-6), Government officials (SG-7), Member

of tripartite bodies (SG-8) and Labour academics (SG-10) made mention of collective bargaining while communications emerged in seven stakeholder groups: Employees of non-unionized companies - shopfloor level (SG-1), Employees of non-unionized companies - supervisory level (SG-2), Trade union leaders -company level (SG-4), Employers of non-unionized companies (SG-5), Government officials (SG-7), Human resource managers (SG-9) and Labour academics (SG-10). Suggestions emerged in two groups, Employees of non-unionized companies - shopfloor level (SG-1) and Employees of non-unionized companies - supervisory level (SG-2) while safety emerged in only in Trade union leaders - company level (SG- 4). Trade union issues emerged in seven groups: Trade union leaders - national level (SG-3), Trade union leaders - company level (SG-4), Employers organization leader group (SG-6), Government officials (SG-7), Member of tripartite bodies (SG-8), Human resource managers (SG-9) and Labour academics (SG-10) while training and development are emerged in seven groups: Employees of non-unionized companies - shopfloor level (SG-1), Employees of non-unionized companies - supervisory level (SG-2), Trade union leaders - national level (SG-3), Trade union leaders - company level (SG-4), Employers of non-unionized companies (SG-5), Employers organization leader group (SG-6) and Member of tripartite bodies (SG-8). The category of welfare emerged in all groups except Employees of non-unionized companies - supervisory level (SG-2). Those concepts that are not appropriate to be located in the existing categories in each group or in cases where the total number of such concepts in each group were less than five concepts are placed in the category named 'others'.

Secondly, with the use of network maps and quotation extracts, each stakeholder group category will be presented. Each category, having been presented in a network map followed by quotation extract will be commented upon by the researcher.

5.1 Employees of Non-Unionized Companies - Shopfloor Level; Stakeholder Group One

This stakeholder group comprises employees of non-unionized companies who are working at the shopfloor level. There were three respondents in this group. There are 13 categories in this group as presented in Table 5.1, SG-1. Following the network map will be extracts from quotations from the three respondents. The convention for separating extracts will be " // ".

5.1.1 Barriers to Implementation

(Employees/non-unionized - Shopfloor level; SG-1)

The first category is barriers to the implementation of industrial democracy. There are 5 concepts in this category as presented in the network map displayed in Figure 5.1.1.

Figure 5.1.1: Barriers to implementation

(Employees/non-unionized - Shopfloor level; SG-1)
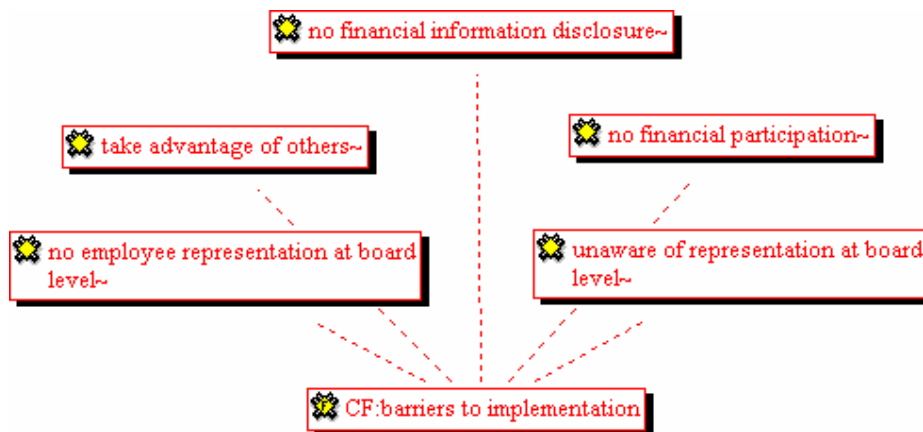
// There is no employee representative in the board of directors. // I did not know if there is this practice in other companies. // I do not know whether there is employee representative in the board of directors or not. // There is no financial participation here. There is no financial information disclosure. ... // ... Some of them work harder but some of them went to the restroom too long and loafing and it continually being problems. Some of them were loafing in the rest room or went for eating or doing other things and let the other employee works hard alone. When the work is not up to the requirements there will be problems. The person who works harder is under pressure. //

The barriers to implementation expressed by this stakeholder group were concentrated in three main areas: no employee representation at board level; no financial participation; no financial information disclosure; and employees take advantage of each other.

5.1.2 Benefits of Participation
(Employees/non-unionized - Shopfloor level; SG-1)

The next category is benefits of participation. There are 43 concepts in this category as presented in the network map displayed in Figures 5.1.2 and 5.1.3.

Figure 5.1.2: Benefits of participation
(Employees/non-unionized - Shopfloor level; SG-1)

Figure 5.1.3: Benefits of participation

(Employees/non-unionized - Shopfloor level; SG-1)

// … The country will gain befits since the product we produce has quality and the product is for export it will help bringing in more foreign income to our country. The country economic will be better. // If we work with better quality and have more knowledge and understanding … and when we have more knowledge and our products are more developed we can become number one and compete with foreign competitors. // I think employee participation will benefit the country because it will prevent conflict between management and employees. … I think if employees can participate the conflicts will be less. // … the company knows the shortcomings and knows what employees wanted and can operate smoothly. If the company can operate smoothly without any problem and employees dedicate to work the product that delivered to customer will have quality then the customer is satisfied and buy more. // … able to improve working methods from employee ideas. // … looks after employees quite good. // … improvement is bus services and in the canteen there are herb drinks served instead of soft drink which making employees getting fat. This is good and the rice is cheaper, only Baht 5 we can eat or even if we do not have money we still can eat at the canteen because we can use our credit card. We can also buy and take home too. For the dispensary the doctor comes according to the schedule and we can see the doctor according to the schedule. //

Benefits of participation expressed by this stakeholder group ranged from the benefit to the country; benefits for both parties - the company and the employees; benefits to company; and finally benefits to employees. However, one interesting point is that most of the benefits expressed here are the benefits to companies.

5.1.3 Committees (Employees/non-unionized - Shopfloor level; SG-1)

The next category is committees. There are 17 concepts in this category. Employee perceptions of participation through committees are displayed in Figure 5.1.4.

Figure 5.1.4: Committees (Employees/non-unionized - Shop floor level; SG-1)

//…There are some committees such as welfare committee, safety committee and transportation committee...// …We have welfare committee. They opened for employees to apply for election and posted the information of the applicants on the board and we went to elect like we elect our MP. I chose the persons I like and I feel like we elected the MP…// …This committee is elected every two years... There is a list of applicants and we elect the person we wanted by keying in the computer. The computer will produce the result of the election.// …The committee was to look after the bus service for employees. They had their meetings but I did not know what they were doing. They may have posted information on the bulletin board but I did not know about it... // …But there are some changes after we have elected the welfare committee. The changes

include improvement in bus services and in the canteen there are herb drinks served instead of soft drink which making employees getting fat. This is good and the rice is cheaper, only Baht 5 we can eat or even if we do not have money we still can eat at the canteen because we can use our credit card. We can also buy and take home too. For the dispensary the doctor comes according to the schedule and we can see the doctor according to the schedule… //

While there are several committees in the company, to have welfare committee is mandatory by law. Membership is elected by all employees. There are elections of welfare committees according to the law. However, the expressions of this stakeholder group indicated that there is no 'real' election in some companies. Although the committees in some companies are working quite well, employees expressed the desire to know more about committee activities.

5.1.4 Communication (Employees/non-unionized - Shopfloor level; SG-1)

The next category is communication. There are 22 concepts in this category. Employee perceptions of communication are given in Figure 5.1.5.

Figure 5.1.5: Communication

(Employees/non-unionized - Shopfloor level; SG-1)

> *// There are bulletin boards and internal broadcasting system. The method for dissemination of information includes posting on bulletin board and website. We can look at HR website but it is in general and it is ordinary matters. I looked at the website and I found that the information in it was not up to date and there are some matters that are not related to us. // I would like management and employees to sit down and talk even on work matters and come up with the same direction I do not know whether this is possible or not. I feel that what we are doing now is not enough. // … I think by this way we will be able to get down to the problems better than writing suggestions. // The management said that we can walk in to meet them at any time but employees dare not do so. //*

It should be noted that although certain advanced electronic media such as website and emails, internal broadcasting and paging systems were used in communication, the traditional media like bulletin board and newsletters were widely used. However, these communication methods are one-way communication and employees

expressed their preference for direct communication such as to sit down and talk in an informal way. Another point is that although the company has an open door policy in place employees are not using this policy.

5.1.5 Cultural Issues (Employees/non-unionized - Shopfloor level; SG-1)

The next category is cultural issues. There are 10 concepts in this category. Employee perceptions related to cultures are provided in Figure 5.1.6.

Figure 5.1.6: Cultural issues (Employees/non-unionized - Shopfloor level; SG-1)
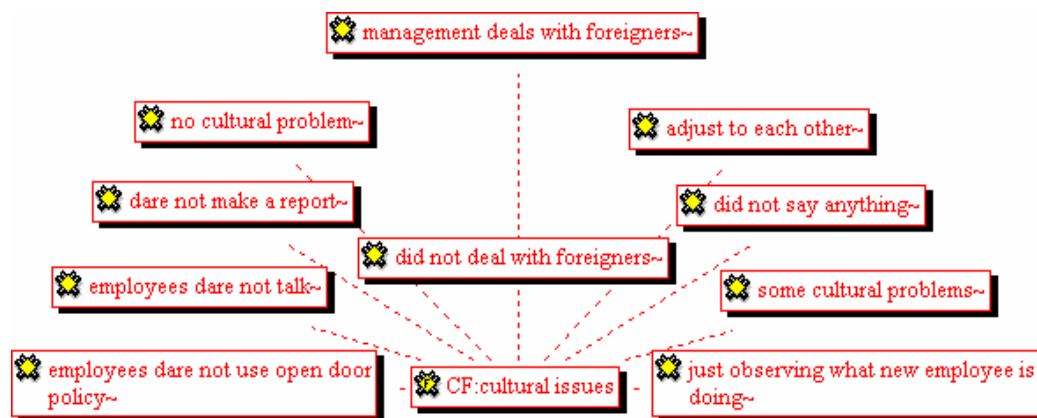
> *// If each employees can adjust to each other well and compromise to each other there should be no problem. But some of them have aggressive habit of fighting and confrontation and I think this creates problems. // I have faced with this kind of problems before but I did not say anything and I just let it go. // If we saw something that might be going wrong we dare not make a report to supervisor. If there is no damage occurred the case will not go to the supervisor because it would cause problem for us if we report to the supervisor. We just watch at a distance. // …There is no cultural problem here. We did not deal with foreigners. // I think we have some cultural problems especially with expatriates. The problem I faced with is that we cannot communicate with them as we cannot speak English… //*

One of the most important points that emerged here is that the Thai culture has strong influence over employees even at the same level. Employees choose to keep quiet and watch at a distance instead of informing other employees about mistakes or reporting them to the supervisor. Another point is that employees feel that there are some cultural problems when dealing with expatriates and that language is a major barrier.

5.1.6 Democracy (Employees/non-unionized - Shopfloor level; SG-1)

The next category is democracy. There are 20 concepts in this category. Employee perceptions related to democracy are provided in Figure 5.1.7.

Figure 5.1.7: Democracy (Employees/non-unionized - Shopfloor level; SG-1)

// For industrial democracy I would like to have employees participate in thinking with management and have equity no matter what management think or does anything I would like to have employees participate in all activities. // In my opinion it is a matter of equity rather than democracy as it involves what they think for example management think and cascade down to supervisor and the supervisor in the line cascade down to us... // Industrial democracy is that employees express their ideas to management because management has different ideas from employees. // I can express my ideas to the group about the problems related to our work and to resolve work problems ...// ...They opened for employees to apply for election and posted the information of the applicants on the board and we went to elect like we elect our MP. I chose the persons I like and I feel like we elected the MP. There were several applicants but we chose the persons equal to the number of the committee members as announced. // ...In arranging the new-year party, they vote for the band and food and etc. For food they sent employee representatives to taste the food and if it is good they will choose such restaurant. //

The concept of democracy that emerged from this stakeholder group stresses the expression of ideas; employee election to committees in the company; and the method of decision making of the committee. Although expression is allowed, employees recounted that they do not always have an opportunity to express their ideas.

5.1.7 Meeting (Employees/non-unionized - Shopfloor level; SG-1)

The next category is meeting. There are 18 concepts emerged in this category. Employee perceptions related to meeting are presented in Figure 5.1.8.

Figure 5.1.8: Meeting (Employees/non-unionized - Shopfloor level; SG-1)

// There are some meetings probably once a week and average about 3 times a month. The meeting is conducted by the supervisor and there are about 80 people in the group. The meeting last for about one half of hour. The issues discussed in the meeting are production plan and feed backs on mistakes and complaints from customers and how to correct them. //... There is a general meeting once in a while which is once a quarter. The general meeting discussed about the sales and if we have questions we can write on paper and send the question up to the management who conducts the meeting and if the

answer can be made the management will answer such questions...// The meeting is convened on a monthly basis. This is the regular meeting but if there is an urgent matter we can call for the extraordinary meeting. // ...I would like to have meetings more often. The meeting may be convened section by section and there should be a fixed schedule for the meeting ...So employees can express their ideas and management knows the problems... //

Meeting is a major means of employee participation in practice. There are several types of meetings such as meetings conducted by supervisors, managers and general meetings of all employees. There are also committee meetings. However, it was expressed that most of the meetings were for the purpose of communication with employees.

5.1.8   Participation (Employees/non-unionized - Shopfloor level; SG-1)

The next category is participation. There are 47 concepts in this category. Employee perceptions related to participation are displayed in Figures 5.1.9 and 5.1.10.

Figure 5.1.9: Participation (Employees/non-unionized - Shopfloor level; SG-1)

The conceptual map above represents about half of the comments and the rest are shown in figure 5.1.10.

Figure 5.1.10: Participation (Employees/non-unionized - Shopfloor level; SG-1)

no participation in technical matter~	
the company plays key role in policy matter~	
shift allowance~	profit sharing~
salary adjustment~	provident fund~
want to participate~	work coordination~
no problem on policy~	work related matters~
participate through QCC~	participate in all matters~
problem reporting system~	wants more participation~
salary increase calculated by management~	participate in thinking with management~
participate in only small matt..~	policy for more participation~
wants more direct participation~	salary increase based on profit~
noncompulsory share ownership scheme~	participation from the beginning to the end~
representative system is the best~ - CF:participation-2 -- participation through committees~	

// When we work in the line we did not have much opportunity to participate in decision making as we have to follow instruction from our leader and supervisor most of the time...// In our company we are allowed to participate in only small matters such as sport activities but employees did not have much chance to participate in technical activities...// I would like employees to participate in all matters related to all work of the company. // I would like to have employees participate more. When we spoke out we would like management to listen to us and allowed us to participate at that point too. Not to have only management think and order down but to have employees think and do what they think too. // There is no financial participation here. There is no financial information disclosure. // ... For profit if the company has profit the company will share with employees... For share purchasing it is up to the employee decision. It is not compulsory because employees may not have enough money to buy but most of the employees wanted to buy the shares. I also bought some shares and there are profits but I do not understand much about the rate of share purchasing. There are bonuses and paid twice a year so we received two months bonus per year...// ...In our company I feel that it is

good at a certain level as I have no difficulty. I can do according to the requirement and I have no problem at all. In future I think that the chance for employee to participate will be more…//

Several forms of participation emerged in this stakeholder group, such as financial participation in terms of profit sharing and shareholding. There were some expressions of not having opportunities for participation. While there is some dissatisfaction with elements of participation, there were expressions that employees were satisfied with the idea of participation. One of the interesting points is that employees expressed their desire for more participation.

5.1.9 Problems in Participation
(Employees/non-unionized - Shopfloor level; SG-1)

The next category is problems in participation. There are 65 concepts in this category. Employee perceptions related to problems in participation are displayed in Figures 5.1.11, 5.1.12 and 5.1.13.

Figure 5.1.11: Problems in Participation

(Employees/non-unionized - Shopfloor level; SG-1)

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Figure 5.1.12: Problems in Participation

(Employees/non-unionized - Shopfloor level; SG-1)

not enough information~

just observing what new employee is doing~

not being kept informed~

no promt action taken~

no election of committees~

need more improvement~

not much improvement from suggestion~

information is not related to employees~

no opinion expression in the meeting~

not satisfied with answers to suggestions~

not aware of policy problems~

information is not up to date~

no recognition for self study~

not aware of legal problems~

lack of understandingd of share ownership~

new employees not comply with procedures~

no opportunity for participation~

new and old employee conflicts~

no reason for benefits decreased~

not aware of committee acitivity~

no participation in technical matter~

CF:problems in participation-2

no learning activities for operator~

Figure 5.1.13: Problems in Participation

(Employees/non-unionized - Shopfloor level; SG-1)

// In general employees are at the lowest level and received order from management so employees may not understand democracy. Management issues order and that we have to work because it is the policy from customers or we have to do this way otherwise it would damage our work...// This may against the employee feelings or conflict with actual situations at work because management works outside the production lines...// We do not know much about what going on each day. // In our day to day working we did not have much chance to express our ideas because there is a work plan from senior management staff. There is a plan laid down in advance that how much we will produce each product. // For working system I feel that when we have problem we do not know who to consult because we cannot consult with supervisor. // When we brought up the problems with supervisor sometimes we get answer that senior management did not approved so when management issue any rule if we could not do it just do not do it. //...there is problem with this machine but there is no spare part to change so we have to continue working under this situation for the time being...//

Several concepts of problems in participation were emerged. However, one interesting point is that problems of relationship, both the relationship among employees themselves and the relationship with management, are expressed along with other problems.

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5.1.10 Suggestions (Employees/non-unionized - Shopfloor level; SG-1)

The next category is suggestions. There are 16 concepts in this category. Employee perceptions related to suggestion are displayed in Figure 5.1.14.

Figure 5.1.14: Suggestions (Employees/non-unionized - Shopfloor level; SG-1)
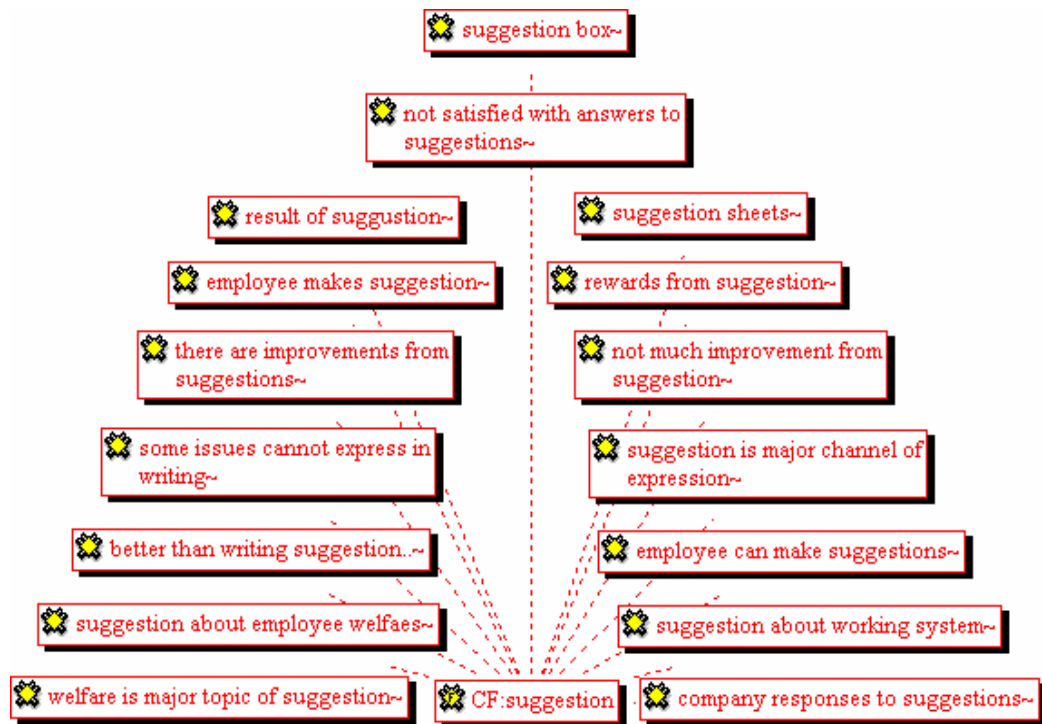
> *// There are suggestion sheets and suggestion boxes. I used to write suggestion too. We were informed of the results of our suggestions...// ... I think it is very useful because some employees they dare not talk so they write the suggestions and management will also know the problems from these suggestions...// The way we contact management is through suggestion box...// In respond to the suggestion the management will post the answer on the bulletin board. Sometimes they implement the suggestion and it is good that there are improvements...// ...We can make suggestions but there is not much improvement. There are some improvements but not much. I used to make suggestions and there are corrective actions but ii was slow and not up to our expectation. The supervisor gave some explanations but it was not clear...// Most of the suggestions are related to employee welfare and we are not satisfied with the answer...//*

One interesting point is that suggestions are a major channel for participation expressed in this stakeholder group and the major topic for suggestions to be made is employee welfare. While there was an expression that there were some

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improvements that came from suggestions; employees expressed that there was not much improvement as a result of suggestions and employees were not satisfied with the answers given to their suggestions.

5.1.11 Training and Development
(Employees/non-unionized - Shopfloor level; SG-1)

The next category is training and development. There are 7 concepts in this category. Employee perceptions related to training and development are displayed in Figure 5.1.15.

Figure 5.1.15: Training and Development

(Employees/non-unionized - Shopfloor level; SG-1)
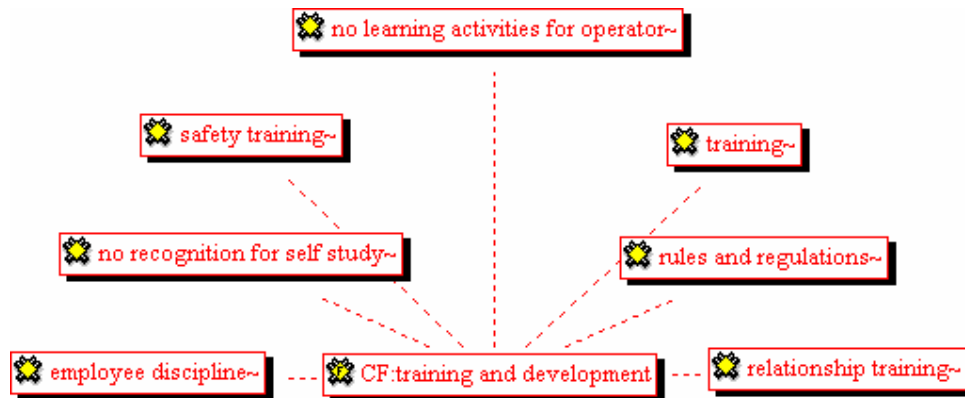
> *// There are some training about rules and regulations of the company and discipline before new employees starting their work...// In relations to our work there are training in how to work to have quality product. // The company provides some learning activities but not for the operator level but for the higher levels. For operator level we have to help ourselves. // There are some training provided for operator level which is about twice a month. When we go to study by ourselves and graduate from our study the company did not make any adjustment for us. //*

Employees commented that some training on rules and regulations and employee disciplines was given to new employees. Safety training also was mentioned. However, there was no learning activity for operators who are the front line workers and there was no recognition of employee self study.

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5.1.12 Welfare

(Employees/non-unionized - Shopfloor level; SG-1)

The next category is welfare. There are 13 concepts in this category. Employee perceptions related to welfare are displayed in Figure 5.1.16.

Figure 5.1.16: Welfare

(Employees/non-unionized - Shopfloor level; SG-1)

> *// The welfare here I think it is good...// I think the welfare in our company is good such as bonus... // ...there are some changes after we have elected the welfare committee... // The company looks after employees quite good... // I think that the company paid very high attention to employee safety and health. The company provides herb drink and milk for employees. For pregnant employees they are assigned to work in the library for temporary to do the light work in the library. It is very good practice. There are a lot of books in the library. There is karaoke for employees and there is also fitness room. We can use them during the break time or after working time... //*

Employees expressed satisfaction with employee welfare which included employee service facilities. Employee welfare also improved after the election of welfare committees. Although there were expressions of satisfaction with the employee welfare provided by employers there were some expressions of dissatisfaction with welfare of employees in the case of mergers and acquisitions.

5.2 Employees of Non-Unionized Companies - Supervisory Level; Stakeholder Group Two

This group comprises employees of non-unionized companies who are working at the supervisory level. There were three respondents in this group. There are 13 categories in this group as presented in Table 5.1, SG-2.

5.2.1 Barriers to Implementation
(Employees of non-unionized companies -supervisory level; SG-2)

The first category is barriers to the implementation of industrial democracy. There are 5 concepts in this category as presented in the network map displayed in Figure 5.2.1.

Figure 5.2.1: Barriers to implementation

(Employees of non-unionized companies - supervisory level; SG-2)
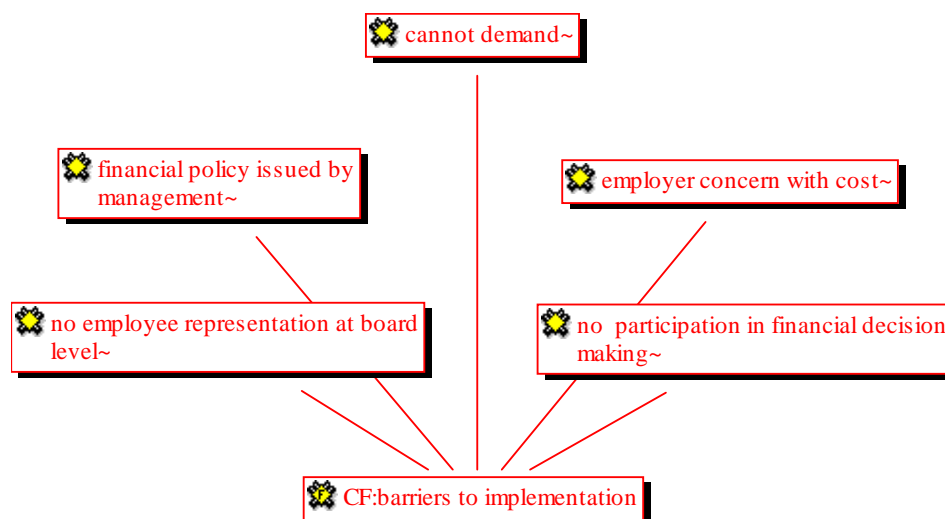
// …if the company is a newly established one we cannot demand much. But if it were an old company that everything had already been laid down and when we entered the company at once we will get all according to what it had been laid down. That is OK this is all the things and that we do not have the rights and we need not demand anything. // …The system has been established and I have to follow the procedures laid down in the system. The policy is issued by management… // …Since I was employed I have never participate in financial area. We know how much is our wage and they adjusted it when due… // …There is no employee representative in the board of directors. //There is no employee representative in the board of directors here. //I did not know of the practice in other companies. // …the practicing of industrial democracy will be

expanded in the future or not it is depending to a large extent on employees themselves. Because most of the employers they are more concerned with cost… //

The barriers to implementation expressed by this stakeholder group concentrated on three main areas: no employee representation at board level; no financial participation; and employer concerned with cost.

5.2.2 Benefits of Participation
(Employees of non-unionized companies -supervisory level; SG-2)

The second category is benefits of participation. There are 59 concepts in this category as presented in the network map displayed in Figures 5.2.2, 5.2.3 and 5.2.4.

Figure 5.2.2: Benefits of participation

(Employees of non-unionized companies -supervisory level; SG-2)

Figure 5.2.3: Benefits of participation

(Employees of non-unionized companies -supervisory level; SG-2)

Figure 5.2.4: Benefits of participation

(Employees of non-unionized companies -supervisory level; SG-2)
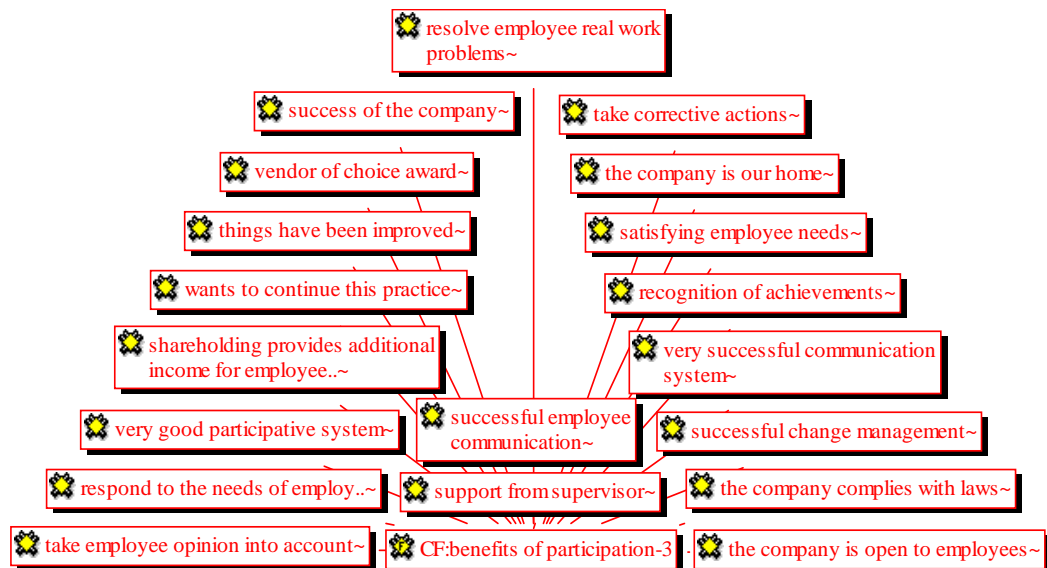
// ...I think it is good to have industrial democracy because democracy is the base for our country ruling system. // ... bring in foreign exchange to our country. // I think the country gains benefits in terms of getting quality people. // ...Employees in our company are very well disciplined. // The result of employee participation in the company is contributed to the country because if the company is success people will have job and have income which will contribute to the economic of the country. // In terms of work, the company can solve work problem faster with less expenses... // ... in our company employees dedicate to their work according to the requirements of the company by themselves. Sometimes we do not need to tell everything to employees but they did more than what we have asked for...// ...employees can ask for improvement of many things such as the route of the bus service for the benefits of employees or health and safety matters which is employee welfare. // There are a lot of improvements for example the food price is fairer and the quality and service are better... // ...After suggestions were made many things have been improved which is good. //

Benefits of participation expressed by this stakeholder group ranged from: the benefit to the country; benefits to the company; and finally benefits to employees. However, one interesting point is that most of the benefits expressed here are the benefits to companies.

5.2.3 Committees

(Employees of non-unionized companies - supervisory level; SG-2)

The third category is committees. There are 16 concepts in this category. Employee perceptions of participation through committees are displayed in Figure 5.2.5.

Figure 5.2.5: Committees

(Employees of non-unionized companies - supervisory level; SG-2)

> *//…There is a welfare committee in our company. This committee is elected from all employees. Any employee wants to apply for election can do so. The election is made in each shift too…// I think it is good here as we have welfare committee and we have everything… // …there are ad-hoc committees appointed from time to time such as new-year party committee. However, the welfare committee is the main one… // I think that this system is success in some area for example the canteen committee I think that they are very much successful…// …Some practical problems of participation that we have now is that when we received complaints from employees and we brought to the meeting we found that what the meeting was considering was not what the employees wanted…//*

While there are several committees, the company welfare committee must be elected by all employees. This is mandatory by law. There are elections of welfare committees according to the law. While employees express that the committee is a successful system another comment was that the committee did not respond to the exact needs of employees.

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5.2.4 Communication

(Employees of non-unionized companies - supervisory level; SG-2)

The fourth category is communication. There are 24 concepts in this category. Employee perceptions of communication are given in Figure 5.2.6.

Figure 5.2.6: Communication

(Employees of non-unionized companies -supervisory level; SG-2)

// There is an internal broadcasting system, bulletin board and billboard outside the factory or at the fence of the parking lot. There is a newsletter and also suggestion boxes...// In addition if there is an urgent matter that needed to communicate with employees the director will meet with managers and the managers meet with senior supervisors and the senior supervisor meet with supervisors and the supervisors communicate with direct labour. This type of communication may have to be done within 24 hours and senior management

will stay and meet with direct labour in each shift too. In some case there are guidelines for handling the meeting to ensure that we communicate the same thing the same. // ...The company normally issues announcements in writing. If we just talk in verbal it has less weight. Employees have confidence when they see the announcement with the signature of the person responsible for it... //

A combination of advanced electronics media such as emails and the traditional media like bulletin board and newsletter were widely used. Bill board was used by one company. It was noted that the participation and communication activity is dependant on the level of the employee position. Although the matter to communicate is urgent it still has to go through the chain of command in the company.

5.2.5 Cultural Issues

(Employees of non-unionized companies - supervisory level; SG-2)

The next category is cultural issues. There are 13 concepts in this category. Employee perceptions related to cultures are provided in Figure 5.2.7.

Figure 5.2.7: Cultural issue

(Employees of non-unionized companies -supervisory level; SG-2)
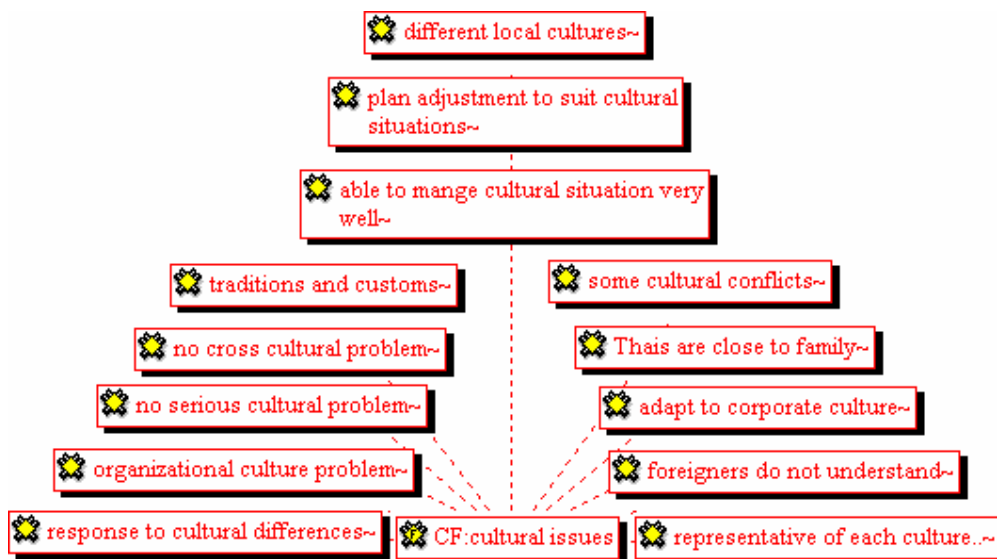
> *// There are some cultural conflicts in our company because there are differences in culture of foreigners and Thais. In our Thai culture we are close to our family and we have our own traditions and customs that tied to our family such as our Songkarn Festival [the Thai New Year] which foreigners do not have and they do not understand. Thais want to be with their family during the Songkarn Festival and we want to take off but for foreigners they do not have Songkarn and they want to produce and required employees to stay working which is conflict with our culture... // ...So we have to resolve the problem by talking to management that we may not be able to do 100%*

because most employees wanted to return to their home town to be with their family. We may be able to do about 50% and we adjusted the plan... //

One important point emerged here is that employees feel that there are some cultural problems in the company. The cultural problem is not limited to the problems between Thais and foreigners but also among the Thai employees themselves. Employees have to adapt themselves to the corporate culture while management has to adapt the plan to suit the different situations.

5.2.6 Democracy

(Employees of non-unionized companies - supervisory level; SG-2)

The next category is democracy. There are 20 concepts in this category. Employee perceptions related to democracy are provided in Figure 5.2.8.

Figure 5.2.8: Democracy

(Employees of non-unionized companies - supervisory level; SG-2)

// In my opinion I think it is democracy that we have rights to vote, we have rights in everything ... // I think we have rights to vote and express what is good and what is not good. // In the views of employees if there is democracy

employees have right to vote and when we voted the benefits are returned to us like Thai people elected the MP... // The management is concentrating in certain group of employees and they stress on tooling group. They think that if the tooling is not properly handled the output will not come out as planned. At the same time the employees feel that if the company has tooling but there is no employee in the production line the product will not come out too... // If it were to be democracy I think people must be equal. At present it is unequal. There are separated into different groups. Being equal I mean for example supervisor and office staff during the day shift everyone has things to eat and drink like coffee but in the graveyard shift the supervisor has nothing. There is no service for late night shift. The shift work is rotated but for the office staff the working time is fixed. // I look at majority for example in providing the new-year gift if we want to know what kind of gift that employees wanted for new-year we can issue questionnaires and we use the majority of the vote to make decision so employees are satisfied. //

The concept of democracy that emerged from this stakeholder group stressed expression; rights to vote; decisions made by the majority vote and equal treatment in the company.

5.2.7 Meeting (Employees of non-unionized companies -supervisory level; SG-2)

The next category is meeting. There are 39 concepts emerged in this category. Employee perceptions related to meeting are presented in Figurs 5.2.9 and 5.2.10.

Figure 5.2.9: Meeting

(Employees of non-unionized companies - supervisory level; SG-2)

Figure 5.2.10: Meeting

(Employees of non-unionized companies - supervisory level; SG-2)

> *// …The general meeting is convened every month. The general manager himself conducts the meeting. Directors and managers are also participated in the meeting. The issues discussed in the meeting include the target, the customer complaint, sales and the gaps between the target and accomplishments. // …following up of the work progress of every three months, the results of the company performance, revenue and expenses, new products, the products that bring more revenues to the company and the products that needed improvement, quality issues and etc. // …If there is a need to communicate the manager will have a meeting and if some corrective action is needed the unit concerned will be assigned to take corrective actions... // After the announcement of the election result the committee convened the meetings. // …The committee meets quite often at the beginning and lately the committee meets once every 2-3 months…//*

Meetings are a major means of employee participation as expressed by this stakeholder group. A general meeting is convened by management with all employees in the company. Issues discussed in the general meeting include information about company revenue and expenses, and sales situations. There are also committee meetings with management, conducted by manager and supervisors. When a situation requires, an extraordinary meeting may be convened. Employees also expressed the need to meet with employees of other companies in each area.

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5.2.8 Participation

(Employees of non-unionized companies - supervisory level; SG-2)

The next category is participation. There are 52 concepts in this category. Employee perceptions related to participation are displayed in Figures 5.2.11, 5.2.12 and 5.2.13.

Figure 5.2.11: Participation

(Employees of non-unionized companies - supervisory level; SG-2)
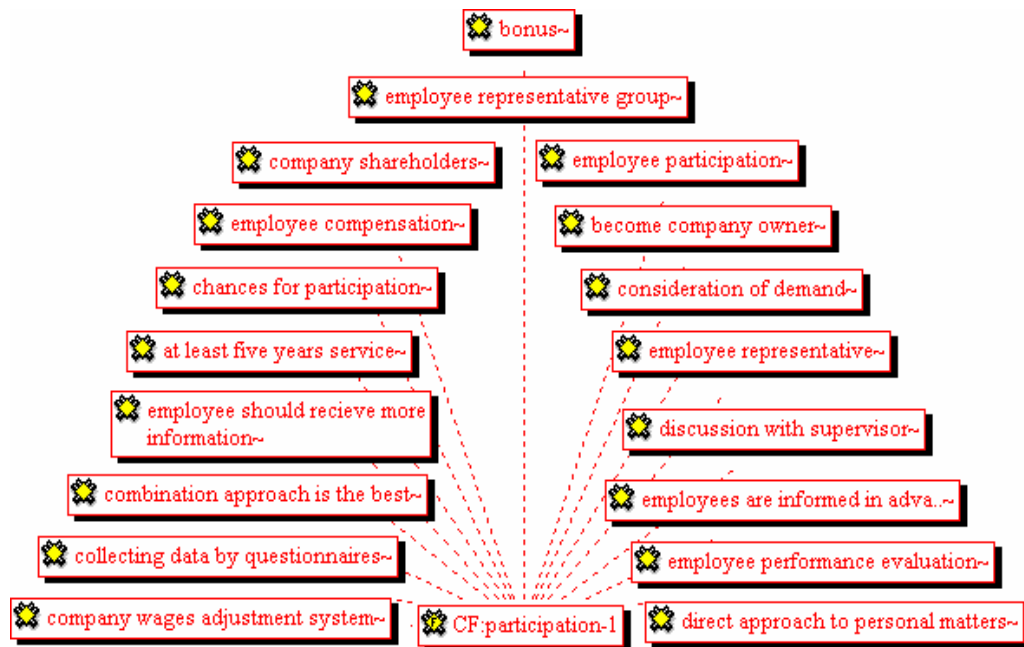
Figure 5.2.12: Participation

(Employees of non-unionized companies - supervisory level; SG-2)
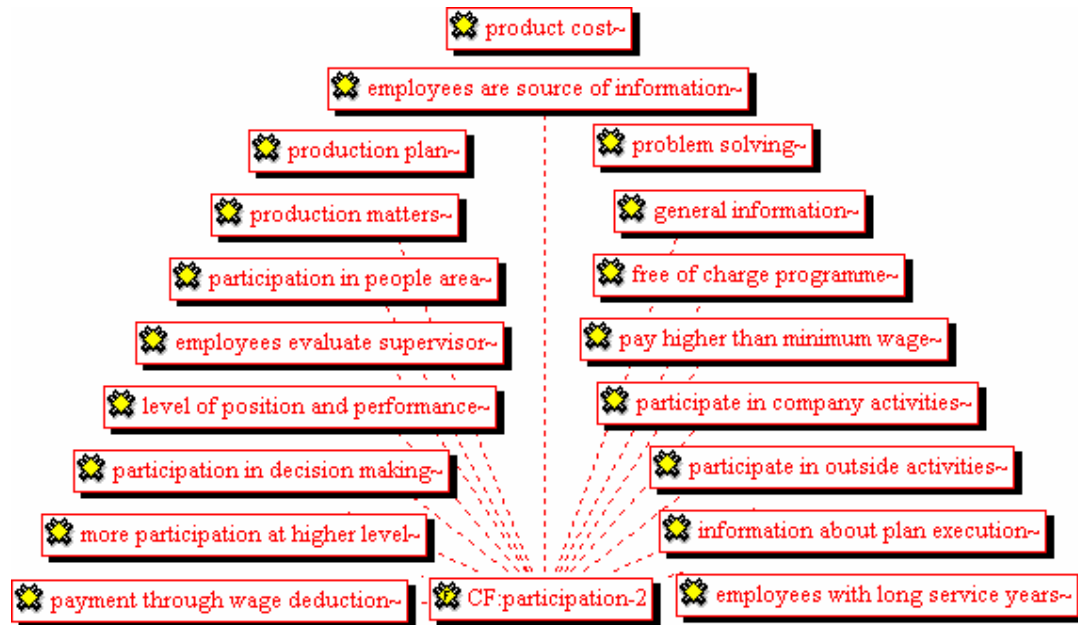
Figure 5.2.13: Participation

(Employees of non-unionized companies - supervisory level; SG-2)
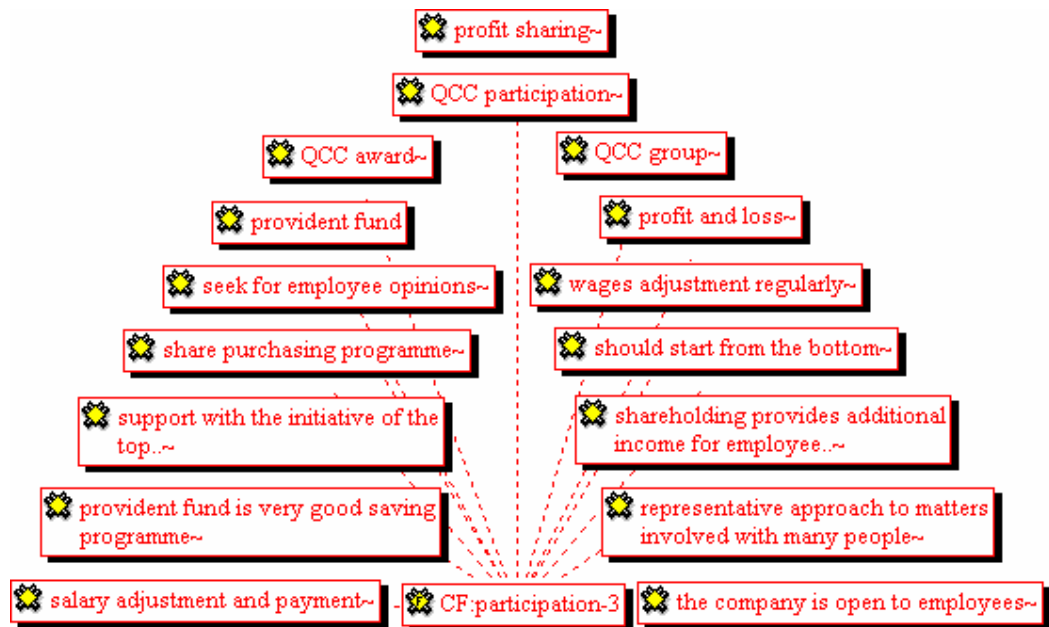
// …We have provident fund which the company contributed to match the employee contribution. We are informed every month of the status of our saving. I think it is a very good saving programme for employees and employees are satisfied with it. In case of emergency we can borrow money from the fund too and the interest rate is not high… // There is share purchasing programme for employees. I did not buy any share as I do not know how to handle it… // …The employee can sell the shares and it is additional income for employees… // There is profit sharing scheme. Each quarter there will be a review of company performance and if the company has profit the management will announce how much the profit is to be sharing with employees in terms of percentage. The announcement will be made on the bulletin board follow by the quarterly general meeting of employees to inform them in more details and to confirm the date of payment… // The company is open here and I think that it is good to open so everyone knows the information… // The information given is mainly involved production matters such as the total production plan for the month and the weekly plan, how many we have produced and where is the problem, in what mode we have problem and what we have to do to solve the problem. // participation is very good and I think it may be able to apply in other companies too. //

Several forms of participation emerged in this stakeholder group such as financial participation in terms of profit sharing, provident funds and shareholding. It was noted that employees had more opportunity for participation when promoted to higher level positions. It is interesting to note that in some companies, employees can

earn more through a share purchasing programme but employees expressed that the employees did not buy any shares because they did not know how to handle the purchase offer. It is also interesting to note that in some companies, management recognized the important of employee communication and made investment in this area by convening a general meeting with all employees in the company on a quarterly basis.

5.2.9 Problems in Participation

(Employees of non-unionized companies - supervisory level; SG-2)

The next category is problems in participation. There are 33 concepts in this category. Employee perceptions related to problems in participation are displayed in Figures 5.2.14 and 5.2.15.

Figure 5.2.14: Problems in Participation

(Employees of non-unionized companies - supervisory level; SG-2)
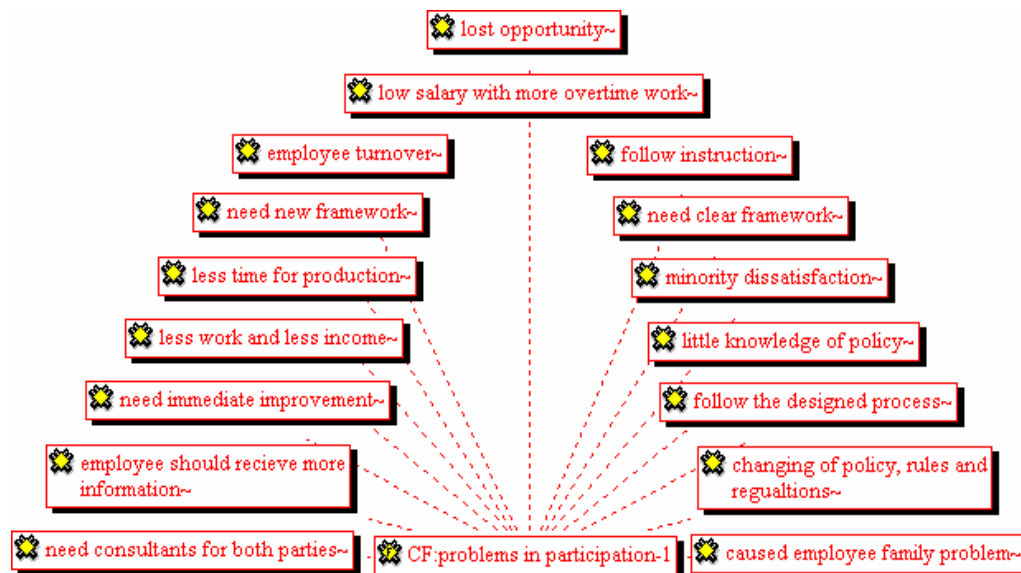
Figure 5.2.15: Problems in Participation

(Employees of non-unionized companies - supervisory level; SG-2)

```
                    ┌──────────────────────┐
                    │ no knowledge of law on │
                    │      participation~    │
                    └──────────────────────┘
                  ┌──────────────────────────┐
                  │ to follow established financial │
                  │          system~          │
                  └──────────────────────────┘
               ┌────────────────────────────┐
               │ wants a group to listen to employee │
               │            ..~             │
               └────────────────────────────┘
     ┌──────────────────┐              ┌──────────────────┐
     │ waste a lot of time~ │          │  no legal problem~  │
     └──────────────────┘              └──────────────────┘
     ┌──────────────────┐              ┌──────────────────┐
     │ poor payroll system~ │          │  no policy problem~ │
     └──────────────────┘              └──────────────────┘
   ┌──────────────────┐                ┌──────────────────┐
   │ no rights to demand~ │            │ unfixed holiday syatem~ │
   └──────────────────┘                └──────────────────┘
  ┌────────────────────────┐           ┌──────────────────────┐
  │ not know much about the law~ │      │ not know how to handle it~ │
  └────────────────────────┘           └──────────────────────┘
 ┌──────────────────────────┐          ┌────────────────────────┐
 │ respond to the majority needs~ │     │ problems of law interpretation~ │
 └──────────────────────────┘          └────────────────────────┘
┌──────────────────────────┐           ┌──────────────────────────┐
│ support with the initiative of the │  │ supervisor has no rights to make │
│         top..~           │           │         salary increase~         │
└──────────────────────────┘           └──────────────────────────┘
┌──────────────────────────┐ ┌────────────────────────┐ ┌──────────────────────────┐
│ present practice not good enough~ │ │ CF:problems in participation-2~ │ │ no knowledge about the programme~ │
└──────────────────────────┘ └────────────────────────┘ └──────────────────────────┘
```

// …we have to have a very clear framework what we can do and cannot do. In terms of work I think it has already been fixed but in the area of people I think we can participate in voting because employees at the operating level had no chance to talk with supervisor and did not have information about them.// For the practice in our company I feel that it is not good enough…// … at present all things are fixed and there is a need to come up with a new framework. // I think we need to have consultants to provide advice to both employees and employers so that both parties understand the law and can practice properly... // Employees in our country receive less information. If employees receive more information it would help them to be able to do a lot of things better... //

Several concepts in problems in participation emerged, including the problems related to laws concerning employee participation. In the area of financial participation it was expressed that supervisors had to follow only the established systems and procedures. There is an expression that the present system is not good enough and there is a need to have new and clear framework for participation.

5.2.10 Suggestions

(Employees of non-unionized companies - supervisory level; SG-2)

The next category is suggestions. There are 6 concepts in this category. Employee perceptions related to suggestion are displayed in Figure 5.2.16.

Figure 5.2.16: Suggestions

(Employees of non-unionized companies - supervisory level; SG-2)
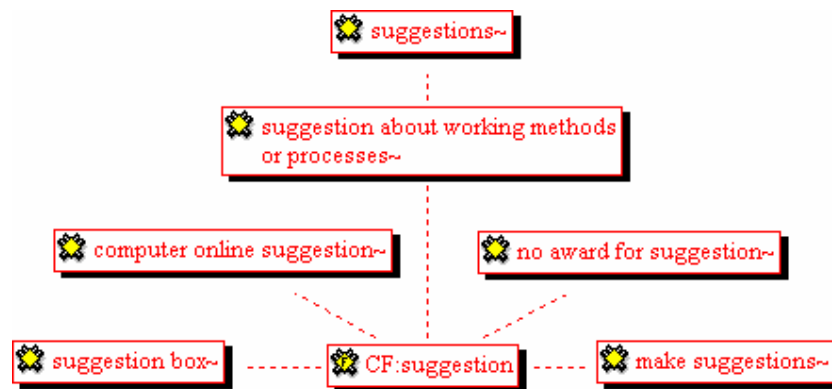
> *// The company also has suggestion box. // …that employees can write their suggestions and drop in the box. Most of the suggestions are the expressions of what they wanted or expression about the situations they feel that it should not have been that way... // If employees want to make any suggestion they can write and put in the box or they can write in computer or online. // …I can express my opinions and make suggestions in working. //… From my own experience the majority of the suggestions we received are the suggestions from the operators in the line. //*

Suggestion is a form of participation. The suggestion box is a major tool to obtain suggestions from employees while in one company a computer online suggestion was used. Most suggestions are related to working processes and it is interesting that most suggestions come from the first line operators.

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5.2.11 Training and Development

(Employees of non-unionized companies -supervisory level; SG-2)

The next category is training and development. There are 6 concepts in this category. Employee perceptions related to training and development are displayed in Figure 5.2.17.

Figure 5.2.17: Training and Development

(Employees of non-unionized companies - supervisory level; SG-2)
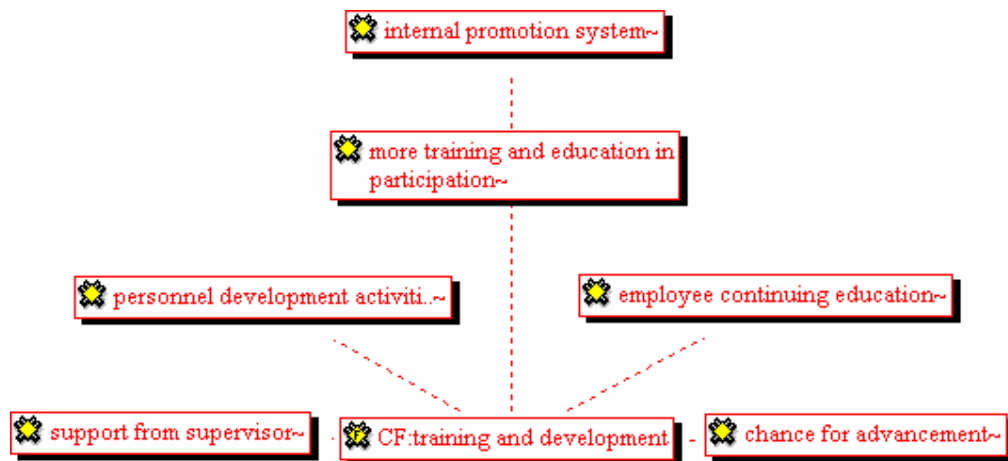
> *//... What I like the best here is the company open the chances for employees to progress in their job... // ... For example in my case I have only secondary school education and there is an opening for a supervisory position which they look for a person with a bachelor degree. My supervisor suggests to me to apply for the position. At the beginning I did not interested in it because as an operator we get overtime payment and the total payment we received is higher than the supervisor salary. But my supervisor explains to me the chance for advancement and I did apply and got the job. My income was not reduced because they give me the starting rate as same as the person who has a bachelor degree. This is what I like the best that the company gives chances for advancement for employees. // There are many personnel development activities for employees such as training and e-learning... // There should be more training and education on this matters and the company should promote this too. //*

One interesting point is that employees expressed the need for more training and education in the employee participation area. At the same time, several personnel development activities were provided and employees also enrolled in their continuing education programme while working. Employees also can advance through the company internal promotion system.

5.2.12 Welfare

(Employees of non-unionized companies - supervisory level; SG-2)

The next category is welfare. There are 24 concepts in this category. Employee perceptions related to welfares are displayed in Figure 5.2.18.

Figure 5.2.18: Welfare

(Employees of non-unionized companies - supervisory level; SG-2)

//For the library in the past we have an office but now we have moved into a building and use the vacant space to be beneficial to employees to seek their knowledge. // Others issues are half-year picnic or outing that all employees go for outing… // …and the other things are sports day and new-year parties and etc. In addition to the welfares that I have mentioned the committee is also involved with providing stress release activities such as Karaoke and VCD rental club. // …In case of emergency we can borrow money from the fund too and the interest rate is not high. There is no credit union here… //

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There are several types of welfare provided by the company such as employee outings, and the New Year party. It is interesting to note that one company provided library services to employees and also organized stress release. The welfare committee is the channel through which employees may participate in managing employees' welfare in the company.

5.3   Trade Union Leaders - National Level; Stakeholder Group Three

This group comprises trade union leader at the national level. There were three respondents in this group. There are 12 categories in this group as presented in Table 5.1, SG-3.

5.3.1 Barriers to Implementation (Trade union leaders - national level; SG-3)

The first category is barriers to the implementation of industrial democracy. There are 21 concepts in this category as presented in the network map displayed in Figure 5.3.1.

Figure 5.3.1: Barriers to implementation

(Trade union leaders - national level; SG-3)

// If we are to open for participation in everything I think the employer cannot take it because it consumes time in participation...// ...But if the trade union has advisor who uses the trade union for his own benefits the employees and the company would not be able to work together well and usually there would be fighting between the trade union and the company... // Because we have to accept one thing that the establishment of trade union in Thailand, the system that is happening that there are trade union establishment, I think it does not

come from the basis that they are already in good status and they want to have a trade union. But in majority cases I think almost one hundred percent trade unions were established because they have been pressed, squeezed, taken advantage of continually. Therefore, when it came to a certain point they could not stand it anymore... // I have not seen the clear policy about this... // I do not think that the government has clear policy to promote industrial democracy... // If the government official did not take it seriously I think instead of having benefits it may be harmful... // The government approach is not correct.// The law was not complied in practice. For example, the law prescribed that welfare committee must come from election but in practice each company select the committee members by itself... //

One interesting point on the barriers to implementation concepts emerged in this stakeholder group is that it stresses government activities in industrial democracy.

5.3.2 Benefits of Participation (Trade union leaders - national level; SG-3)

The next category is benefits of participation. There are 59 concepts in this category as presented in the network map displayed in Figures 5.3.2, 5.3.3 and 5.3.4.

Figure 5.3.2: Benefits of participation

(Trade union leaders - national level; SG-3)

Figure 5.3.3: Benefits of participation

(Trade union leaders - national level; SG-3)

management and trade union work together~

increase efficiency~

more customers~

making work easier~

it is a good system~

employment security~

investor confidence~

employee recognition~

more harm than good~

know the real problems~

improve work process~

open minded management~

it is very useful system~

more leaders in organization~

national economic growth~

improved employee welfares~

employees able to retain jobs~

improved working conditions~

low rate of employee turnover~

good relations with management...~

employees are more developed~

employees gain a lot of benefits~

CF:benefits of participation-2

improved employee performance~

Figure 5.3.4: Benefits of participation

(Trade union leaders - national level; SG-3)

// … it will be beneficial to the national economic. // From now on if it could go into the enterprise it will expand to outside. In the future it will promote democracy system, election system, the national administrative system. It will grow and it is starting from the grass root up too. // …I think it helps reducing unnecessary steps in work process and it helps reducing cost and increase efficiency too. // I think employees gain a lot of benefits from industrial democracy which include the benefits on working hours, rest times, welfares and wellbeing and employment security… // In doing any activity in the factory if the employees are not allowed to participate it will create problems. Or if employer just issues an order there will be problems because employees have no participation. If employees are participated they will feel that employer recognizes their values. This kind of feeling from employees will make the work go on smoothly… // But if there are representatives of lower level employees it will help to make the company policy clearer and all employees will cooperate as their representatives participating in formulating the policy… // The management will discuss with trade union and try to find the way to solve problems together… // … If management is opened and allowed trade union to talk about the policy I think the trade union is ready to support management because everyone work for their job security… //

Benefits of participation expressed by this stakeholder group ranged from: the benefit to the country; benefits to company; benefits to trade union; and finally

benefits to employees. However, one interesting point is that most of the benefits expressed here are the benefits to companies.

5.3.3 Collective Bargaining

(Trade union leaders - national level; SG-3)

The next category is collective bargaining. There are 15 concepts in this category. Employee perceptions of participation through collective bargaining are displayed in Figure 5.3.5.

Figure 5.3.5: Collective Bargaining

(Trade union leaders - national level; SG-3)
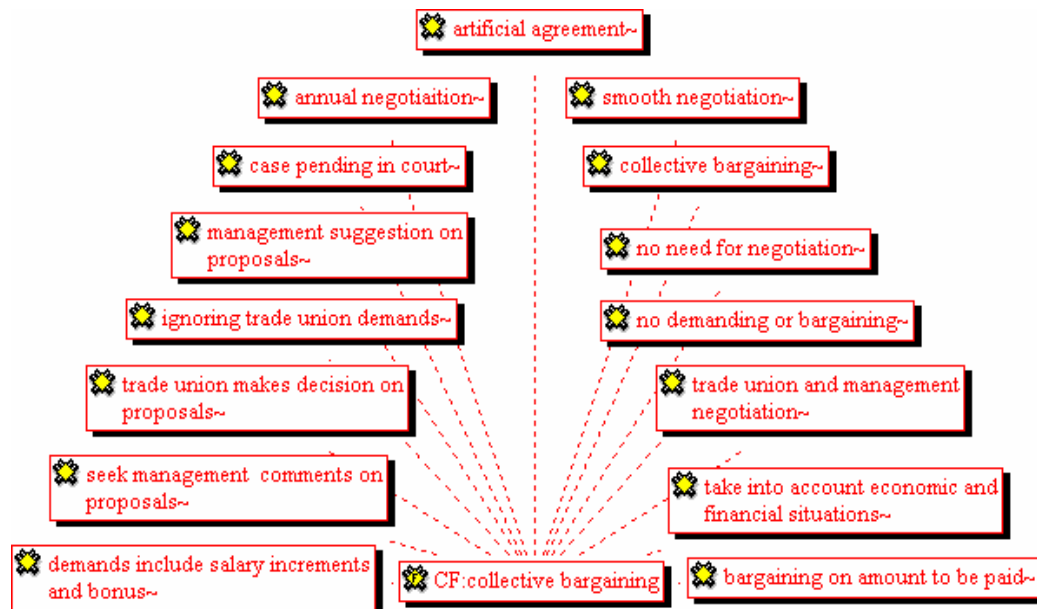
> *// …In collective bargaining the negotiations are not about the participation in financial decisions or financial management. Mostly the negotiation is about asking for more benefits, wages adjustments, bonuses or diligence allowances.*
>
> *These are the major topics of collective bargaining. So the negotiation is mostly about the amount to be paid... // …The case is that the trade union submitted the demands to the company by complying with all the requirements of the laws. At the same time the company made an agreement with other group of employees and registered that agreement with the labour office and ignoring the demand of the trade union. The company argues that there is already an agreement on terms and conditions of employment so there is no need for negotiation with trade union...// …What happened was that the company had a group of employees who are not member of trade union signed*

up their names on the types name lists of employees and attached to the demands that they made up and attached to the agreement on terms and conditions of employment that the company made up and took to register at the labour office. When we reported this to the labour office they could not do anything. So we brought the case to the labour court. Now the case is at the court. We fear that if this practice is spread over it will ruin the whole labour relations system... //

One interesting element in collective bargaining in this stakeholder group is that while collective bargaining worked quite well in one company there are problems in collective bargaining in other companies. Employers ignore trade union demands and the case mentioned was pending in court.

5.3.4 Committee

(Trade union leaders - national level; SG-3)

The next category is committee. There are 54 concepts in this category. Employee perceptions of participation through committees are displayed in Figures 5.3.6, 5.3.7 and 5.3.8.

Figure 5.3.6: Committee

(Trade union leaders - national level; SG-3)

Figure 5.3.7: Committee (Trade union leaders - national level; SG-3)

joint executive commitee~

may be starting point of trade union~

no audit no meeting~

safety committee~

no election in practice~

no committee meeting~

labour relations promotion committee~

no continuity of committee activities~

joint employee-management committee~

persons elected are employer representatives~

no meeting for three months~

just to comply with the law~

law required welfare committee election~

limited positions in trade union committee~

meeting once or twice a month~

proper application of committee~

list of names of welfare commi..~

labour official to witness election~

must have understanding of roles and responsibilities~

CF:committees-2

persons with the highest score are selected~

Figure 5.3.8: Committee (Trade union leaders - national level; SG-3)

welfare committee~

written notification to labour office~

trade union appointed employee committee~

self development of trade union committee~

welfare committee is better than nothing~

trade union representation in all committees~

trade union begins from employee committee~

the committee push the issues to trade union..~

trade union takes up all committee positions~

to take examination on subjects of participation~

several committees in a company~

trade union contests in election~

too many candidates for trade union committee~

CF:committees-3

trade union committee change from time to time~

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//... If the company use the method of participation like the welfare committee which is directly elected from employees it would certainly be the competitor of trade union... // The law was not complied in practice. For example, the law prescribed that welfare committee must come from election but in practice each company select the committee members by itself. The company may distribute the committee member to each section and select one each representative from each section and appoint them as welfare committee. There is no election. For those companies with employee committee this committee will assume the responsibilities of the welfare committee... // But in the case of non-unionized company there are very few companies that set up the committee. The law required the company to set up the committee but they did not do it. What they did was to set it up but did not have proper election according to the law and all of their men are in the committee... // More than half of them are not active and no meeting convened at all. The company notify the labour official for acknowledge that there is a welfare committee according to the law but there is no activity... // the meeting was just convened to comply with the law requirements only... //

While there are several committees in the company, the welfare committee is mandatory by law. The law requires the welfare committee to be composed of employees and if there is an employee committee in the company the employee committee will take up the welfare committee roles. One interesting point here is that it was expressed that while real election took place in some companies, many did not have committee election according to the requirements of the law. At the same time it was also expressed that in many cases the committee did not have real activities but the meeting was convened just to comply with law only.

5.3.5 Cultural Issues (Trade union leaders - national level; SG-3)

The next category is cultural issues.   There are 9 concepts in this category.
Employee perceptions related to cultures are provided in Figure 5.3.9.

Figure 5.3.9: Cultural issues (Trade union leaders - national level; SG-3)
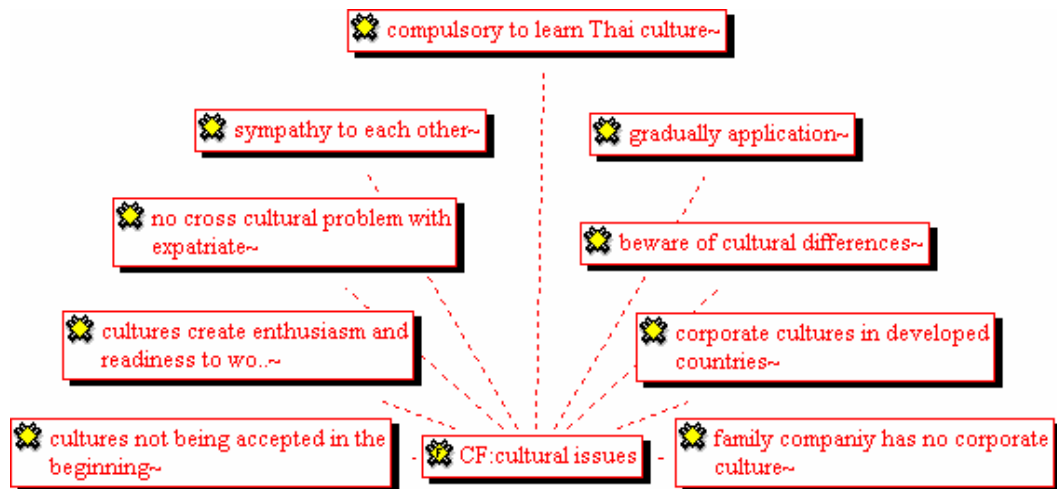
> *// …There is not much problem of cultural here because all expatriates who are coming to work here were trained on Thai cultures and traditions before they come to work in Thailand… // …However, our country is different form other countries in many areas such as legal, cultural and traditions, and ways of life… // BOI should screen and also should have some provisions to make it mandatory for the foreign investors to learn Thai culture… // … Thais are not accepted this kind of culture in the beginning but lately this practice is accepted… // … so I think the implementation should be made gradually… //*

Although there was an expression that there were no problems with expatriates who come to work in Thailand as they were trained in the Thai culture, but not all companies are doing this training. So it was recommended to make it compulsory that all expatriates be trained in Thai culture. It was also expressed that the implementation of industrial democracy in Thailand should be made gradually.

5.3.6 Democracy (Trade union leaders - national level; SG-3)

The next category is democracy. There are 28 concepts in this category. Employee perceptions related to democracy are provided in Figures 5.3.10 and 5.3.11.

Figure 5.3.10: Democracy (Trade union leaders - national level; SG-3)
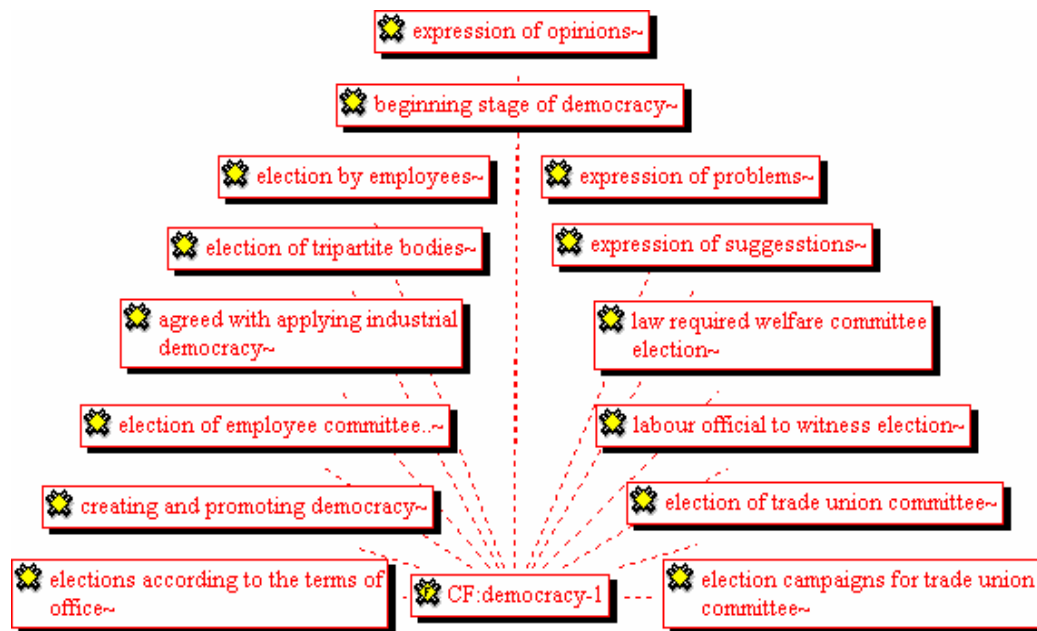
Figure 5.3.11: Democracy (Trade union leaders - national level; SG-3)
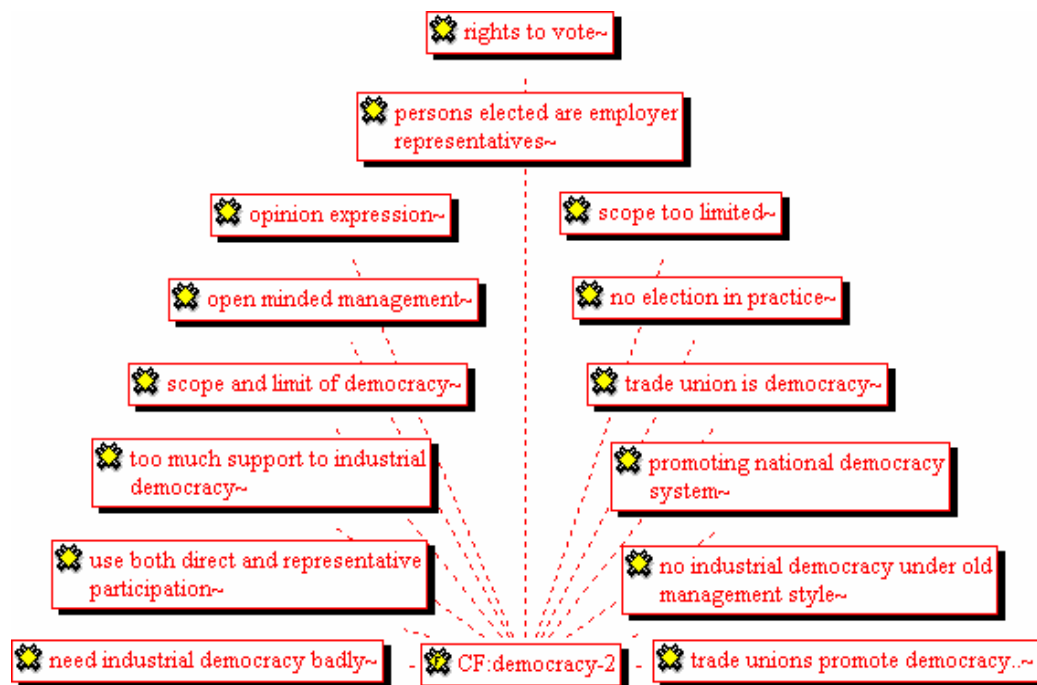
// I think the industrial democracy is the beginning stage of democracy in Thailand… // …In factory employees have rights to vote. The vote in factory begins from the election of employee committee. In my case before we go to the

trade union we found that there is a provision for election of employee committee so we started with employee committee election...// ...So we have to look into this problem of application especially the scope and the limit of democracy... // ...I think the scope of industrial democracy at present is too limited... // The basic of democracy is to allow employees to express their opinion but some of them abuse it... // I think the trade union benefits from industrial democracy very much because they can voice their opinions... // ...and they elect their representatives and these representatives will come to manage the trade union. The trade unions promote democracy through the election of representatives to several tripartite bodies... //

One interesting point from the concept of democracy that emerged from this stakeholder group is that it stressed the right to vote and that the scope of industrial democracy at present is too limited.

5.3.7 Meeting (Trade union leaders - national level; SG-3)

The next category is meeting. There are 13 concepts emerged in this category. Employee perceptions related to meeting are presented in Figure 5.3.12.

Figure 5.3.12: Meeting (Trade union leaders - national level; SG-3)
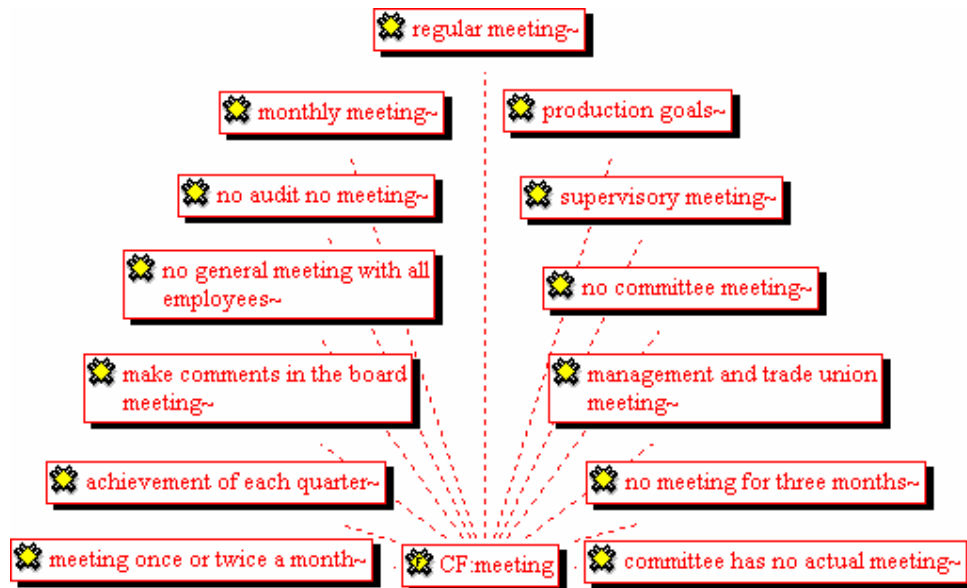
// We do not have general meeting for all employees... // ...there are meetings of foreman and the higher level chief, medium and lower level chief... // There is a monthly meeting of management and the trade union and the meeting with all staff... // The issues discussed in the meeting include production goals and achievement of each quarter, why the goals are not met, what are the

obstructions and what are the problems, how is the orders and etc. The management will discuss with trade union and try to find the way to solve problems together… // However, the trade union can criticize or comment the company policy in the board meeting… // I received some complaints from trade unions that there is no meeting of the welfare committee… // If there is no audit they usually write up the minutes of the meeting and backdated it… //

The meeting is one of the means of employee participation as expressed by this stakeholder group. While there are regular meetings of management and employees and the trade union, it was expressed that in many companies the welfare or employee committee meeting was not convened according to the requirement of the law.

5.3.8 Participation (Trade union leaders - national level; SG-3)

The next category is participation. There are 62 concepts in this category. Employee perceptions related to participation are displayed in Figures 5.3.13, 5.3.14 and 5.3.15.

Figure 5.3.13: Participation (Trade union leaders - national level; SG-3)

Figure 5.3.14: Participation (Trade union leaders - national level; SG-3)

- open door policy~
- informatin about competition in the industry~
- experts and consultants~
- mixed system is used~
- frequent audit by customer~
- more practices in the future~
- make comments in the board meeting~
- follow with representative participation~
- not much participation in family companies~
- management communicates with employees~
- forecast and accomplishment~
- employer fully supports QCC~
- make proposal to management~
- practicing on a voluntary basi..~
- management makes final decision~
- labour official to witness election~
- participation through trade union~
- production and sales information~
- open all information to trade union~
- more participation in work matters~
- governement promoting Thai Labour Standard~
- CF:participation-2
- not dare to invest if no participation of trade union~

Figure 5.3.15: Participation (Trade union leaders - national level; SG-3)
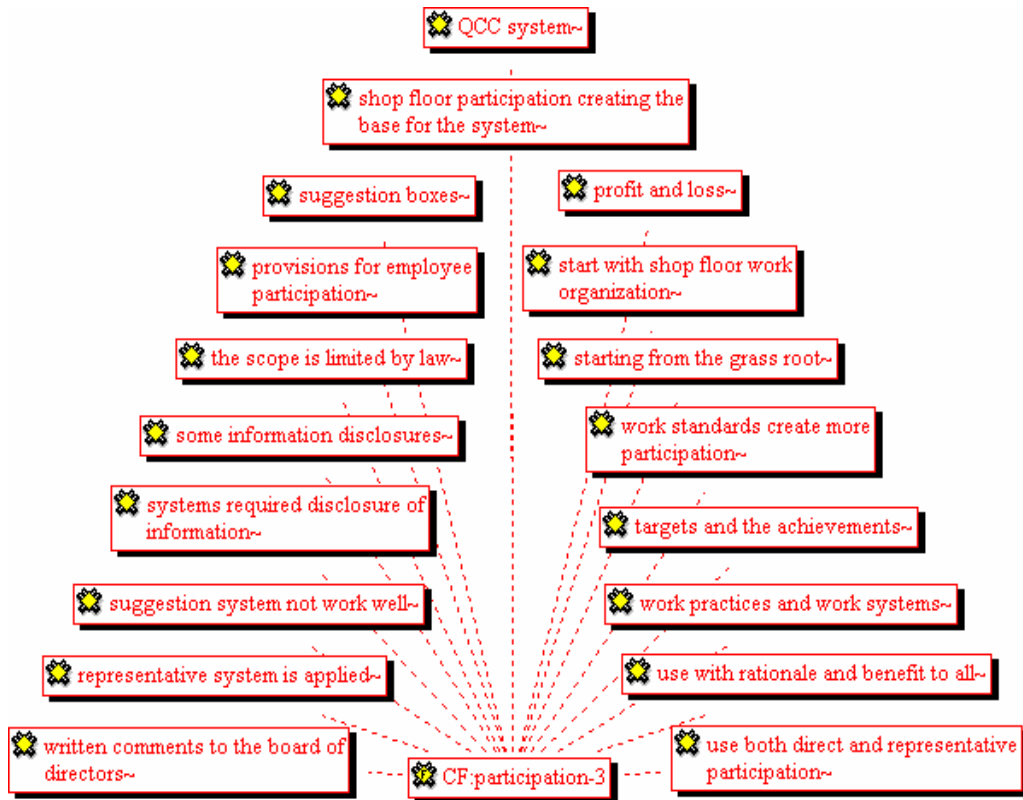
// Industrial democracy in the way I see is to allow employees to participate in management activities or the party who control the organization... // The lower level employees will feel that they have chances to participate... //There are some information disclosures because I do not think the company can conceal all the information... //Especially the public company, they have to disclose such as a company I know of they have a meeting with trade union committee every three months... // There are some companies that allow employees to become shareholders. For example the company that I used to work for when the company was transformed to be public company it sells shares to employees at normal price... // ... the trade union to set up employee credit union and open for members to hold shares of the credit union. The executive committee of the credit union comprise of company representative and trade union. This is a good example... // ... In my company it is not much because it is a family system company. Management takes their personal ideas as the major factor for decision making. They do not concern much in other thing and they do not care what or how to do but at the end of the year this is what they will give... //

Several forms of participation were emerged in this stakeholder group, such as disclosure of information, financial participation in terms of employees becoming

company shareholders and credit union. It was commented that a family company was not very open to employee participation.

5.3.9 Problems in Participation (Trade union leaders - national level; SG-3)

The next category is problems in participation. There are 77 concepts in this category. Employee perceptions related to problems in participation are displayed in Figures 5.3.16, 5.3.17, 5.3.18 and 5.3.19.

Figure 5.3.16: Problems in Participation

(Trade union leaders - national level; SG-3)

Figure 5.3.17: Problems in Participation

(Trade union leaders - national level; SG-3)

- ethical issues~
- labour court apporval~
- have to put more efforts~
- let it go beyond its limit~
- just to comply with the law~
- ineffective implementation~
- just to get paper certification~
- did not know in deep details~
- ignoring trade union demands~
- list of names of welfare commi..~
- law was not complied in practi..~
- final decision made by employer~
- employee direct demands cuase problems~
- employee representative recieves pressure from employer~
- employees just assigned before the auditing~
- less participation in welfare and safety~
- influence of trade union advisor~
- management did not take it seriously~
- management just want to please boss~
- CF:problems in participation-2
- legal problems in small company without trade union~

Figure 5.3.18: Problems in Participation

(Trade union leaders - national level; SG-3)

no competitive advantage~

no follow up and evaluation~

many unresolve problems~

no follow up inspections~

no policy for promotion of participation~

management not protecting employees~

no employment promotion by investor~

no participation in determining criterion for payment~

management prescribed rules and regulations~

no industrial democracy under old management style~

management not know employee needs~

must have scope of participation~

no participation if using top down system~

no protection of promoter of trade union~

must have method of participation~

management makes final decision~

not able to retain talent employees~

no legal problem in large company~

no proper knowlege on trade union~

CF:problems in participation-3

more developed than management...~

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Figure 5.3.19: Problems in Participation

(Trade union leaders - national level; SG-3)
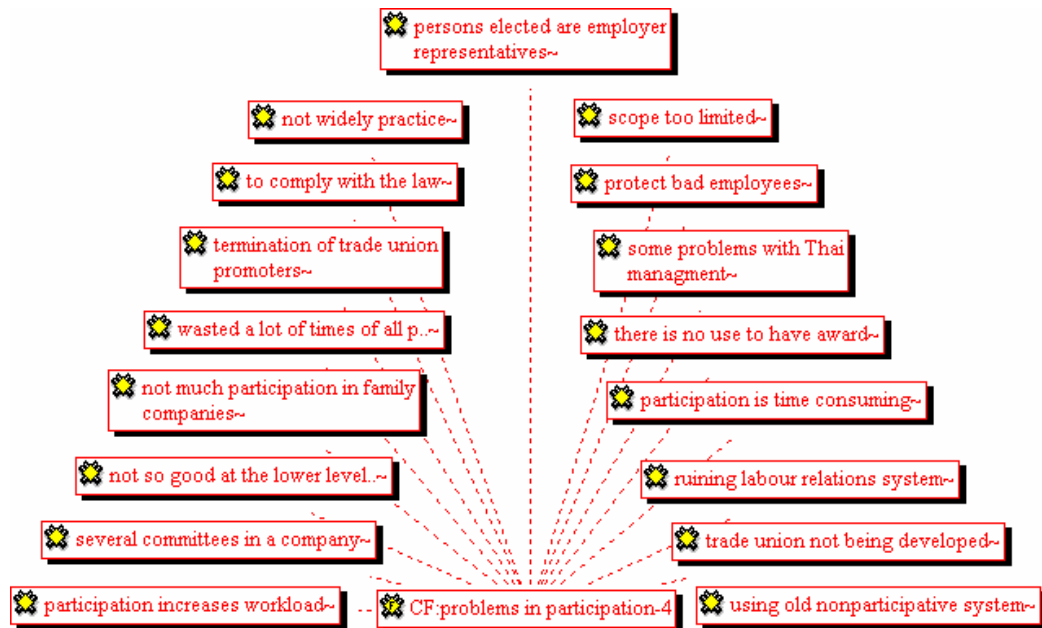
//…In order to apply industrial democracy effectively I think we have to look into the problem of self moral sense of people involve… // Anyone who volunteers to work in this field has to devote himself to the job because the people who work in this field will receive pressure from employer so industrial democracy is needed… // There are problems in small industries. However, in small industry if there is trade union the problem of establishment of the committees is resolved… // When each side uses the loopholes of the law for their benefits then it damage the good relationships…// The law is quite clear but the problem is that the official did not follow up and inspect to ensure the compliance of the law… // I did not see the government official making inspection in this matter yet. // …They did not do it seriously and they did it just to get the paper certification… // …The reason is that the management did not know the needs of the lower level employees.// … management did not take it seriously on this matter… //

Several concepts in problems in participation were emerged including the problems related to laws concerning employee participation. It was commented that legal problems most occurred in small industries without trade union. One interesting comment was that there is a need to look into the issues of the moral sense of people involved. A lack of follow up inspection and evaluation issues was also raised.

5.3.10 Trade Union Issues (Trade union leaders - national level; SG-3)

The next category is trade union issues. There are 83 concepts in this category. Employee perceptions related to suggestion are displayed in Figures 5.3.20, 5.3.21, 5.3.22, and 5.3.23.

Figure 5.3.20: Trade union issues

(Trade union leaders - national level; SG-3)

Figure 5.3.21: Trade union issues

(Trade union leaders - national level; SG-3)

Figure 5.3.22: Trade union issues

(Trade union leaders - national level; SG-3)

Figure 5.3.23: Trade union issues (Trade union leaders - national level; SG-3)

// It will change the attitude of the trade union in our country too... //... the trade union system especially in our country, in Thailand it is not being developed as it should have been... // We have made demands to the government to enact law to protect employees who are establishing trade union but we are not success. // If we look at the law related to the establishment of trade union the government did not have clear policy on this matter. Instead of giving knowledge and understanding about trade union to those people who have newly established the trade union they just allowed them to set up the trade union... // So to be beneficial to trade union I think the participation should be done through trade union and it will be a lot of beneficial... // ...management of our company has an open mind and we contribute in terms of our ideas and opinions...//

Several trade union issues emerged in this stakeholder group. One interesting element is that trade unionists have demanded legal protection of trade union organizers without success. At present, if employees are combining to form a trade union and if the employer knows that and terminates the employees, they do not have any legal protection. However, once they have successfully combined as a trade

union they are protected under the provision of unfair labour practice provided by the labour relations law.

5.3.11 Training and Development (Trade union leaders - national level; SG-3)

The next category is training and development. There are 17 concepts in this category. Employee perceptions related to training and development are displayed in Figure 5.3.24.

Figure 5.3.24: Training and Development

(Trade union leaders - national level; SG-3)
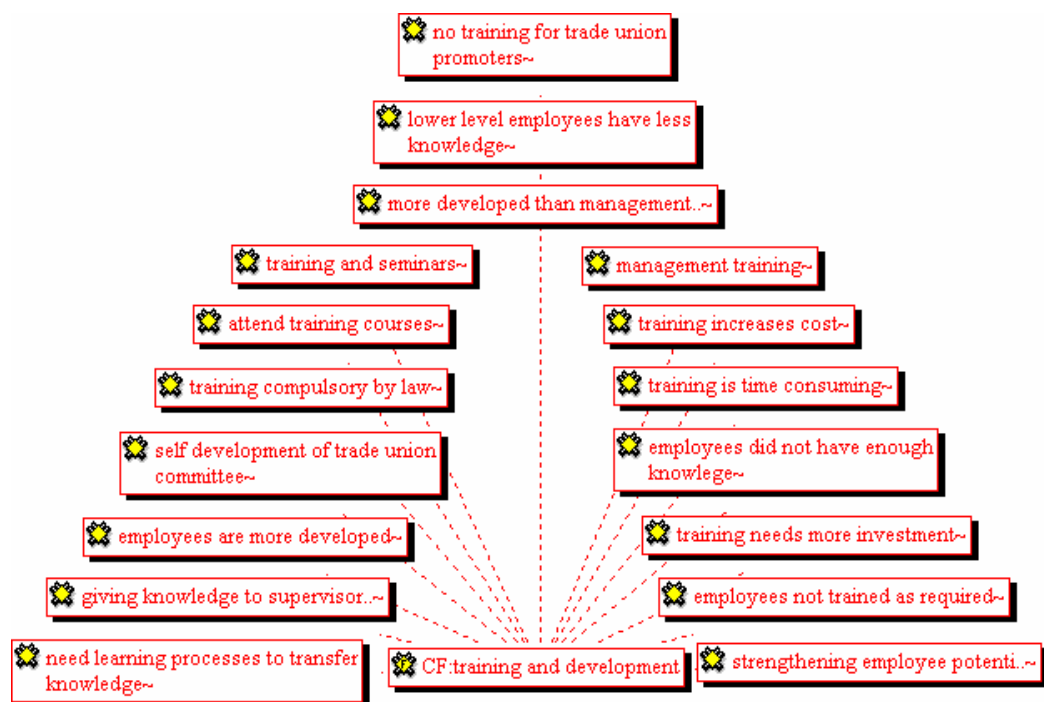
//... They did not train employees because they feel that it takes times. It will increase cost as they have to bring in more people to do the training and they have to invest more which they did not want to do that... //If we want to resolve the problems of training I think we need to have a law required employer to train employees... // Right now it seems that the trade union committees are more developed than management in some areas... // They have chances to attend training courses... // Even in management training the trade union representatives are invited to participate...// So I think that if there are some learning processes to transfer knowledge to each other group I think it will be very good and it will help in the practice of industrial democracy... // ...There are several ways to create personal moral sense such as using training and seminars and other programmes. Experts or consultants in this field may be also utilized... //

One interesting point that employees expressed is that more training and education will help in the implementation of industrial democracy. It was also noted that there was an expression of the view that trade unionists are more developed than management in certain areas.

5.4 Trade Union Leaders - Company Level; Stakeholder Group Four

This group comprises trade union leaders at the company level. There were three respondents in this group. There are 13 categories in this group as presented in Table 5.1, SG-4.

5.4.1 Barriers to Implementation (Trade union leaders - company level; SG-4)

The first category is barriers to the implementation of industrial democracy. There are 24 concepts in this category as presented in the network map displayed in Figure 5.4.1.

Figure 5.4.1: Barriers to implementation

(Trade union leaders - company level; SG-4)

// …They [employees] have less knowledge and did not try to learn more and did not know the law. It causes the problems for trade union and employers as well. // Management tries to find the ways to force and persecute employees to leave their job… // At present the companies in addition to using the local power they also use lawyers and employees in industrial sector are now being attacked without any help from government officials… // …employees are exploited… // Sometimes the officials or security men were brought in to search employee's documents or bag. Those people put Mad Medicine into employee's bag and the employee is arrested by police who has already been waiting at that point. This is a way to get rid of employees from their jobs… // the government is using autocratic power just giving out the orders without looking at the feeling of people. // …did not open for people to participate but just make decision. // When we use the law there will be a party who win and a party who lose… // I feel that the issuance of labour protection law has resulted in the weakness of trade union… //

One interesting point on the barriers to implementation concepts emerged in this stakeholder group is that it was commented on that employees are not fairly treated and protected by the law.

5.4.2 Benefits of Participation (Trade union leaders - company level; SG-4)

The next category is benefits of participation. There are 49 concepts in this category as presented in the network map displayed in Figures 5.4.2 and 5.4.3.

Figure 5.4.2: Benefits of participation

(Trade union leaders - company level; SG-4)

Figure 5.4.3: Benefits of participation

(Trade union leaders - company level;   SG-4)

// …it creates a better understanding of each other... // …we have been co-existing with happiness for 20-30 years up until now and we still happy now… // …The company provides good benefits to employees for their well being. The benefits include dormitory for employees and their family... // We have to cooperate with each other as we have target and we have to work together to achieve target... // So the trade union must transfer this kind of feeling to employees too... // We have sympathetic to each other and we compromise when there is a problem... // When we have problem we discuss and resolve it together… // In some case we cannot decide we have to refer the case to the court to decide but we did not quarrel with management. // There is no serious labour problem here… //

Benefits of participation expressed by this stakeholder group ranged from: the benefit to the country; benefits to company; benefits to trade union; and finally benefits to employees. However, one interesting point is the expression of the cooperative attitude of trade union.

5.4.3 Committees (Trade union leaders - company level; SG-4)

The next category is committee. There are 29 concepts in this category. Employee perceptions of participation through committees are displayed in Figures 5.4.4 and 5.4.5.

Figure 5.4.4: Committees (Trade union leaders - company level; SG-4)
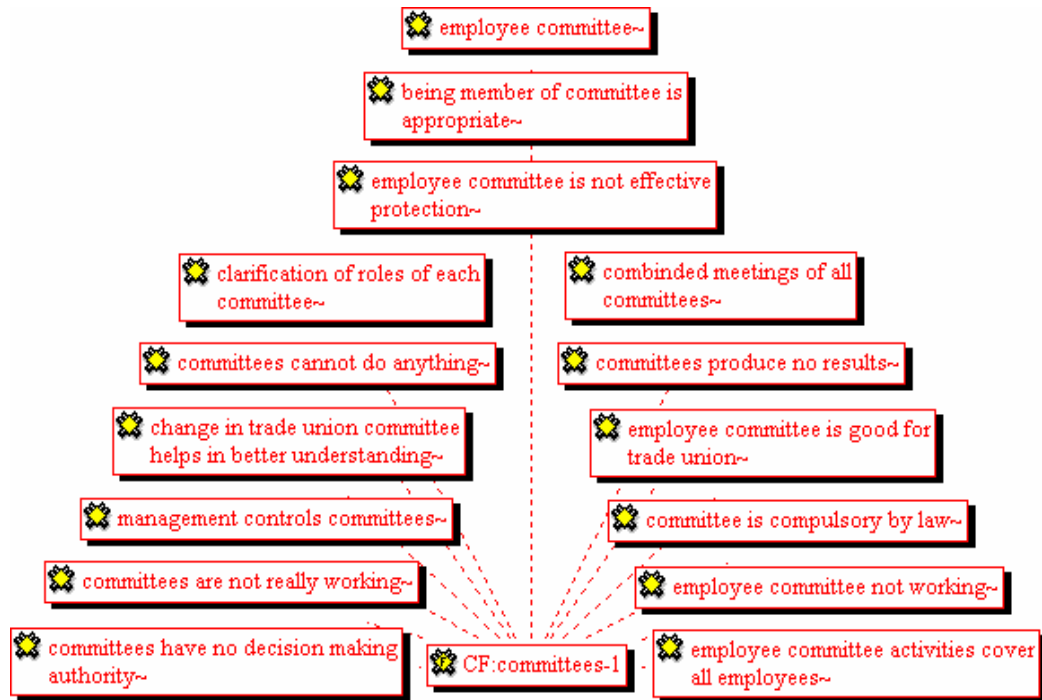
Figure 5.4.5: Committees (Trade union leaders - company level; SG-4)
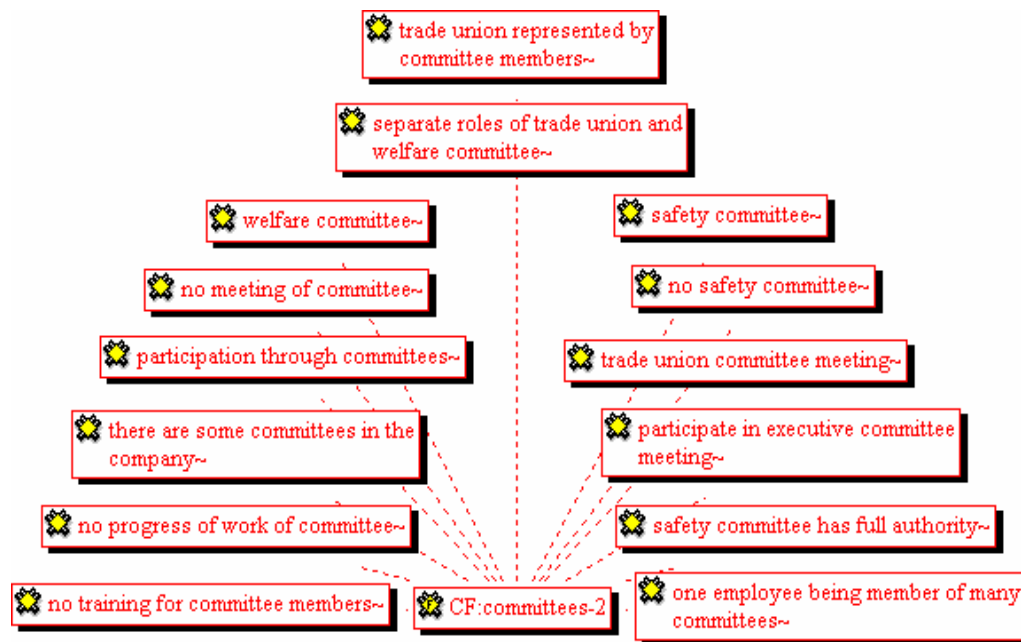
// There are safety committee and welfare committee but no power and cannot do anything. They are appointed because it is compulsory by law… // For the welfare committee about 5-6 committee members were elected from employees and the other members were selected from the trade union committee… // The membership of our trade union here are more than one half of the total employees so we appointed the employee committee and our employee committee become welfare committee too… // The member of trade union committee is also being members of the safety committee… // We conduct safety audits to ensure safety in our factory and the company gives us full authority to inspect in the factory and we take the result of our audit to make recommendations… // Sometimes one employee becomes a member of employee committee, trade union committee and welfare committee. Sometimes he becomes a member of safety committee too. He wears 3-4 hats at the same time and he does not know when to use what hat as he did not receive proper training and he also has to work on his regular duties as an employee.// …We have to separate the roles of each committee. For example, since in the role of trade union committee we can discuss only the matters related to our members only while under the role of employee committee we can discuss all matters related to all employees whether they are operative or management levels. So we use different position in different maters… //

An interesting point is that it is company practice to have several committees and those employees who are members of committees belong to many committees at the same time. There is a need for roles clarification of the committees.

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5.4.4 Communication (Trade union leaders - company level; SG-4)

The next category is communication. There are 12 concepts in this category. Employee perceptions of communication are given in Figure 5.4.6.

Figure 5.4.6: Communication (Trade union leaders - company level; SG-4)
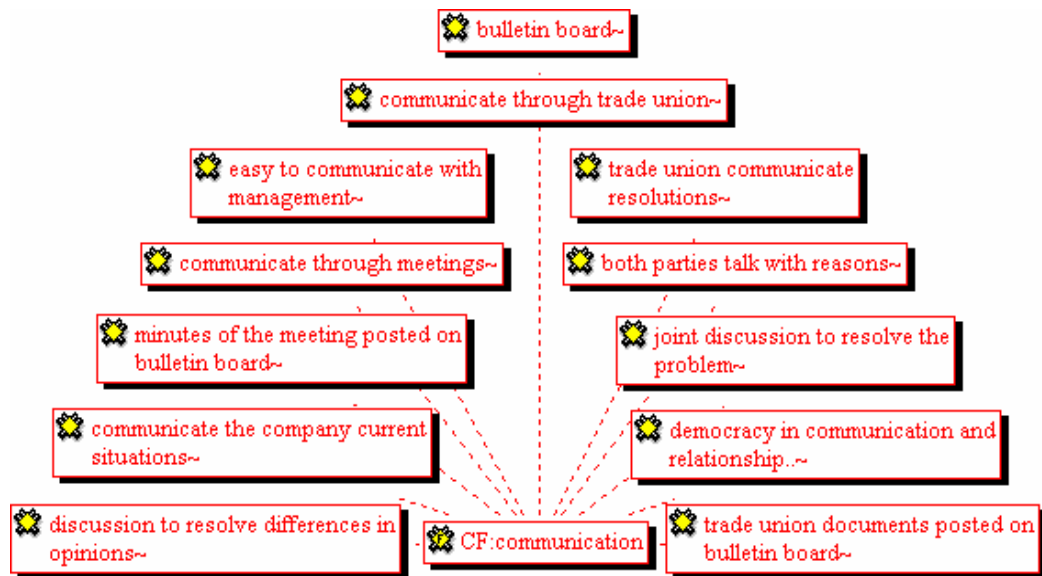
// it is easy to communicate with management and also with employees. We can communicate with higher level management at once as we needed. For employees we can also communicate with them at once as we needed too... // …The employee communication here is done through the trade union... // In our company management communicates to employees through the trade union on many issues... // The communication is made through the meetings. At each meeting there will be a minutes of the meeting. // The issues include market situations, world market and Thai market; economic issue, economic growth, inflation, the current situations, what are good and what are bad and etc... // All the issues discussed are recorded in the minutes of the meeting and then the minutes of the meeting is posted on the bulletin board... // …for example when management and trade union have finished the discussion of an issue the trade union will then call the meeting with employees to communicate to them the results... // The document posted on the bulletin board is the trade union document and it contains all issues including the production, sales, and etc. //

An interesting point that emerged on communication in this stakeholder group, is that company employee communication is done through trade union. The company has trust in and relies on the trade union to produce and post documents on the bulletin board.

5.4.5 Cultural Issues (Trade union leaders - company level; SG-4)

The next category is cultural issues. There are 15 concepts in this category. Employee perceptions related to cultures are provided in Figure 5.4.7.

Figure 5.4.7: Cultural issues (Trade union leaders - company level; SG-4)
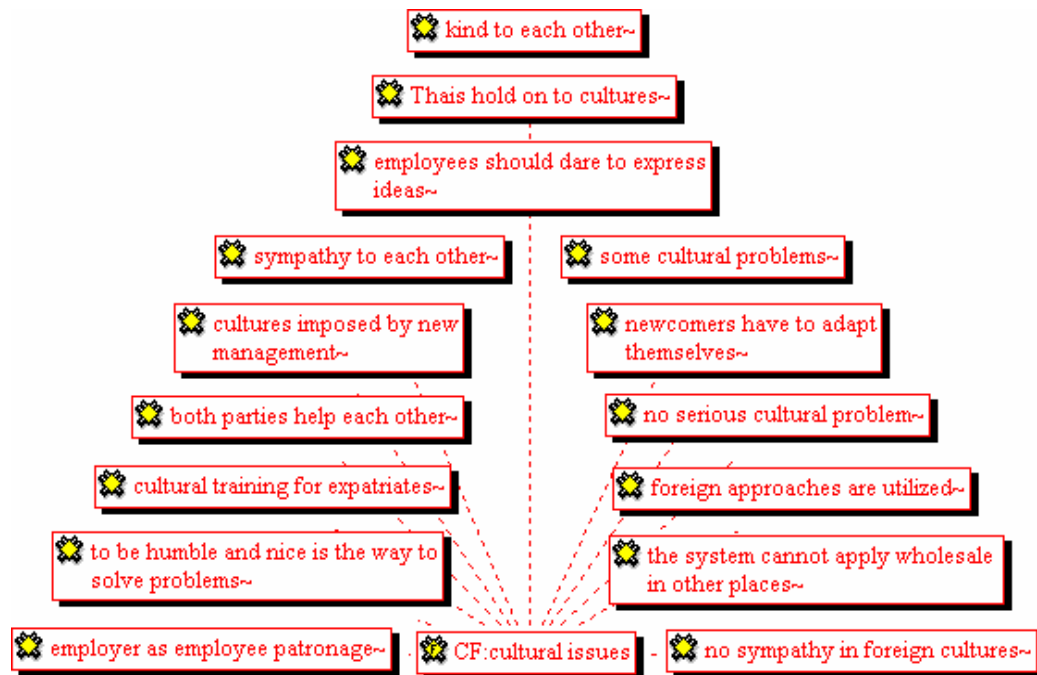
> *// …Sometimes there are some cultures imposed by new management but we can adapt to each other gradually... // …they have brought many foreign approaches to use in the company. // …and I do not think that this system can apply in other places in all matters... // For Thai cultures we normally did not change them as we hold on to our cultures... // In our Thai cultures we are humble and kind to each other. We have sympathetic to each other and we compromise when there is a problem. These values are instilled in Thai people. // In our Thai cultures sickness and death is very important and we have to express sympathy to employees but they [expatriates] act like it is none of their business and it is the employee own problem. They are not interested in this kind of problems... // …At present those expatriates who are assigned to come to work here they have to learn Thai culture before they come to work here… //*

It was expressed by this stakeholder group that some cultural problems do exist. One interesting point here is that expatriates were trained in Thai cultures before being assigned to work in Thailand.

5.4.6 Democracy (Trade union leaders - company level; SG-4)

The next category is democracy. There are 31 concepts in this category. Employee perceptions related to democracy are provided in Figures 5.4.8 and 5.4. 9.

Figure 5.4.8: Democracy (Trade union leaders - company level; SG-4)

Figure 5.4.9: Democracy (Trade union leaders - company level; SG-4)

// According to my understanding industrial democracy right now is actually prescribed in the constitution but in practice it had not been brought to success according to the law yet. // The problem and obstruction to this is the problem of acceptance of employee rights and trade union rights... // In our trade union committee meeting all have equal rights to vote... // Employees benefits from industrial democracy as they want to express their idea... // Employees are allowed to express their opinions and suggestions relating to their work and the company management and administration... // But sometimes the opportunity is closed and they could not express themselves so they feel depress and they do not want to develop anything because when they express their ideas the company owner or management did not listen to them. // ...In our company employees express their ideas through the trade union committee. When they have problems or difficulties they submit the matters though the trade union... // ...The decision is made jointly between the management and the trade union. // Sometimes there are some disagreement in the interpretations of the rules and regulations and in this case we will raise it up with the Labour Relations Section... and discuss with them on how to resolve the problems. I think it is very useful system in the factory... //

One interesting point emerged from the concept of democracy from this stakeholder group is that it stresses the rights of employees and trade union. Another point is that employee expressions are made through the trade union.

5.4.7 Participation (Trade union leaders - company level; SG-4)

The next category is participation. There are 54 concepts in this category. Employee perceptions related to participation are displayed in Figures 5.4.10, 5.4.11 and 5.4.12.

Figure 5.4.10: Participation (Trade union leaders - company level; SG-4)

Figure 5.4.11: Participation (Trade union leaders - company level; SG-4)

Figure 5.4.12: Participation (Trade union leaders - company level; SG-4)
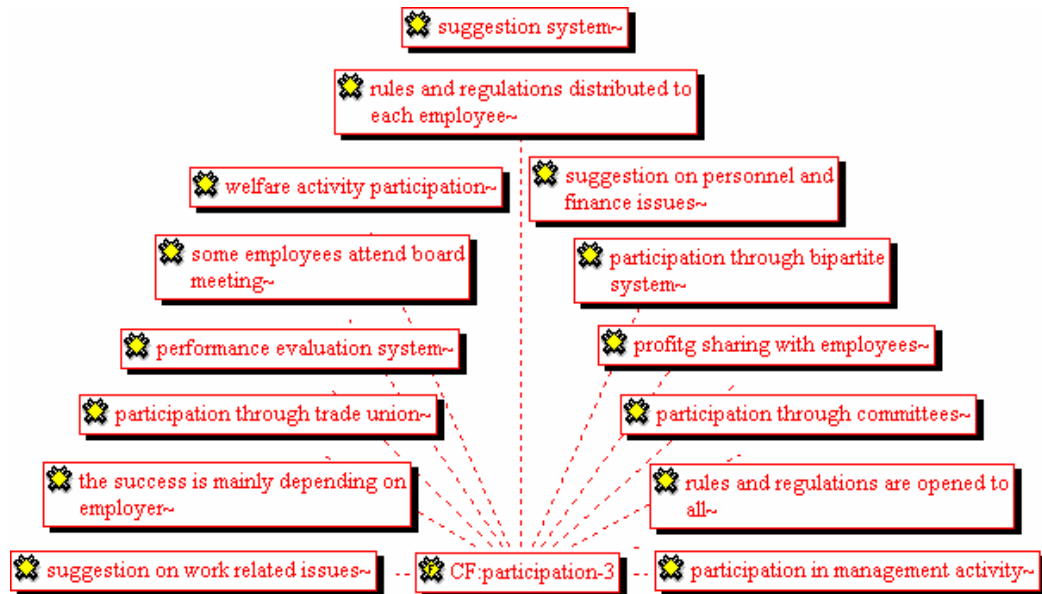
// …For example as I said if we allow employees to participate in decision making concerning employee welfares or rules and regulations and to have employees decide on the agreement on terms and conditions of employment I think it will be good. // …Another example is about the machine maintenance. We determine the schedule for machine maintenance… // …Although the manual specified the main criterion but we can break down into details by ourselves. For example how many days we will use and on what days. We will also determine the priority on what is to be done first and what is to be done later… // For the payment of bonus it was base on the agreement made with the trade union and the company has to comply with the agreement. // …But we have the rights to buy the share in Europe. All employees can buy but there is a scale specifying how much each level can buy… // …In the past the price was not high so employees can hold the shares since the beginning but now the price went up so high and employees cannot afford to buy the shares now… // The company is open and did not conceal anything… // In our company all the figures are opened for example how much profit, how much costs and all other information are opened… //

Several forms of participation were emerged in this stakeholder group such as disclosure of information, financial participation in terms of employee shareholding. One interesting point was that a trade unionist commented that the company is very open and did not conceal anything.

5.4.8 Problems in Participation (Trade union leaders - company level; SG-4)

The next category is problems in participation. There are 85 concepts in this category. Employee perceptions related to problems in participation are displayed in Figures 5.4.13, 5.4.14, 5.4.15 and 5.4.16.

Figure 5.4.13: Problems in Participation

  (Trade union leaders - company level; SG-4)

Figure 5.4.14: Problems in Participation

(Trade union leaders - company level; SG-4)

Figure 5.4.15: Problems in Participation

(Trade union leaders - company level; SG-4)

- no employee shareholding programme~
- not accepting employee ideas~
- no election in practices~
- not success in practices~
- no unity of trade unions~
- not properly practicing~
- no benefit for trade union~
- no need for trade union~
- not resolving real problems~
- not enough time to practice~
- no information of profit or loss~
- not allwowed to express ideas~
- not allow trade union work during the working hours~
- not enough support from higher level~
- no benefit provided if no demand~
- no legal problem~
- no progress of work of committee~
- not help much as employee cannot continue working in reality~
- not much in pactices~
- not sure of government policy for promoting trade union~
- no reason for keeping confidential of own wage~
- CF:problems in participation-3
- no work related matter participation~

Figure 5.4.16: Problems in Participation

(Trade union leaders - company level; SG-4)

//…I have not seen this and I feel that there is still a different view on this matter between employees and management // …Sometimes there are some disagreement in the interpretations of the rules and regulations… // …The only thing we get out of this fighting is a peace of paper and it dies not help to make things better. // If we fight in the court it takes a long time and use a lot of money… // …Management is most concern with production output and did not pay much attention to employees. // …Management uses power to press employees and orders that it must be this way or that way. They should listen to their employees and make them feel important. // …There is no financial participation. Even employee wage is also secret. It is secret among employees themselves. They do not know who receives how much or receives how much increase and how. They do not know how the payment is made. They are required to keep secret.// …The only thing that is not disclosed to employees here is the salary. All other information is disclosed and we can request for it. The company opens all information except salary.//

Several concepts in problems in participation were emerged, including the problems related to the disclosure of information and the use of power by management. There were contrasting comments that in one company all information was disclosed

except employee salary, while in the other company all information was made confidential.

5.4.9 Safety (Trade union leaders - company level; SG-4)

The next category is safety. There are 11 concepts in this category. Employee perceptions related to safety are displayed in Figure 5.4.17

Figure 5.4.17: Safety (Trade union leaders - company level; SG-4)

// …This includes the safety and health that we suggested and in the labour law there are provisions on safety too. // …We conduct safety audits to ensure safety in our factory and the company gives us full authority… // …For safety matters we have 14 items of safety policy that everyone has to follow. It is mandatory that the safety is the responsibility of everyone. // …but for safety meeting it is a biweekly meeting. // We received the national safety award. // …When employees suggest to management to take corrective actions management argues that the investment is too high and suggests to employees that they have to be careful in working…//

It is interesting that there was a contrasting comment that while one company received a national safety award the other company did not want to invest in employee safety.

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5.4.10 Trade Union Issues (Trade union leaders - company level; SG-4)

The next category is trade union issues. There are 66 concepts in this category. Employee perceptions related to trade union are displayed in Figures 5.4.18, 5.4.19 and 5.4.20.

Figure 5.4.18: Trade union issues (Trade union leaders - company level; SG-4)

Figure 5.4.19: Trade union issues (Trade union leaders - company level; SG-4)

Figure 5.4.20: Trade union issues (Trade union leaders - company level; SG-4)

// ...trade union rights. The main problems come from management. Although it is the basic rights of employees to establish trade union but management did not accept trade union. // ...trade union is not good and it is troublesome.// ...trade union is not necessary. // ...The trade union will make follow up on grievances and complaints until the cases are resolved and employees will gain benefits from this... // Therefore, it is necessary to have a trade union. When there is a trade union the trade union will look after the employees by filing grievances to the company or making complaint to the Department of Labour Protection and Welfare. // The role of trade union is to be neutral. The trade union must create potential to gain acceptance from the company, employees and social. To be able to do this we must be honourable person... // ...and not to make any movement that would be harmful to the country or business. //

Several trade union issues emerged in this stakeholder group. One interesting element is the contrasting expressions of the necessity for trade union. The other element is the high expectation of trade unionists and that they have to gain acceptance from all parties concerned.

5.4.11 Training and Development (Trade union leaders - company level; SG-4)

The next category is training and development. There are 15 concepts in this category. Employee perceptions related to training and development are displayed in Figure 5.4.21.

Figure 5.4.21: Training and Development

(Trade union leaders - company level; SG-4)
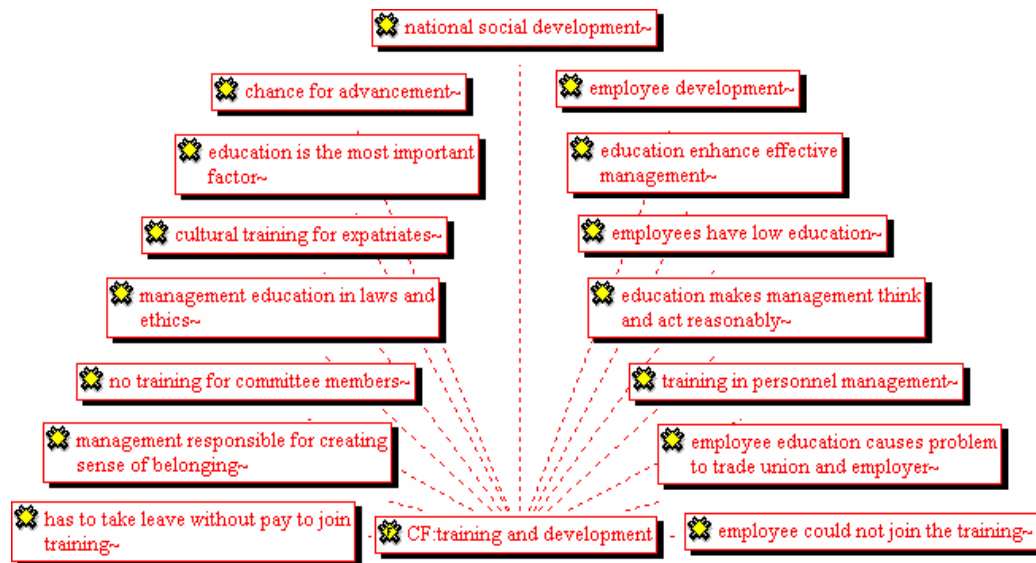
// If management can motivate employees and help employees to improve themselves it will benefits a lot to the company. // …However, from talking and working with management and executives some of them have been trained in personnel management and how to motivate employees and how to use psychology to have employee participate. // …To promote the understanding of industrial democracy I think the education is the most important for the person who will lead the organization… // …If he is not knowledgeable and become the chairman of the board of a company he would not be able to manage the organization effectively. // …trade unionist like the president and the committee members usually have low education. // …he could not take leave to participate in the training. This is a major problem if he did not get approval for leave and he joins the training he would be absent without approval and charged with abandonment of his job. Even if he got approval for leave he would not get pay and it create financial problem for him and his family. // …They do not know their roles or duties because they did not receive any training and they did not even know what safety officer is doing. //

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One interesting point is that employee expresses that education is a very important factor for both management and employees. It was difficult for employees to join training and there is a need for members of committees to have training.

5.4.12 Welfare (Trade union leaders - company level; SG-4)

The next category is welfare. There are 10 concepts in this category. Employee perceptions related to welfares are displayed in Figure 5.4.22.

Figure 5.4.22: Welfare (Trade union leaders - company level; SG-4)
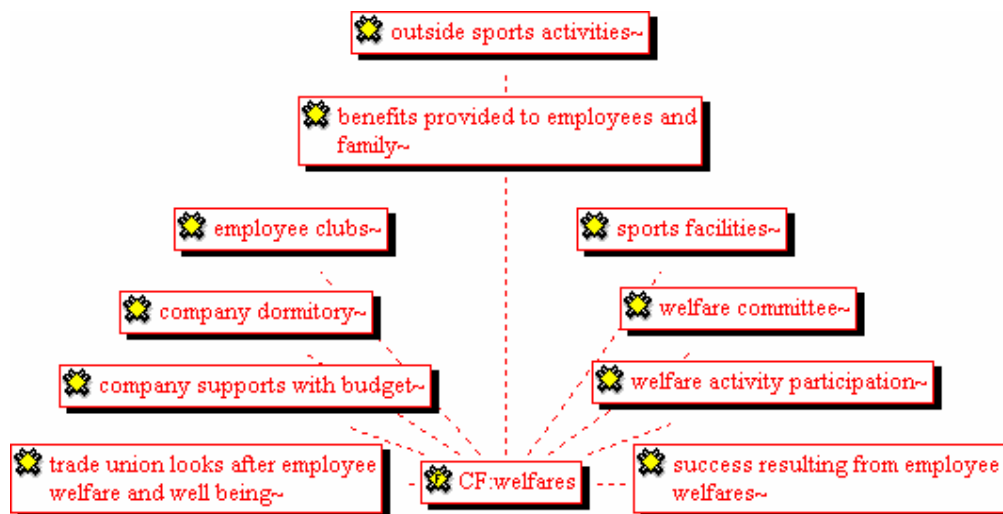
// …The benefits include dormitory for employees and their family. Now there are several hundred families staying in the company dormitory... // …But for those activities like sport activities they are not directly work related activities. // There are sports facilities including badminton court, swimming pool, tennis court, basketball court for our employees. The facilities are also opened to outside people. Our foot ball field is used for community relations too. // …We have also outside sports activities such as bowling, golf and the company sponsors these activities. // There are also many clubs such as dormitory, sports and others. The committees and clubs are run by employees. // …If we look into the success I think the achievement we have here was due to the welfare provided by the company. //

There are several types of welfare provided by the company. They include dormitories for employee and family and sport activities both inside and outside the company. It was interesting to note that there was an expression that the success of the company is due to welfare provided to employees.

5.5 Employers of Non-Unionized Companies; Stakeholder Group Five

This group comprises employers of non-unionized companies. There were three respondents in this group. There are 12 categories in this group as presented in Table 5.1, SG-5.

5.5.1 Barriers to Implementation (Employers of non-unionized companies; SG-5)

The first category is barriers to the implementation of industrial democracy. There are 11 concepts in this category as presented in the network map displayed in Figure 5.5.1.

Figure 5.5.1: Barriers to implementation

(Employers of non-unionized companies; SG-5)
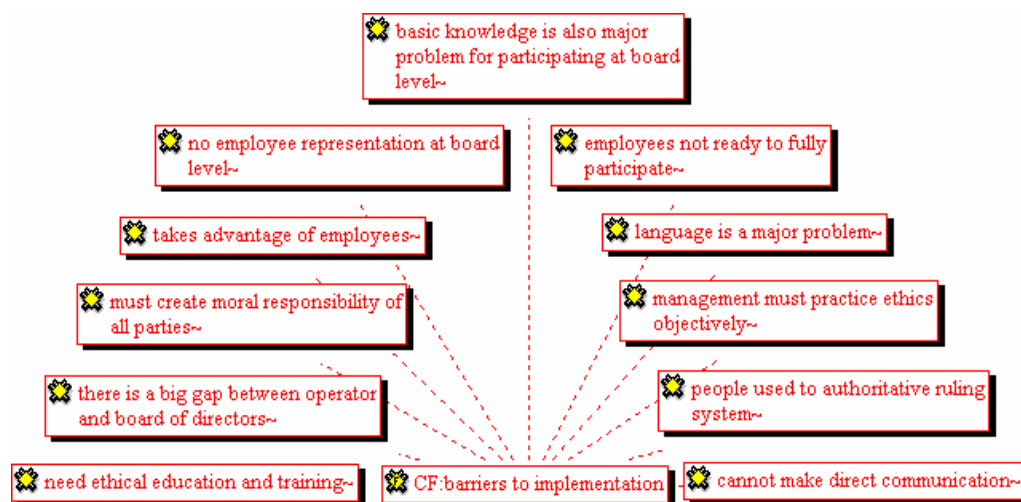
> *// There is no employee participation at board level. I do not know if there is this practice in other company in Thailand. // …and there are some gaps between the operators and the board members in terms of their basic knowledge. // …At the board level the subjects discussed are at macro level and at the operator level they are concentrated at micro level. This is the gap and it is a big gap and I do not think it will work to have employee as a member of the board of directors of the company. // …they are not ready to participate and express their ideas fully... // …The major cross cultural problem here is the language. // …the language problem and I do not know how to solve this problem. // …company takes advantage of employees... // We need to create moral responsibility for all parties…//...Management must have moral or ethics and they must practice objectively. Management should base on Buddhism not only in terms of philosophy but also practices…//*

One interesting point about the barriers to implementation concepts that emerged in this stakeholder group is that it was commented that there is a need to enhance morals and ethics of parties involved, especially management or employers. Another point was the comment that management systems should be based on Buddhism both in terms of philosophy and practices.

5.5.2 Benefits of Participation (Employers of non-unionized companies; SG-5)

The second category is benefits of participation. There are 61 concepts in this category as presented in the network map displayed in Figures 5.5.2, 5.5.3 and 5.5.4.

Figure 5.5.2: Benefits of participation

(Employers of non-unionized companies; SG-5)

Figure 5.5.3: Benefits of participation

(Employers of non-unionized companies; SG-5)

Figure 5.5.4: Benefits of participation

(Employers of non-unionized companies; SG-5)

//…I think the country gains from the results of industrial democracy in terms of creating more employment for people as company expanded and exported more and brought in more foreign exchanges for the country. // …In addition it will increase income for employees and skills in technology. The management staff also gained managerial skills from working with the company… // If we opened for participation we have chances to pick up these things otherwise we do not know what they needs and we cannot respond properly. // …In many cases the operators come up with an excellent idea and the engineer has never though about it… // …Employees will be able to think and can link their ideas to the company efficiency… // It also helps in preventing problems and disputes. We can prevent almost all of the problems as we can sense from the employee representatives… // …Our achievements are our sales always over our target… // …and the scrap or waste is reduced more than we expected… // … One good example of this is that in the Songkarn festival where every employee wants to go home to be with their family. But when the company informed them that there is a need for the company to produce during that period and we asked for volunteers to work during that period. Almost all of them volunteered as they want to help the company… //

Benefits of participation expressed by this stakeholder group ranged from: the benefit to the country; benefits to company; and finally benefits to employees. However, one interesting point is that the company gains the most direct benefits from industrial democracy.

5.5.3 Committees (Employers of non-unionized companies; SG-5)

The next category is committee. There are 16 concepts in this category.

Perceptions of participation through committees are displayed in Figure 5.5.5.

Figure 5.5.5: Committees (Employers of non-unionized companies; SG-5)
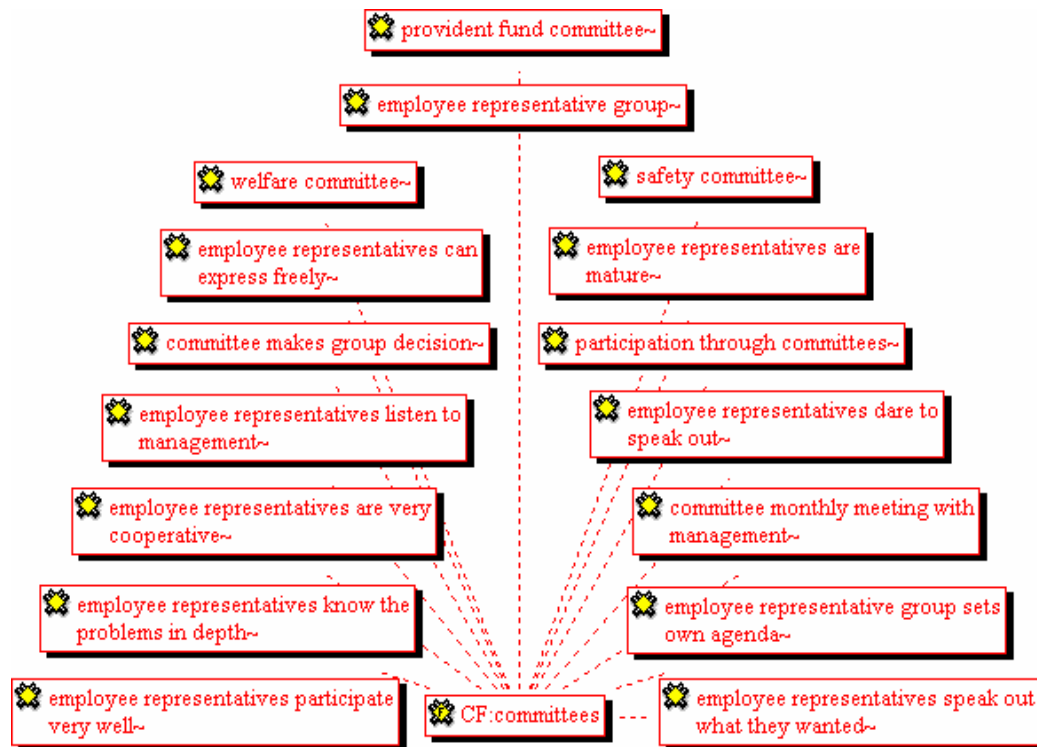
> *// In our company we have several committees and the committee members come from employees. // …Through these committees employees can participate in managing several activities especially those activities that are related to their welfares such as transportation, library or canteen… // …For welfare committee there is an election of the committee according to the law… // …The safety committee have meeting once a month. They conduct their activities regularly such as safety briefing and alert and accident prevention. // …We have provident fund committee to look after the management of employee provident fund such as to choose the fund manager and etc. // …The committee meets on a monthly basis. // …They know the problems in depth. // …They participate very well. They talked about many good things that we have never thought that they would do… //*

There are several committees practiced in the company. It is noted that although only the welfare committee is compulsory by law employers use several committees in the company to handle employees benefits and welfare.

5.5.4 Communication (Employers of non-unionized companies; SG-5)

The next category is communication. There are 22 concepts in this category.

Perceptions of communication are given in Figure 5.5.6.

Figure 5.5.6: Communication (Employers of non-unionized companies; SG-5)

// … We have bulletin boards for internal public relations for posting of news and information from HR. // …We discussed the problems and the company will take corrective actions and announced to employees on the bulletin boards. // There are also production boards to alert employees in the production areas… // Production information is provided in the production board. It related to scrap rate, output and etc. // …The other channel of communication is our newsletter… // …This newsletter is issued on a bi-monthly basis. // …For office information we have website and intranet. // …We can inform them the areas that are possible and impossible, fair and not fair and all matters must have the point where both parties can come together. // …If we can respond to these needs employees will benefit from it and if there are over limited in some area we can communicate with them. // …We try to communicate in the way that it is easy to understand… // I also attend the

meeting when I could but for the other factory I have assigned a manager to participate and I get feedback and we help making comments too. //

Communication is done through several channels. Bulletin board is still the main channel although new media like website and internet are also used. An interesting point emerged on communication in this stakeholder group is that management seek feedback on communications made.

5.5.5 Cultural Issues (Employers of non-unionized companies; SG-5)

The next category is cultural issues. There are 31 concepts in this category. Employee Perceptions related to cultures are provided in Figures 5.5.7 and 5.5.8.

Figure 5.5.7: Cultural issues (Employers of non-unionized companies; SG-5)
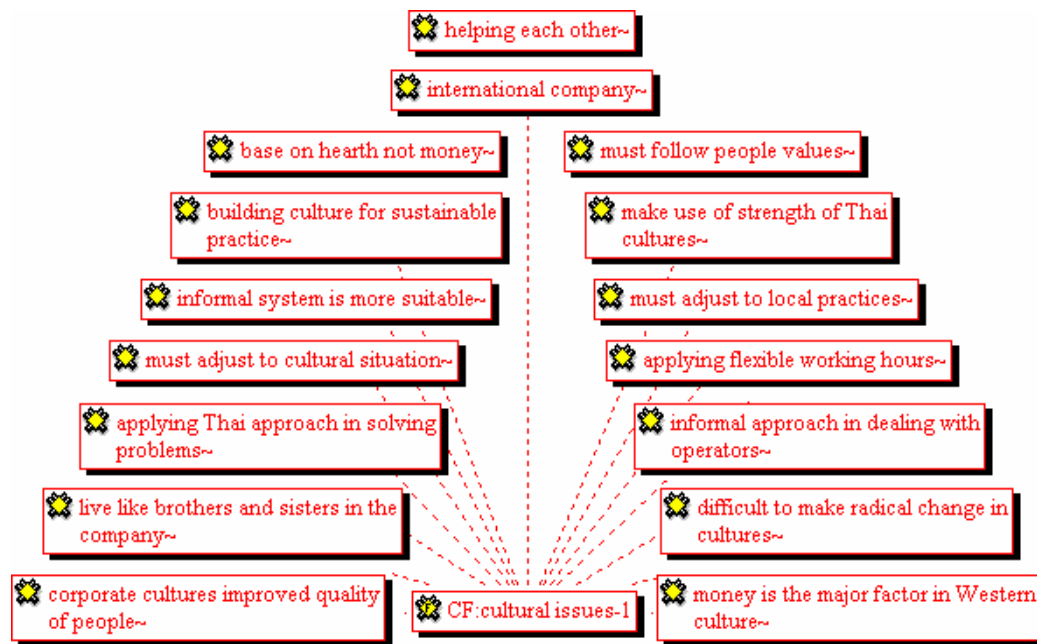
Figure 5.5.8: Cultural issues (Employers of non-unionized companies; SG-5)
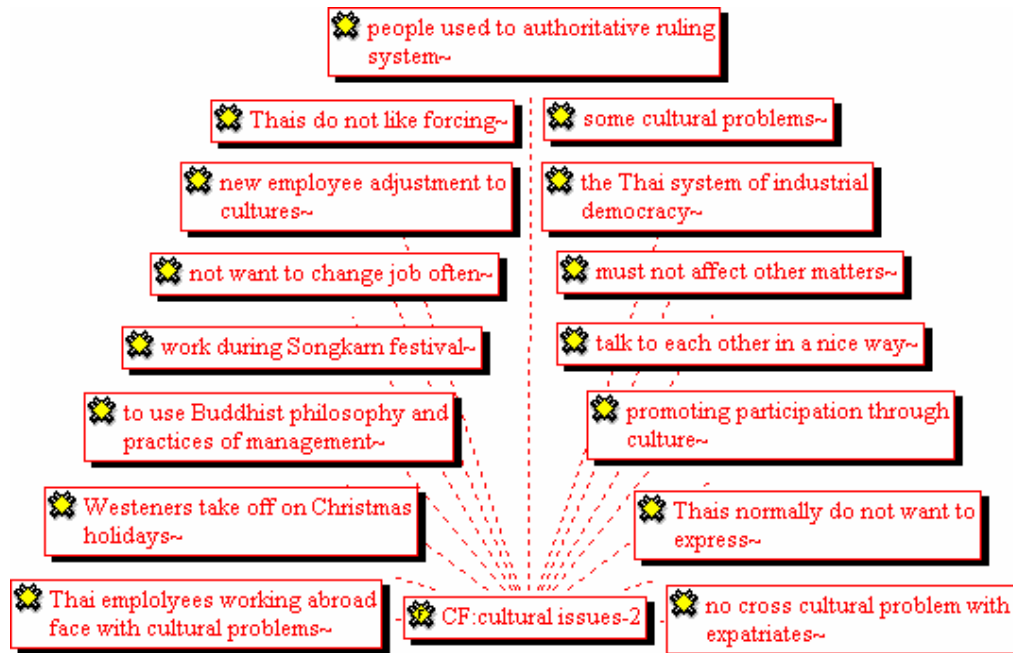
//…I think the forms of industrial democracy to be appropriate to Thailand should be the Thai system // …The system should create the brotherhood ways not the boss and subordinate or the master and slave systems. // …In our Thai culture we do not like forcing but we can request for cooperation and to treat each other like brothers and sisters. // …in the Songkarn festival if we asked them to please help in working overtime they usually do it. // …In western culture they take Christmas very seriously and they take off. // If the company cannot close during that period because the company must have output in this case the management have to apply the Thai approach to resolve the problem. // …Thai people we stay for hearth not for the money. For some employees although they receive less salary than other company they stay because they are happy. // It is not the same as in the western culture where the money is the major factor and if they are offered higher salary they will leave and usually there is no commitment or loyalty to the company. // …I feel good because we make use of our culture as there are strengths in our Thai culture that we are compromise. //

It was expressed by this stakeholder group that adapting to Thai culture in the company's day-to-day operation is very important. Thai culture is quite different from other cultures as shown especially by the comment stating that the Thais stay working for hearth not for money.

5.5.6 Democracy (Employers of non-unionized companies; SG-5)

The next category is democracy. There are 22 concepts in this category.

Perceptions related to democracy are provided in Figure 5.5.9.

Figure 5.5.9: Democracy (Employers of non-unionized companies; SG-5)

> *// Democracy in working I think is not to discriminate against others based on their education institution or races which we do not have this kind of problems... // ...I think this is the major different between the democracy at the national and the company levels. At the national level there are no profit and loss issues but in the company there are limits of the scope to the democracy for employees because as a firm we have commitment to the public and the owner... // In terms of voting in the job I think it is difficult and we cannot do anything because in business it is up to the customer... // The major problems in applying industrial democracy is how far it should go for example if we were to use the voting system in the factory it would be difficult to manage. For example if we use the voting system to vote to elect supervisor or chairman or to vote to choose to produce the company product or other things it would be problems as there are some constraints... //*

One interesting point emerged from the concept of democracy from this stakeholder group is the comment on the constraints of the voting system. It may be possible to apply a voting system in certain cases, but it could not be applied to all activities in the company.

5.5.7 Meeting (Employers of non-unionized companies; SG-5)

The next category is meeting. There are 18 concepts emerged in this category. Perceptions related to meeting are presented in Figure 5.5.10.

Figure 5.5.10: Meeting (Employers of non-unionized companies; SG-5)

// ...We have meeting with all employees too which is the meeting with thousands of employees. // ...This kind of meeting is good for information dissemination but we cannot do it often because the cost is high. // ...We inform them about the total sale of the month and the complaint we received from our customers. // ...At the shop floor level the supervisor or leader in charge in each area will have meetings with operators directly. The issues discussed in the meeting usually are work issues such as problems related to

work or rules and regulations… // …it is essential that the leader in the meeting must handle the meeting effectively. // We have a monthly meeting with managers to discuss the trend in the near future for example in the next two months how much we will be producing and etc. // …The committee meets on a monthly basis. // …Usually there are 5-6 subjects in each meeting which takes about one hour. Sometimes it took more than one hour and we will continue discussion until they are satisfied… //

Meeting is one of the means of employee participation as expressed by this stakeholder group. General meeting with all employees was practiced by two respondents while the other respondent did not practice this type of meeting. It was also noted that the general meeting is costly.

5.5.8 Participation (Employers of non-unionized companies; SG-5)

The next category is participation. There are 77 concepts in this category.

Perceptions related to participation are displayed in Figures 5.5.11, 5.512, 5.513 and 5.4.14.

Figure 5.5.11: Participation (Employers of non-unionized companies; SG-5)

Figure 5.5.12: Participation (Employers of non-unionized companies; SG-5)

Figure 5.5.13: Participation (Employers of non-unionized companies; SG-5)

Figure 5.5.14: Participation (Employers of non-unionized companies; SG-5)

Boxes in figure:
- to expand in the future~
- to create participative atmosphere~
- suggestion system~
- shift allowances~
- to use both approaches to participation~
- shareholding as rewarding programme~
- to consider its strengths and weakness~
- stock option programme for management~
- to use combination approach~
- representative participation~
- salary adjustment according to market~
- salary ployees are informed of company performance~
- to use different form for different situation~
- stock purchasing programme for management~
- salary adjustment is management decision~
- reward good example of mstake confession~
- supporting facilities are provided~
- two major types of participations~
- supervisor group is the key group in company~
- CF:participation-4
- salary employees are informed of margin and profit~

// For bonus we have contract with employees that it must not be less than two months but in the past they got more than two months for example last year they got 5 months and the year before last they got 3.5 months. There is no profit sharing scheme here. // When the company becomes public company the management set this programme up to reward employees for their contribution to the company by giving out shares to employees at certain basic price. When the price has gone up employees can sell it to make profit from it... // ...About 90% of our employees purchased the shares under this programme. At the beginning some of them did not join the programme because they did not understand the system and we communicate and explained to them and now I think about 99.99% joined the programme. // ...Actually the information is available in the website and if the supervisors open the website and read it they can inform their employees as our company is a pubic company. So the information is opened and we did not conceal any information. // ...In addition to this we share information about contribution to society too. So there are activities that are direct with company activities and indirect with company activities... //

Several forms of participation were emerged in this stakeholder group such as disclosure of information and financial participation in terms of employee

shareholding. It is interesting to note that one respondent was confident that almost 100% of employees joined a company share purchasing programme.

5.5.9 Problems in Participation (Employers of non-unionized companies; SG-5)

The next category is problems in participation. There are 71 concepts in this category. Perceptions related to problems in participation are displayed in Figures 5.5.15, 5.5.16 and 5.5.17.

Figure 5.5.15: Problems in Participation

(Employers of non-unionized companies; SG-5)

Figure 5.5.16: Problems in Participation

(Employers of non-unionized companies; SG-5)

just a minor problem~

must not affect other matters~

legal problem affects the company worldwide~

must not go out of way~

just follow the fashion~

must follow people values~

it begins with management~

must not cause ergonomics problems~

management must listen to feedbacks~

need leader to make decisive decision~

management conflicts with shareholders~

management has commitment to make profit~

long term thinking for resolving future problems~

must respond to the needs of of owners~

must responmd to the needs of shareholders~

must comply with all the rules~

need gradually development~

must have continuity of practices~

must not affect company values~

must not cause problems to people~

must make continue improvement~

must have clear procedure to avoid problems~

more pressures on management to have more employee participation~

management must have clear focus~

CF:problems in participation-2

management must take it seriously~

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Figure 5.5.17: Problems in Participation

(Employers of non-unionized companies; SG-5)

//…anything the team does must not cause problems to people for example too heavy workload or having problems of ergonomics and etc. // … when the team is working on something it affects the other things. Some of the team uses the wrong approach to solve the problem or it may be right approach according to their opinion but it has impacts on other parts. So we have to be careful on this matter too. // …Employees should recognize their duties and responsibilities. // …in public company we have to respond to the needs of people who are shareholders. We have commitment that we have to make profit based on several values of the company. // …When it happened like this it is difficult for the company to achieve its objectives... // …When it was not the same it would be difficult to find the point where it can meet and the interests will not be in consistent. // …I think it is difficult to change our culture to be full democracy radically. //

Several concepts in problems in participation emerged, including the problems related to the negative consequences of participation. One interesting comment made by the respondent was that it would be difficult to make the radical change to full democracy.

5.5.10 Training and Development (Employers of non-unionized companies; SG-5)

The next category is training and development. There are 9 concepts in this category. Perceptions related to training and development are displayed in Figure 5.5.18.

Figure 5.5.18: Training and Development

(Employers of non-unionized companies; SG-5)

> *// Employee needs may include career growth... // ...employee development... // I think we have to train our people to dare to speak out... // ...We train our supervisors. // I took this opportunity to communicate with them and train them. // ...The other thing we do here is that in addition to work related training we have a training programme for our employees on how to stay and work together. // At the same time we can learn from each team. // ...For example I myself have been growing with the growth of the company and if I was not managing this company I can manage the Thai companies. //*

Many types of training were used including relationship training. One interesting point is that one respondent was trained and grew up in the company and he is able to apply his managerial skills learned from this company to another company in the future.

5.5.11 Welfare (Employers of non-unionized companies; SG-5)

The next category is welfare. There are 8 concepts in this category.

Employer perceptions related to welfare are displayed in Figure 5.5.19.

Figure 5.5.19: Welfare (Employers of non-unionized companies; SG-5)
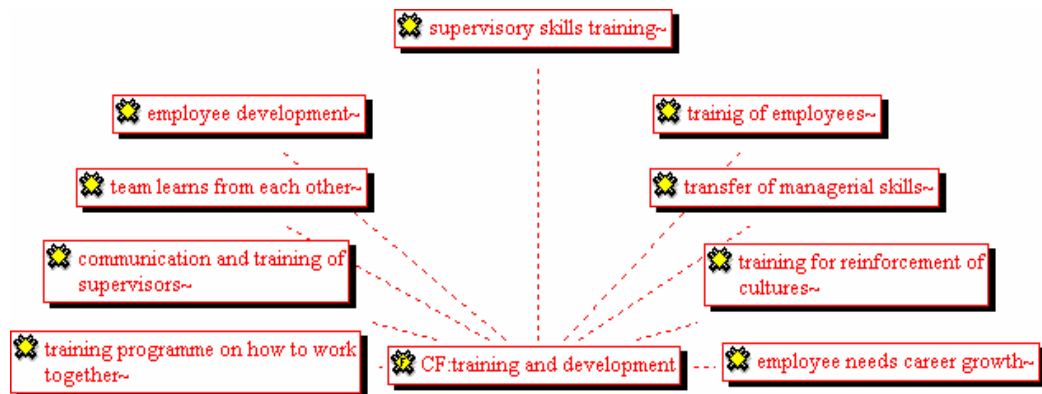
> *// …When employees participated in any activity they help in controlling such as in the case of canteen employees help control the price and quality of foods. // …employees can participate in managing several activities especially those activities that are related to their welfares such as transportation, library or canteen. //…if the company grow employees grow too and their families will receive benefits. If the families have better well being the society will be better too. // …In our company we look after the pregnant employees quite good. We help them to prepare to be good mother by having nurses and other trainers to teach them. We provide books and VDO to them so that they can prepare and can look after their child well so that they will become quality Thai citizen in the future. //*

It is interesting to note that in one company management paid much attention to pregnant employees and helped them prepare to be good mothers. It was also commented that employee participation helps the company to control the cost.

5.6 Employers Organization Leader Group; Stakeholder Group Six

This group comprises employer organization group leaders. There were three respondents in this group. There are 12 categories in this group as presented in Table 5.1, SG-6.

5.6.1 Barriers to Implementation (Employers organization leader group; SG-6)

The first category is barriers to the implementation of industrial democracy. There are 23 concepts in this category as presented in the network map displayed in Figure 5.6.1.

Figure 5.6.1: Barriers to implementation

(Employers organization leader group; SG-6)

// I think this is dangerous in enforcing the law... // ...I think employees should demand for all laws compliance before going into other benefits... // ...There is no employee at lower level represented in the board. I do not think that there is any company in Thailand who has employee representation in the board of directors. // ...I have seen some employees are appointed to be member of the board of directors but they are management level. For employees at the lower level I do not think there is any. // ...They have no rights to make any suggestion at all. They are just allowed to sit in the meeting and listen to the meeting only. // The trade union representatives are not appointed as member of the board of directors and they have no rights to vote

in the meeting. // …I think we have to use variety of methods and need not to be the participation at board level. // …rules and regulation that are not acceptable to employers. // …If employees have not enough experience and made wrong decision it will damage the company. //… I think we need to have real professional human resource people to handle the human resource functions. //

Several barriers to implementation concepts emerged in this stakeholder group and much was mentioned about employee representation at board level. One interesting point is that the respondents expressed that there is a need for professional human resource personnel.

5.6.2 Benefits of Participation (Employers organization leader group; SG-6)

The second category is benefits of participation. There are 45 concepts in this category as presented in the network map displayed in Figures 5.6.2 and 5.6.3.

Figure 5.6.2: Benefits of participation

(Employers organization leader group; SG-6)

Figure 5.6.3: Benefits of participation

(Employers organization leader group; SG-6)

// …In our company our labour relations is quite stable therefore we did not establish the welfare committee separately but the trade union committee assumed the responsibilities of the welfare committee at the same time. // …employees can participate in expressing their opinions it would enhance democratic system which will be benefit not only to employees but employers as well. // …make those employees wellbeing better. // …They also can demand for benefits other than those prescribed in the labour protection laws. // …employees receive protection under the labour laws both in terms of trade unions and employments. // …company can make profit and the management is improved. // …For employees I think that they give cooperation to employers. // … Employees gave their full cooperation to us. // …and employees have high morale it will reflect the company operation directly. // … it results in more benefits and compensations in terms of incomes and welfares it will make those employees wellbeing better. // …The benefits from the micro level will link to the macro level. That means that if it is good in the micro level it will reflect to the macro or the national level. // …From the good results of the company it will reflect the economic performance of the country at the macro level… //

Benefits of participation expressed by this stakeholder group ranged from: the benefit to the country; benefits to the company; and finally benefits to employees. However, one interesting point is that respondents believe that industrial democracy will provide economic benefit both at micro and macro level.

5.6.3 Collective Bargaining (Employers organization leader group; SG-6)

The third category is collective bargaining. There are 5 concepts in this category. Perceptions of participation through collective bargaining are displayed in Figure 5.6.4.

Figure 5.6.4: Collective Bargaining

(Employers organization leader group; SG-6)
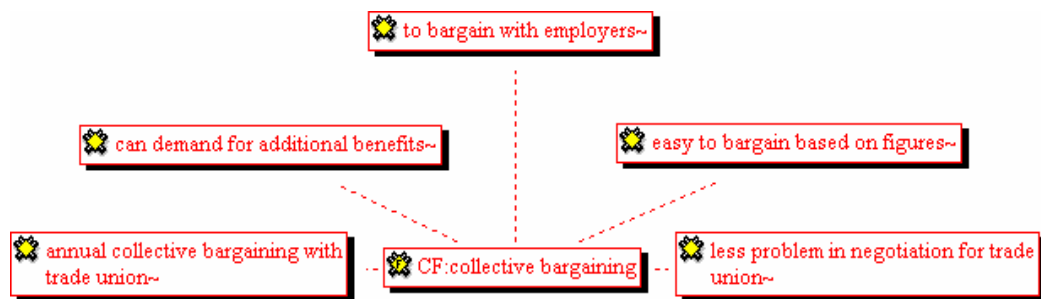
> *// …The trade union and management negotiated and agreed on terms and conditions of employment…// …We have collective bargaining and negotiation with our trade union every year. // …It is easy to bargain as we have figures to base on. // …For example if there will be a demand for negotiation for bonus or salary increase if employees did not know the result of the performance of the company such as market situation or other problems there will be a lot of problems in negotiation. // …They can prove that they are capable of negotiating with management and the results of the negotiation go to their fellow workers and those who elected them to represent them. //*

Collective bargaining is a means for employee participation. One interesting element in collective bargaining in this stakeholder group is that it was expressed that it is easy to bargain when fact and figures are available to both parties.

5.6.4 Committees (Employers organization leader group; SG-6)

The next category is committee. There are 13 concepts in this category. Perceptions of participation through committees are displayed in Figure 5.6.5.

Figure 5.6.5: Committees (Employers organization leader group; SG-6)

// …The committee system did not go down to small size company. The large company can comply with law. In small company, employees deal with employer through their leader. // There are provisions of laws stipulated employee participation such as the provision about welfare committee… // …Safety and health are very important issues in industry. So safety and health committee plays an important role. // For trade union and employee committee it is depending on whether employees in such a company want to set it up or not and if they wanted to do so they can do it according to the labour laws. // …Under this law employees have rights to elect many committees not only trade union but it includes safety committee, employee welfares committee. // …For suggestion there is a committee to consider it and if the suggestion is adopted the employee will be rewarded in cash in the amount depending on the contribution of such suggestion. // …They can participate through committees… // …they have their regular meetings in accordance with the laws and this helps create better understanding to each other… //

The committee is an important means for employee participation and there are several committees practiced in the company. It is interesting to note that there is a suggestion committee to consider employee suggestions and reward employee contributions made through suggestions.

5.6.5 Cultural Issues (Employers organization leader group; SG-6)

The next category is cultural issues. There are 25 concepts in this category. Perceptions related to cultures are provided in Figure 5.6.6.

Figure 5.6.6: Cultural issues (Employers organization leader group; SG-6)

// …Thai cultures and foreign cultures are different. // …Thais are not very well discipline and the education level is also different. Our Thai cultures are different and there is a proverb that 'to do all things as you want is the real Thai.'//It is the nature of the Thais and it is the Thai cultures that we talk to each other and understand each other but not to force. If you force them they will do it only in front of you and behind you they will not do it. This is the fact. // In the company that I am working with now it is a joint venture… // …their unique cultures especially the cultures in labour management. Their cultures have been instilled in their people for a long time and it was much longer than the Thai cultures. Their labour system is very much different from our system. Their concept of labour management is different from the Thai

concept. In the Thai concept we want to treat employees as brothers and sisters like we are in one family or treating employees like parent treating children. // ...they uphold the principles of law and what was prescribed by the law they follow that. In our case sometimes we may say that it is right to uphold the law but if we stick too much to the law we do not have flexibility. // ... some cultural problems in multinational companies. They have perception of their own countries. What they see in our country is totally different form what they have seen in their countries. //

It was expressed by this stakeholder group that there are some cultural problems in multinational or joint venture companies. Thai and foreign partners have different cultures.

5.6.6 Democracy (Employers organization leader group; SG-6)

The next category is democracy. There are 26 concepts in this category. Perceptions related to democracy are provided in Figure 5.6.7.

Figure 5.6.7: Democracy (Employers organization leader group; SG-6)

//…The meaning of democracy is the fairness in working. Employee participation creates fairness at work and it benefits employees. // …Industrial democracy means that we give rights and freedom to employees in an organization or a company for what they should have according to the labour laws. // For example the law provides employees with rights and freedom to establish employee organization or trade union or for employees to have their representatives to deal with management. // …it is the legal rights of employees… // …is rather a new concept although we have labour relations

laws and it required some development in this area. // It is a matter of law and in the case of labour they have freedom to combine themselves and establish their own organization and this is a part of democracy. // I would say that it is the opening for employees to have the rights to acknowledge information and the operation of the company. // Employees have rights to express themselves…// Industrial democracy to me means rights and duties of employees. // Employees have the rights to demand for benefits but there must be good justification and they have to think about the impact on the company business too. // …For employer who grows from a one man business it is difficult to find democracy in the management because the he will use his own experience that he was success as a model to manage his business. //

The concepts of industrial democracy that emerged in this stakeholder group concentrated on employee rights and freedom. One interesting point from the concept of democracy emerged from this stakeholder group is the comment that employees have rights but they also have duties and responsibilities. They have rights to demand more benefits but they have to think about the impact of their demands on business too.

5.6.7 Participation (Employers organization leader group; SG-6)

The next category is participation. There are 81 concepts in this category. Perceptions related to participation are displayed in Figures 5.6.8, 5.6.9, 5.6.10 and 5.6.11.

Figure 5.6.8: Participation (Employers organization leader group; SG-6)

Figure 5.6.9: Participation (Employers organization leader group; SG-6)

law compliance~

employee participation is the right policy~

not only top down policy~

employee shareholders~

employee opinion survey~

law prescribes employee representation~

guidelines for relationships~

lead by experienced person~

employees express whtat they wanted~

fair distribution of savings to employees~

laws provided good guidelines~

explanation of profit and loss~

employee shareholder in public company~

employees deal with employer through leader~

management techniques open for employee participation~

higher level policy to comply with laws~

employee participation in continue improvement~

management employees are board members~

employee can participate in QCC and ISO~

CF:participation-2

employees are informed of previous day situations~

Figure 5.6.10: Participation (Employers organization leader group; SG-6)

profit and loss~

participative behaviour~

practice it in the company~

participate in management~

questions and answers in the meeting~

participation can damage the company~

principles of law is policy from aborad~

participating through morning meeting~

participation creates fairness..~

participate in decision making~

profit sharing in public company~

participate in problem solving~

participation is depending on both parties~

participation through small group activity~

participation in day to day working~

participation through QCC system~

participate through committees..~

promote employee participation..~

participation through trade union~

CF:participation-3

presenting results of group work~

Figure 5.6.11: Participation (Employers organization leader group; SG-6)

// …The company will have to develop employees and must invest in developing people in order that they can participate in democracy and make proper decision for the company. // …In day to day working if employees face with problem they can propose their ideas to management or write their suggestions. // …There are some practices in the company for shop floor participation which they called the morning meeting. The meeting took place for about 5 minutes and talked about the problems and how to resolve the problems. // …For small group activity employees work in group to resolve problems and they make presentation of the results of their group work. // …They can participate through committees or trade union representative. // …I think the best practice is the disclosure of information. // …In each year how much the bonus is to be paid or how much the salary adjustment will be made the management must disclose the information to employees and they must create understanding with employees. If all organizations or all companies can do this it will help in reducing a lot of management problems. // …In the shareholders meeting the accounting of company performance was distributed so all of the financial information is disclosed. Through this meeting all information can be disclosed by these employees to their friends who are not company shareholders. // …the figures of this year is disclosed as to make it transparent in management. //

Several forms of participation emerged in this stakeholder group such as disclosure of information and financial participation. It is interesting to note that one respondent expressed that the best practice is information disclosure and that information disclosure makes company management transparent.

5.6.8 Problems in Participation (Employers organization leader group; SG-6)

The next category is problems in participation. There are 51 concepts in this category. Perceptions related to problems in participation are displayed in Figures 5.6.12, 5.6.13 and 5.6.14.

Figure 5.6.12: Problems in Participation

(Employers organization leader group; SG-6)
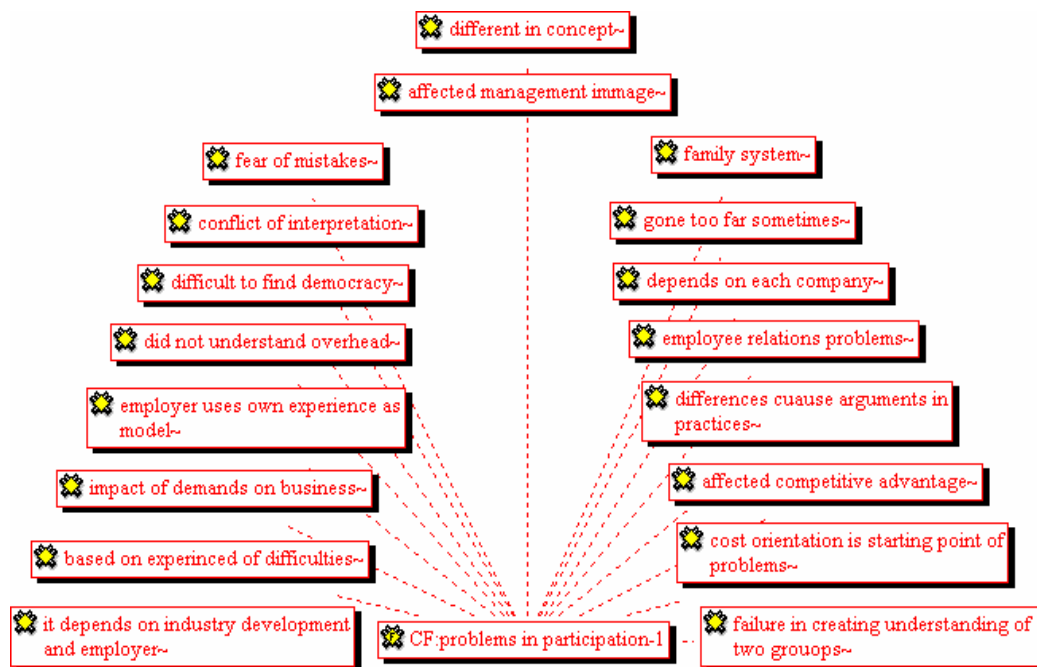
Figure 5.6.13: Problems in Participation

(Employers organization leader group; SG-6)

need to have quality representatives~

need to create better understanding of laws~

more publicity of successful participation~

just responding to employee demands~

need proper understanding~

need more development~

mislead and misunderstanding~

need consistency of practices~

management is cost orientation~

laws provided good guidelines~

management did not understand laws~

no legal problems in medium and large companies~

new group did not know corporate cultures~

management expects others to be cost orientatioan~

new group has demanding attitude~

need some exceptions in practices~

it is difficult to have general meeting~

CF:problems in participation-2

management affraid of trade union~

Figure 5.6.14: Problems in Participation

(Employers organization leader group; SG-6)

> *// …However, if it is over the economic condition or the nature of employee income it will reduce the company competitive advantage or become loss...//*
> *… to disclose the information it would look not good because it related to management. // …They fear of mistakes. // …Their concept of labour management is different from the Thai concept. // …Because there are differences in basic concepts and principles of management in our company there are some arguments in practices too. // …So there is a conflict in the trade union. // …There are some problems in interpretation of the laws. This is the main problem. When there is different interpretation there are conflicts and lead to employee relations problems. // …depends on many factors such as the development of industry and employers. // …For company with more than 300 employees it would be difficult to have direct meeting with all employees... // …The manager-owner of the small companies did not understand the laws or rules and regulations. // …I have some experience on this matter myself in the past when the law was newly enacted the management afraid of this provision and tried to restrain the establishment of trade union. //*

Several concepts in problems in participation emerged, including the problems related to the negative consequences of participation on management image. One interesting comment made by a respondent was that employee participation could reduce the competitive advantage of the company.

5.6.9 Trade Union Issues (Employers organization leader group; SG-6)

The next category is trade union issues. There are 20 concepts in this category. Perceptions related to trade union are displayed in Figure 5.6.15.

Figure 5.6.15: Trade union issues (Employers organization leader group; SG-6)

// There are two companies that I know that are successful in having trade union to participate in management... // ...It helps management to be more opened and allowed trade union to participate in looking after the well being of employees. // ...they have chances to acknowledge information from the company. // ...We have a meeting between management and trade union every month... // ...Based on this agreement the welfare committee was established according to the process required by law and the trade union committee was elected as welfare committee. // ...It will help the trade union to do their job better. // ...Trade union can move for law enactment or amendment to benefit employees. // Trade unions can play roles in bipartite system. // Trade union can represent employees in demand and negotiation or conciliation... // ...However, there are still some companies that are backward and not accepting employee organization... // Even in the company that is a semi public enterprise the trade union representatives are allowed to listen in the

board meeting only. // Trade union committee can participate in management but not at the level to become a member of the board of directors. //

Several trade union issues emerged in this stakeholder group including the comment on the successful participation of trade unions. One interesting element is the comment that some backward companies are not accepting trade unions.

5.6.10 Training and Development (Employers organization leader group; SG-6)

The next category is training and development. There are 15 concepts in this category. Perceptions related to training and development concepts are displayed in Figure 5.6.16.

Figure 5.6.16: Training and Development

(Employers organization leader group; SG-6)

// …Employees can learn and after six months or one year they will be able to perform their duties. There should be opportunities for them to develop themselves too so they can improve their performance continually. When they

are well trained and can perform their job well they then can participate in various participation activities such as small group activity. // …The company will have to develop employees and must invest in developing people in order that they can participate in democracy and make proper decision for the company. // …There are several training courses in worker participation... // …and provide them training so that they can use as their guidelines for practicing I think the problem of not understanding each other will be less... // …So, industrial democracy starts from this point… // …Management must create understanding of employees and train them so that they can participate appropriately. //

The respondents in this stakeholder group expressed that training is a major key success of industrial democracy. One interesting point is that a respondent in this group believes that training is the starting point of industrial democracy.

5.6.11 Welfare (Employers organization leader group; SG-6)

The next category is welfare. There are 5 concepts in this category. Perceptions related to welfare are displayed in Figure 5.6.17.

Figure 5.6.17: Welfare (Employers organization leader group; SG-6)

// There are provisions of laws stipulated employee participation such as the provision about welfare committee. // …We have to look after our employees well by providing appropriate welfares and facilities to them. // …and the trade union committee was elected as welfare committee. // …Since we have

our regular meeting every month the trade union will raise up issues concerning with employee welfares in the meeting for employer to consider and make improvement. And because the content of the meeting is on the same matters as welfare committee so we agreed to have trade union committee to take over the responsibilities of the welfare committee too. // …Based on this agreement the welfare committee was established according to the process required by law and the trade union committee was elected as welfare committee. //

Most of the concepts of welfare emerged in this stakeholder group were related to welfare committees. It is interesting to note that in one company the meeting of the welfare committee is combined with the monthly meeting of trade union with management.

5.7 Government Officials; Stakeholder Group Seven

This group comprises government officials. There were three respondents in this group. There are 12 categories in this group as presented in Table 5.1, SG-7.

5.7.1 Barriers to Implementation (Government officials; SG-7)

The first category is barriers to the implementation of industrial democracy. There are 20 concepts in this category as presented in the network map displayed in Figure 5.7.1.

Figure 5.7.1: Barriers to implementation (Government officials; SG-7)

//…Many trade unions are against employee participation. They think that the form of industrial democracy should be only one form that is employee participation through trade union. // …In one dispute case management of the company said that he will not give anything at all if it will be an achievement of the trade union. // …There is a need to teach management and employees on the system of joint consultation in deep that it is industrial democracy. // …The government officials brought this idea to Thailand and promoted it and later on put the idea into the law. // …But in practices employers just try to comply with the law requirements only. // …they feel that they have to just comply with the law only. // …There is no participation in financial management or decision making. // …The cost may be roughly and what they have requested if granted would cause what problems in practices and what to do if the request is granted and become long terms conditions of employment… // …that everything is confidential and all depend on management to decide. // …no information disclosure to employees. All matters are kept confidential especially the information related to business. Management may think that there is no use to disclose information to employees. //

Several barriers to implementation concepts emerged in this stakeholder group and some mentioned trade union attitudes against employee participation and anti trade union attitude of employers. One interesting point here is that respondents believe that education and training will help in the success of the implementation of industrial democracy.

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5.7.2 Benefits of Participation (Government officials; SG-7)

The second category is benefits of participation. There are 43 concepts in this category as presented in the network map displayed in Figures 5.7.2 and 5.7.3.

Figure 5.7.2: Benefits of participation (Government officials; SG-7)

Figure 5.7.3: Benefits of participation (Government officials; SG-7)

> *// …Employees receive better compensation as a result of their participation. // …I think it will create good cooperation which will result in productivity and quality including the better understanding of each other. // …It will create employee commitment and improvement of productivity and quality of life of all parties. // …Employees have confident on the company, feel warm and diligent in working which will result in better productivity for the company. // …Employers receive cooperation from employees and can help improving company performance. // …improve the work performance of the company to the highest efficiency and productivity. // …Employers know the needs and problems of employees and can respond to such needs and can resolve the problems. // …Having gone through the economic crisis management and trade union continued their cooperation through participation and now they are able to pay 5-6 months bonus to employees. // …It will create trust of each other. //*

Benefits of participation expressed by this stakeholder group concentrated on benefits to company and employees. It was interesting to note a respondent express that, through employee participation, the company was able to go through the economic crisis and now the company is able to pay 5-6 months bonus to employees.

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5.7.3 Collective Bargaining (Government officials; SG-7)

The third category is collective bargaining. There are 7 concepts in this category. Perceptions of participation through collective bargaining are displayed in Figure 5.7.4.

Figure 5.7.4: Collective Bargaining (Government officials; SG-7)
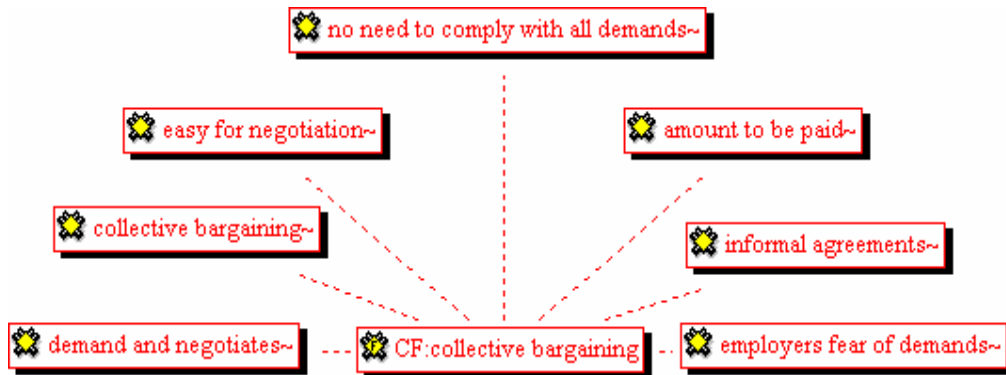
> *// …in bipartite system where the representatives of both parties in the committee make collective bargaining. // …Trade union should be the one who makes demand and negotiates with management and expresses to management on behalf of employees. // …From my experience they demand for bonus in terms of the amount but not how to allocate the bonus. // …The figures made negotiation better if the company is under loss situation the bonus payment can be negotiated for lesser amount and it depends on the negotiation of both parties. // …In some case the employer afraid that if there is a meeting the committee will make demands… // …For management side we would like them to understand the real objectives also that when they meet with the committee they need not to comply with them everything….and it is not necessary to conclude whether to provide or not provide the welfare. // …There are some informal agreements to help companies to survive. There are agreements on wages reduction and furlough with 40-50% payment and others to help the companies to survive. This is the result of participation of employees or industrial democracy. //*

Collective bargaining is a means for employee participation. One interesting element of collective bargaining emerged in this stakeholder group is that the employer can bargain for reduction of wages and welfare of employees.

5.7.4 Committees (Government officials; SG-7)

The next category is committees. There are 25 concepts in this category.

Perceptions of participation through committees are displayed in Figure 5.7.5.

Figure 5.7.5: Committees (Government officials; SG-7)

// …We have many types of committees and it causes some problems. Management has to deal with many committees and in some case they have to deal with trade union too. // …I think that if we have only one committee there may be some disadvantages because the committee members have to work on both safety and welfares. // …there are not many people who want to be member of welfare committee because there are more responsibilities added into their regular duties and they did not see the benefits of being welfare committee. // …Some companies allowed for election and they developed those people… // …They may think that it is not useful to have an election so they have tried to find the ways to have committee without election so that they can control them too. //

The committee is an important means for employee participation and there are several committees practiced in the company. It is interesting to note that while there are some complaints about having too many committees in one company, a respondent in this group supports the idea of having many committees.

5.7.5 Communication (Government officials; SG-7)

The next category is communication. There are 5 concepts in this category. Perceptions of communication are given in Figure 5.7.6.

Figure 5.7.6: Communication (Government officials; SG-7)
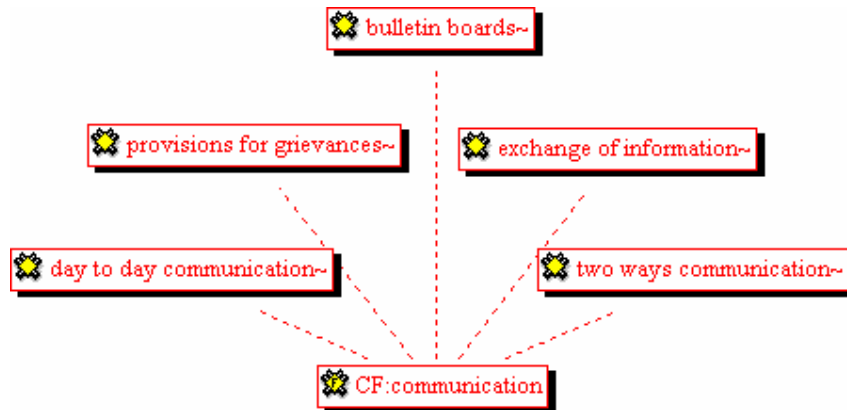
> *// …There are day to day communication between supervisor and employees. When management and employees have good relations there will be two ways communication that is from top down and bottom up. In day to day communication there will be participation and expressions form both sides… // …There will be exchange of information so employees will receive information and help them to understand the situations…//…and disseminate information to employees through bulletin boards… // …there were provisions for grievances and listening to employee opinions. // …Before the exercise there is an exchange of information. At least management can communicate with employees and listen to employees and at the same time employees can express their opinions or ideas… //*

It is interesting that the concepts of communication emerged in this stakeholder group emphasized two-way communication. The bulletin board is still the main channel for disseminating information to employees.

5.7.6 Cultural Issues (Government officials; SG-7)

The next category is cultural issues. There are 26 concepts in this category.

Perceptions related to cultures are provided in Figure 5.7.7.

Figure 5.7.7: Cultural issues (Government officials; SG-7)

//…There is a need to adjust the working system to accommodate Thai cultures. // …We have to apply Thai cultures in working in industry such as we have to have sympathetic to each other and understand each other and helping each other… // This is the traditions and customs or Thai cultures which we have to bring into consideration in establishing the framework of industrial democracy. // In order to be consistency in practices and to have appropriate system I think we have to look into several factors such as the nature of the people in the area or the cultural side that we have to consider… // …If we apply Thai culture of sympathetic to others and mix it with industrial principles of motivation and understanding along with other working situation we may have a new model that is suitable for Thailand. // …I still think that the system of participation in democracy in the Thai ways or the brotherhood way

is the most suitable form for us. But we have to understand and be patient and adapt it to the modern situation and the present working conditions. //

The cultural issues emerged in this stakeholder group concentrated on the Thai culture. It is interesting to note that respondents in this stakeholder group believe that the most suitable form of industrial democracy for Thailand is a system that can accommodate Thai culture.

5.7.7 Democracy (Government officials; SG-7)

The next category is democracy. There are 16 concepts in this category. Perceptions related to democracy are provided in Figure 5.7.8.

Figure 5.7.8: Democracy (Government officials; SG-7)
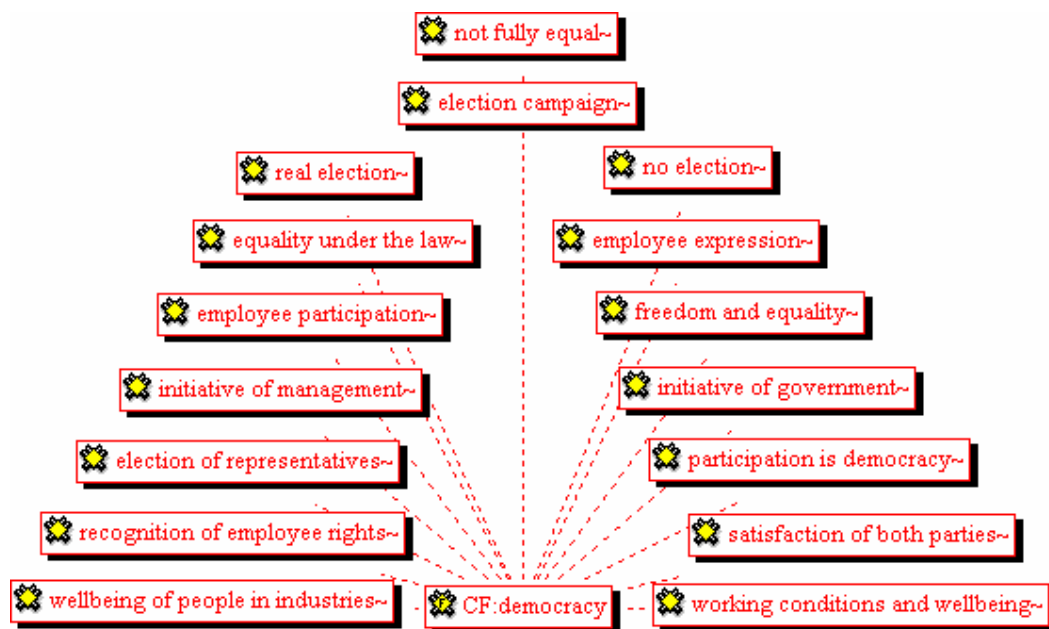
// …democracy that involves industry or labour administration it is to open for employee participation to create productivity in the enterprise which will create the best working conditions and quality of life of employees. // …In my opinion industrial democracy should refer to the participation of employees related to work matters. // …So this is democracy and the participation is democracy... // …democracy is one way to create equality under the law which will reflect to the wellbeing of employees. // …that we must have freedom and we must be equal. // …Employees have chances to express themselves…// …I think this is the starting point to open for employee expression to employers. // …Sometimes management thinks that they should

take the lead but in terms of democracy there is a chance for employees to participate by expressing of their opinions. // …Employee committee is established with responsibility of looking after employee welfares in the company and employees can elect their representatives to be member of the committee. // …There are some campaigns of candidates too but it was not like the campaign for election of the MP. // …There are recognition of the rights to organize and the law. //

The concepts of industrial democracy emerged in this stakeholder group concentrated on freedom and equality. One interesting point from the concept of democracy emerged from this stakeholder group is the comment that industrial democracy is the participation of the employee in work-related matters and participation *is* democracy.

5.7.8 Participation (Government officials; SG-7)

The next category is participation. There are 59 concepts in this category. Perceptions related to participation are displayed in Figures 5.7.9, 5.7.10 and 5.7.11.

Figure 5.7.9: Participation (Government officials; SG-7)

Figure 5.7.10: Participation (Government officials; SG-7)

Figure 5.7.11: Participation (Government officials; SG-7)
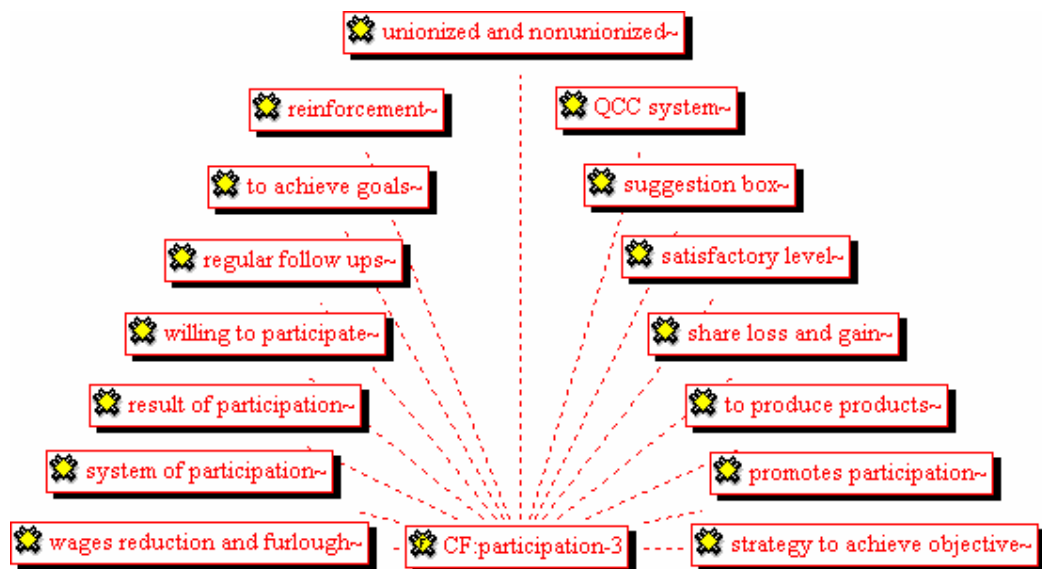
// …the law required to have employee participation by the bipartite system such as to have welfare committee in the company. **//** *I think the best form of industrial democracy for Thailand is the bipartite system.* **//** *…Those unionized companies can use participation through trade union but those without trade union can use consultation system.* **//** *…For promotion of employee participation without provision of laws by government we can see from the promotion of joint consultation system.* **//** *…In my opinion the best form of industrial democracy should be the joint consultation.* **//** *…For example the large companies without trade union… they have welfare committees to promote industrial democracy or employee participation. There are several committees such as sport committee, dormitory committee, outing committee, library committee and etc. So both unionized and non-unionized companies used industrial democracy.* **//** *…Employees can participate through many committees both the committees that prescribed by laws and those committees that established by management or by the agreement of both parties…* **//**

The concepts of participation emerged in this stakeholder group mostly concerned the definition and forms of participation. It is interesting to note that one respondent expressed that a bipartite system is the best for Thailand and that the best form of industrial democracy is joint consultation.

5.7.9 Problems in Participation (Government officials; SG-7)

The next category is problems in participation. There are 96 concepts in this category. Perceptions related to problems in participation are displayed in Figures 5.7.12, 5.7.13, 5.7.14 and 5.7.15.

Figure 5.7.12: Problems in Participation (Government officials; SG-7)

Figure 5.7.13: Problems in Participation (Government officials; SG-7)

- employers fear of demands~
- more disclosure~
- minor problem~
- more responsibilities~
- high hope~
- international concept~
- labour relations issues~
- more practice~
- international standards~
- employer dissatisfaction~
- more knowledge~
- insert the idea into laws~
- managing committee work~
- industrial system~
- many types of committees~
- labour as parts of resources~
- minimum standard~
- employees are the followers~
- machines and toxic chemicals~
- leak of information~
- just to comply with law only~
- employee not equal with employer~
- management not accepting system~
- laws based on internaional practices~
- CF:problems in participation-2
- knowledge of business management~

Figure 5.7.14: Problems in Participation (Government officials; SG-7)

- not able to implement fully~
- not enough time~
- no election~
- no justification~
- need adjustments~
- no flexibility~
- no place to stand~
- no detail information~
- no dedication~
- much talking about~
- not enough training~
- not applicable~
- not committed to it~
- must suit situations~
- no trade union representation at board level~
- need more practices~
- mostly know in theory~
- newly created system~
- not enough time to manage~
- no need to comply with all demands~
- must follow employee ideas~
- not able to work with management~
- CF:problems in participation-3
- most decisions made by employer~

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Figure 5.7.15: Problems in Participation (Government officials; SG-7)

// …From my experience the welfare committee has problems of managing their work. Because they have to do their regular work and at the same time they have to have spare time to manage the committee activities. // …The time is limited as they have to do their regular work too… // The government suggests that they work on committee matters after working hours but they want to rest too… // …Training is not provided to them widely enough and there is no continuity of training. // …At present I think the disclosure of information is not fully made… // …Employees have not much chance to participate in decision making. // …They are not doing on their own thinking so they are not committed to it. // …At present employers strict to rules and regulations in practicing their management. // …When employees established trade union their representatives are terminated… Most of them are small scale enterprises and their labour relations and personnel management system are not well developed. //

Several concepts in problems in participation emerged, including the problems related to disclosure of information and the establishment of trade union. One interesting comment made by a respondent was that there is a problem of time for participation, as employees have to do their regular work along with working on committees and other participative activities.

5.7.10 Trade Union Issues (Government officials; SG-7)

The next category is trade union issues. There are 25 concepts in this category. Perceptions related to trade union are displayed in Figure 5.7.16.

Figure 5.7.16: Trade union issues (Government officials; SG-7)

// …Normally, employees without experience of organizing in a group when they are newly combined their expressions are usually in the way of violent. But after they have gained some experience and become mature things will be better. If both sides adjust to each other it will work well. //… But trade union may not look at only the income factor. Trade union may concern more with the famous or image of the trade union itself including the political factor. // …However, the trade union remains their standpoint that welfares are issues to be handled by trade union. If the welfares are handled by the committee the trade union will have no place to stand. // …They think in this way may be because they are not strong enough. // …employer takes advantage of industrial democracy. Employer may try to prevent trade union. I think the trade union would still feel that participation through trade union is better. // …At the same time if trade unions also were to adjust their roles and use the system of participation of employees through employee organization it will work well. //

Several trade union issues emerged in this stakeholder group, including the roles of trade union. One interesting element is the comment that the trade union standpoint of welfare activities must be handled by trade unions only.

5.7.11 Welfare (Government officials; SG-7)

The next category is welfare. There are 14 concepts in this category.

Perceptions related to welfare are displayed in Figure 5.7.17.

Figure 5.7.17: Welfare (Government officials; SG-7)

> *//…So the activities now are mostly involving employee welfares // …The thing to gain from this is the other relationships or the efficiency of management of the current welfares or what ever. // …At present the laws stress on welfare matters. There is a requirement to have welfare committee and it depends on the committee to initiate the activities to bring more welfare to employees. // …I have explained to them that the welfare committee need not to consider additional welfare in the meeting only. // …The committee may consider the current welfares to see if they are efficiently managed or if there is any need for the improvement in the management of the existing welfares. // …We also inspect the operation of welfare committee too. The inspection is made on the compulsory items that the committee must perform such as the regular meeting of the committee. //*

Most concepts of welfare emerged in this stakeholder group related to the welfare committee and the functions of the welfare committee. It is interesting to note that there is an inspection of welfare committees and the inspection items are those compulsory items required by law such as the meeting of the committee.

5.8 Members of Tripartite Bodies; Stakeholder Group Eight

This group comprises members of tripartite bodies. There were three respondents in this group. There are 12 categories in this group as presented in Table 5.1, SG-8.

5.8.1 Barriers to Implementation (Members of tripartite bodies; SG-8)

The first category is barriers to the implementation of industrial democracy. There are 19 concepts in this category as presented in the network map displayed in Figure 5.8.1.

Figure 5.8.1: Barriers to implementation (Members of tripartite bodies; SG-8)
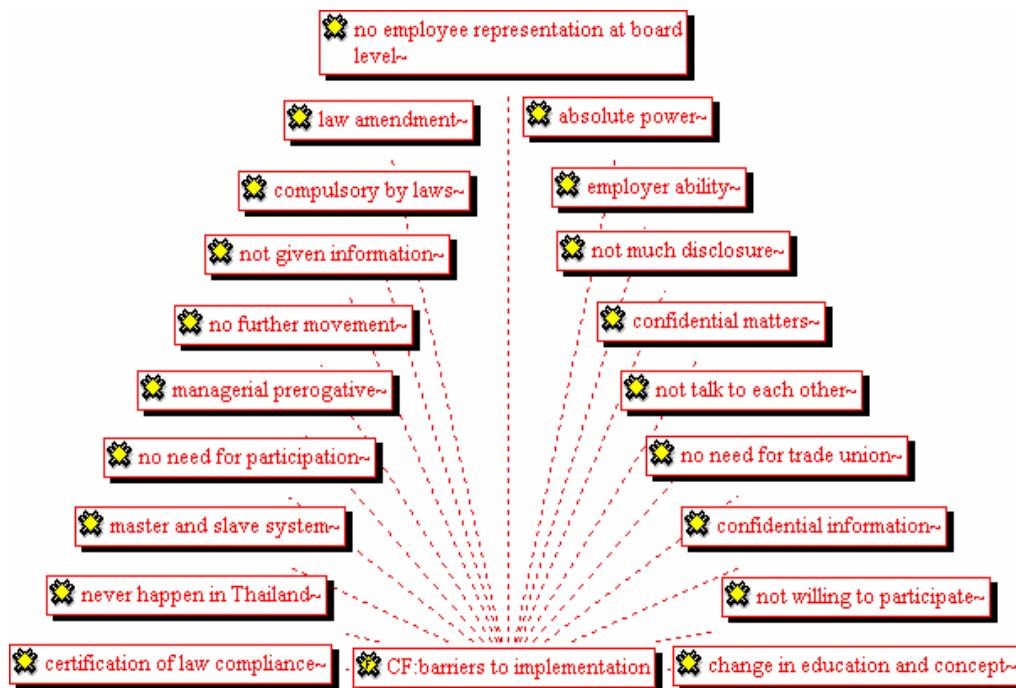
// ...the owner still have absolute power in the company // ...The master and slave system promotes the idea that employer is master and have all the powers to manage everything. Employer is the one who makes all decision and employer is clever and needs no advice or suggestion or reminding from the party who is inferior. // ...There is no employee appointed as a member of the board of directors. There has never been the case in Thailand and I belief that

it will never happen in Thailand. // ...call managerial prerogative. In principles the capital owners can do whatever they want to do with their capital. Employees just come to work and receive compensation and that is all. // ...In public companies there are some disclosures of information but it is still not much. // ...From what I have seen industrial or business matters are still kept as organization confidential matters. It discloses only information about profit and loss or the results of the operation. // ...Financial information in Thailand is considered confidential information and we do not like to disclose to employees. // ...The committee would become the certifier for employer that he has complied with all the requirements of the laws. //

Several barriers to implementation concepts emerged in this stakeholder group and some of them mentioned the absolute power of employers and management prerogatives. One interesting point here is that a respondent believed that participation at board level, where an employee is appointed as a member of the company board of directors, will never happen in Thailand.

5.8.2 Benefits of Participation (Members of tripartite bodies; SG-8)

The next category is benefits of participation. There are 52 concepts in this category as presented in the network map displayed in Figures 5.8.2 and 5.8.3.

Figure 5.8.2: Benefits of participation (Members of tripartite bodies; SG-8)

Figure 5.8.3: Benefits of participation (Members of tripartite bodies; SG-8)

> *// …In terms of social they will have a better quality of life and happiness in working. // …I think that sometimes if there was a strike in the company the understanding between employer and employees may be better as both parties have learned the lesson. // committees can discuss with employer to bring more welfares to employees. // …In Thailand employees have high concern for their job security. They afraid that employer may do spitefully to them. // …In many organizations there are employee representatives in the disciplinary investigating committee… This is to ensure that employer did not do spitefully to employee. // …When employees have good intention and good concepts and employers see the benefits from consultation and negotiation with committees, employer can use them to benefit the management of their company too. // …Employer can take these ideas or demands of employees to improve the management of their enterprise or organization. // …If they did not see their future especially in those small companies they seek ways to go out to work in the large company. If employees know their future and they have the hope that they can progress to a higher level position in the company they would not leave. They may choose to take a higher position with more responsibilities and less pay rather than the position with higher pay but less participation. //*

Benefits of participation expressed by this stakeholder group also concerned quality of life and happiness in working. It was interesting to note a respondent express that a Thai may choose to take up a higher position with more responsibilities and less pay rather than take up a position with higher pay but less participation.

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5.8.3 Collective Bargaining (Members of tripartite bodies; SG-8)

The next category is collective bargaining. There are 12 concepts in this category. Perceptions of participation through collective bargaining are displayed in Figure 5.8.4.

Figure 5.8.4: Collective Bargaining (Members of tripartite bodies; SG-8)
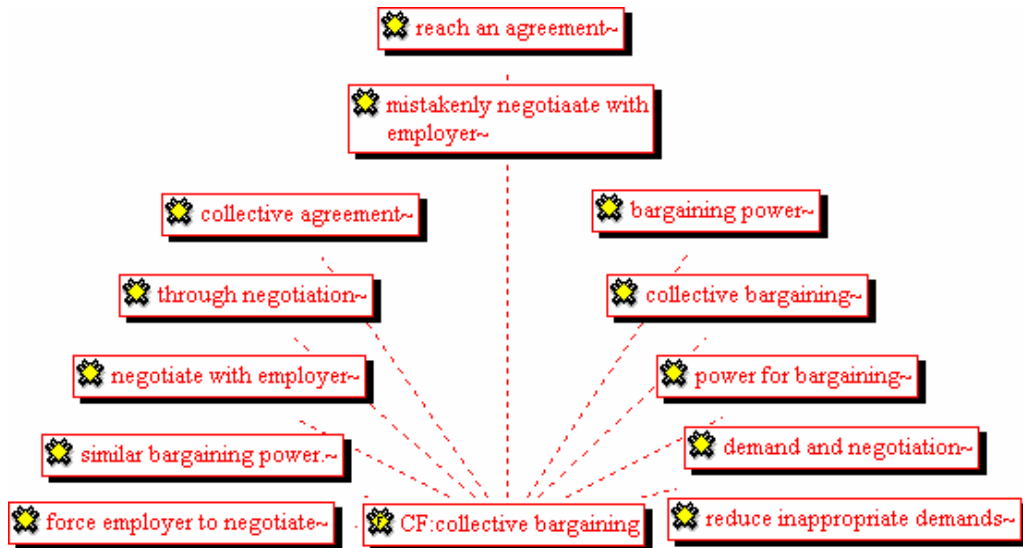
> *// …It begins from the rights that they gained from the laws and from the contract including the additional benefits gained from the collective bargaining by the trade union. // …has the power to bargain with employer which we call collective bargaining. // …The trade union system existed in enterprises is occurred from the creation of bargaining power. // …It means that there is equality and the two parties have very similar bargaining power. // …When both parties reached an agreement from their bargaining there will be a collective labour agreement or agreement on terms and conditions of employment. // …When there is a trade union it has the rights to make demands and negotiate with employer for more benefits. // …If he did not respond to such needs and if the matters are under the collective bargaining provision employees have the rights to force him to turn to negotiate with them to have a collective agreement… //*

Expression on collective bargaining in this stakeholder group involved collective bargaining and collective agreements. It should be noted here that bargaining power is recognized by law for a group of employees and a trade union in addition to the political and social forces of employees and trade union.

5.8.4 Committees (Members of tripartite bodies; SG-8)

The next category is committee. There are 17 concepts in this category.

Perceptions of participation through committees are displayed in Figure 5.8.5.

Figure 5.8.5: Committees (Members of tripartite bodies; SG-8)
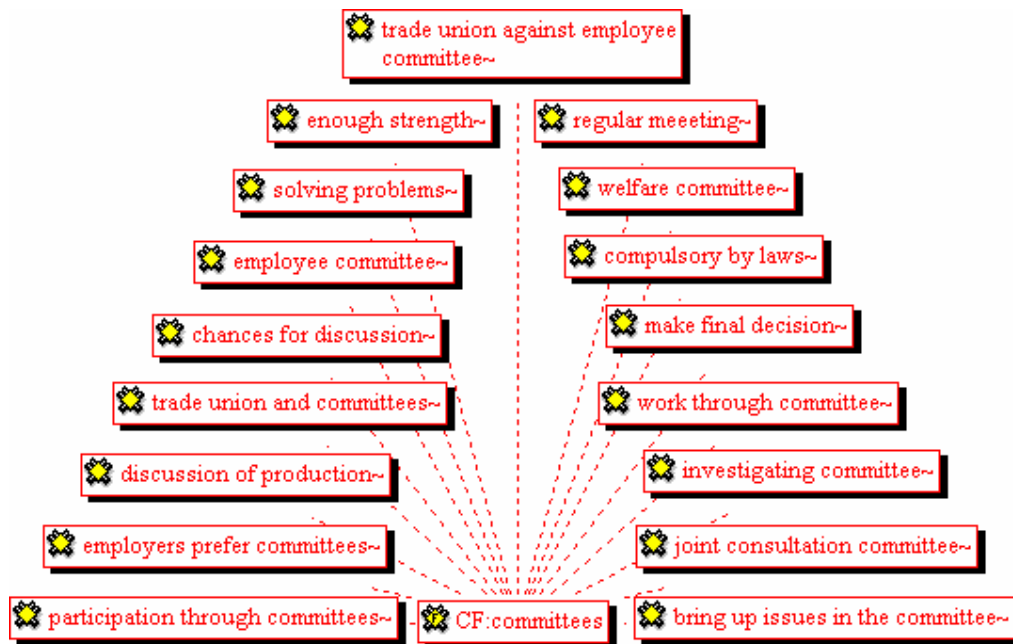

// …There are committees and lately the welfare committee… // Employees can participate in the forms of committees. It can start with joint consultation committee, employee committee and welfare committee. // …There is another system which employer promotes employee participation. It is Joint Advisory Committee. // …I believe that the joint consultation committee would be the most beneficial system for Thailand. It should be the most practicable system as I have seen it in practices. // …There are provisions in laws about employee committee that employer must consult with the employee committee on the matters as specified by the law. // …In the case of employee committee which is the voluntary committee prescribed by law. // …In fact they cannot separate between trade union and committees and it should be prescribed clearly in the laws. // …Trade unionists did not agree with the concept as they afraid that the employee committee would be appointed by employers. //

The concepts of committees that emerged in this stakeholder group related to various committees in practice in Thailand such as welfare committee, employee committee and joint consultation committee. It is interesting to note that a respondent believed

that the joint consultation committee would be the most suitable and practicable in Thailand.

5.8.5 Cultural Issues (Members of tripartite bodies; SG-8)

The next category is cultural issues. There are 25 concepts in this category. Perceptions related to cultures are provided in Figures 5.8.6 and 5.8.7

Figure 5.8.6: Cultural issues (Members of tripartite bodies; SG-8)

not like aggressive manners~

mixed system~   not work well~

expatriate executive~   employee values~

not like expressions~   individualism nature~

depending on cultures~   managed by foreigners~

not against the Thai feeling~   compatible with Thai people~

not like taking advantage of others~   CF:cultural issues-1   not the same as Western society~
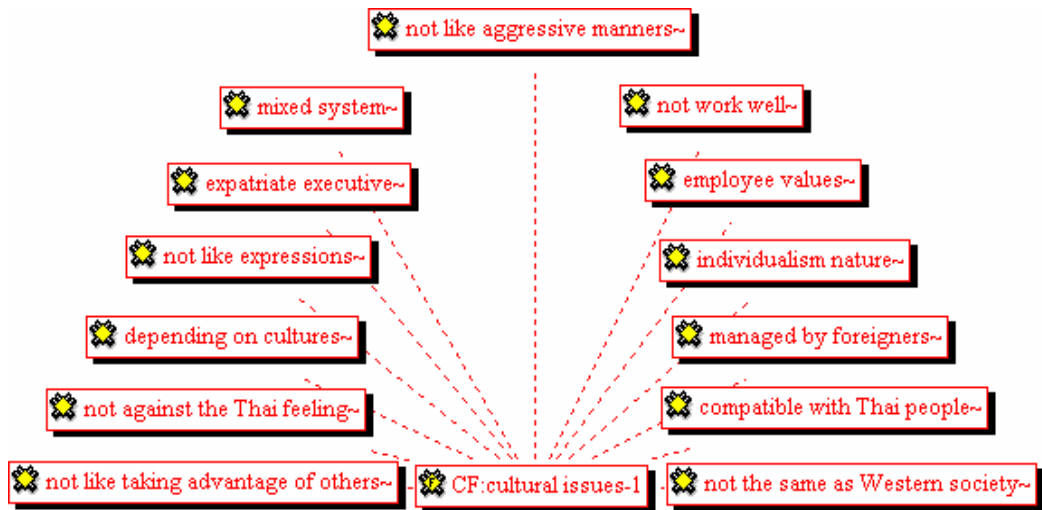
Figure 5.8.7: Cultural issues (Members of tripartite bodies; SG-8)

Thai model~

Thais follow the system~

polite and humble~   polite expression~

Thai industrial democracy~   warm family relationships~

not totally eastern society~   outside social protection~

Western industrial democracy~   obedient and accepting power~

system that suit Thai society~   CF:cultural issues-2   Thai cultures create more difficulties~
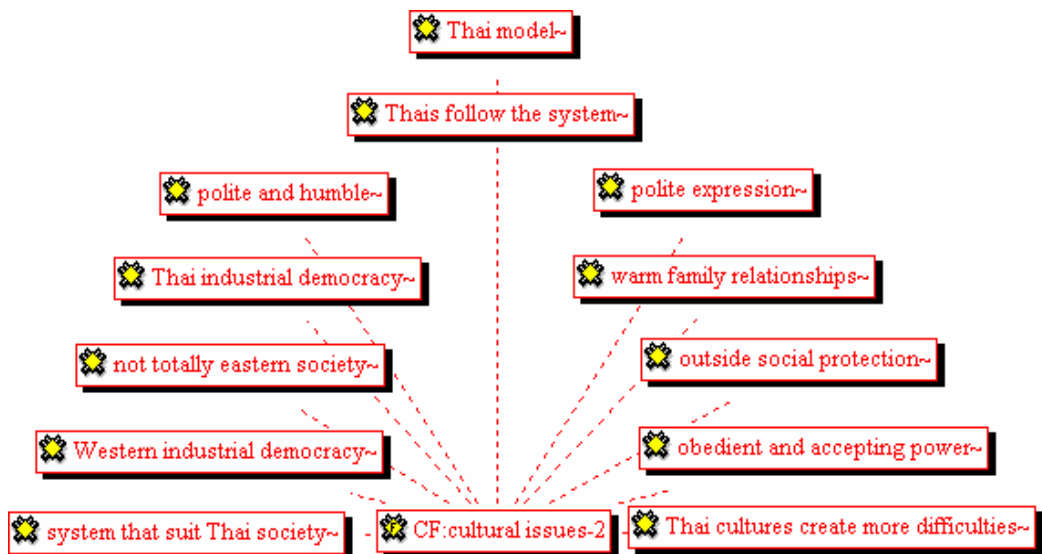
// …Employee participation will be more or less it is depending on cultures. // …Trade union system did not grow due to the individualism nature of the Thais. // …The system should be able to use as a pattern for practice that not against the feeling of employers and employees. // …is compatible with Thai people. // …Thais do not like expressions of their opinions. // …Thais do not like aggressive manners. // …Thai cultures made Thai people to be polite and humble and Thais did not like taking advantage of others. // …There is no way for Thai society to be the same as European society. This is because our cultures, social, traditions, belief system and religious system are different from the Western. // …The Thai labour society is the eastern society but not totally the eastern society… // …Therefore, to apply the concept of Western industrial democracy in Thailand it is difficult to develop. So we should create our own Thai industrial democracy system. The system should be able to use as a pattern for practice that not against the feeling of employers and employees. //

The cultural issues that emerged in this stakeholder group concentrated on Thai cultural values. It is interesting to note that a respondent in this stakeholder group believed that there is no way for the Thai society to be the same as Europe - so to implement the Western industrial democracy concept in Thailand would be difficult to do successfully. He therefore suggests that a Thai industrial democracy should be developed instead.

5.8.6 Democracy (Members of tripartite bodies; SG-8)

The next category is democracy. There are 30 concepts in this category. Perceptions related to democracy are provided in Figures 5.8.8 and 5.8.9.

Figure 5.8.8: Democracy (Members of tripartite bodies; SG-8)
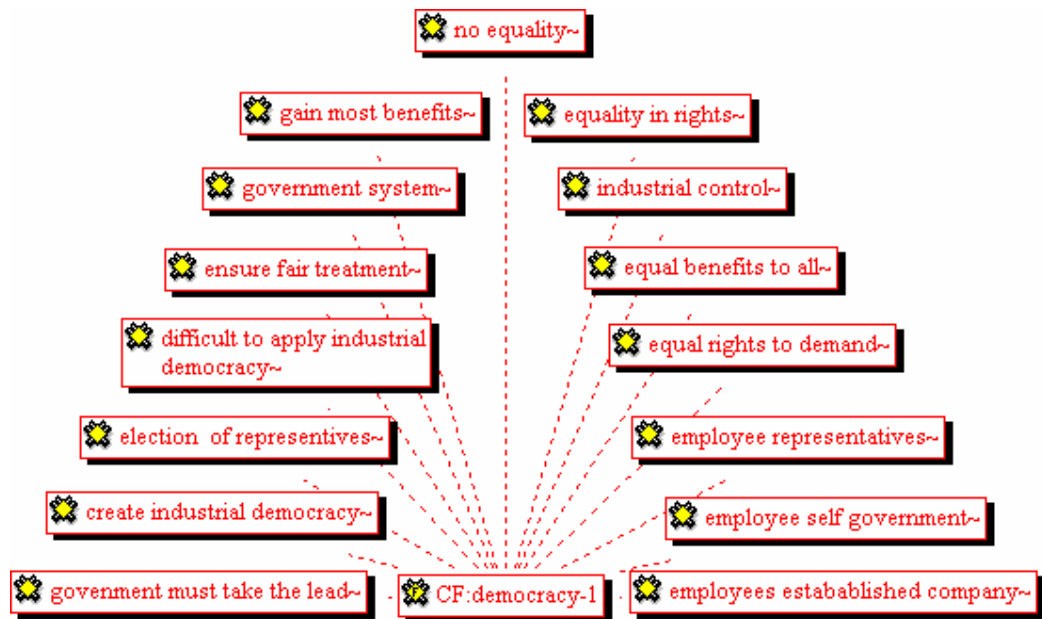
Figure 5.8.9: Democracy (Members of tripartite bodies; SG-8)
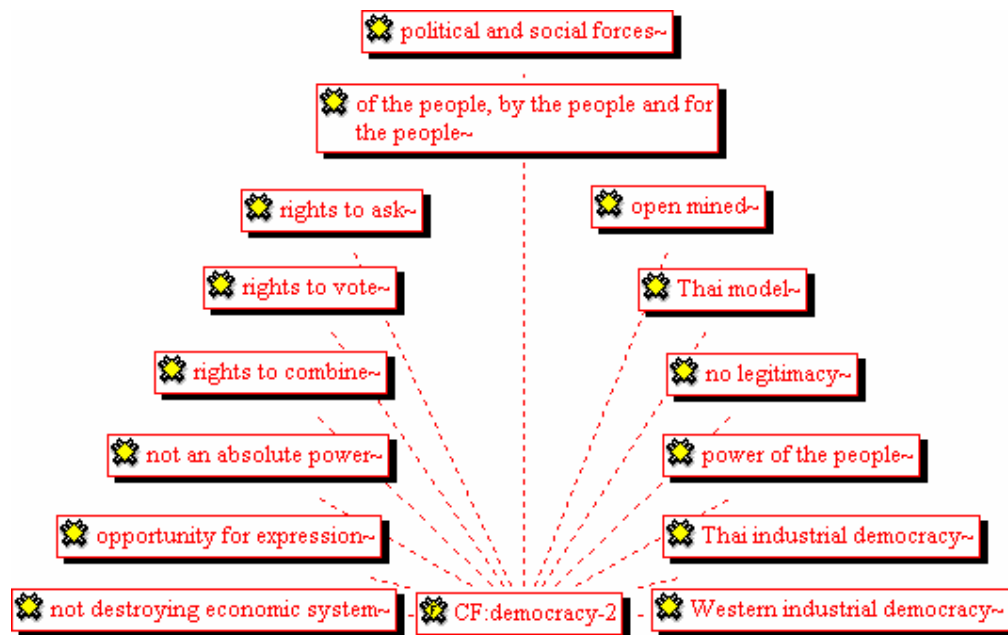
// …In my opinion it means equality in rights, opportunity and practices in industries and the relationships between employer and employee. // there are equal rights to demand from each other and negotiation with each other… // …It is not for the benefits of one employer or employee to be happy or to be wealthy but it must be equally benefits to other employers too. // …he has the rights to ask. // …the rights to combine together of employees as an employee organization. // the rights to organize as trade union. // …employee representative had rights to vote… // …The direct benefit is that employees elected their representative to represent them at all levels. // … open the opportunity to him to express his ideas and we can hear from him. // … in working together they have to consult with each other and this joint consultation system if we do not call it industrial democracy we may call it worker participation. //

The concepts of industrial democracy that emerged in this stakeholder group concentrated on rights and equality. One interesting point from these concepts of democracy is the comment that industrial democracy is to be beneficial to all.

5.8.7 Participation (Members of tripartite bodies; SG-8)

The next category is participation. There are 83 concepts in this category.

 Perceptions related to participation are displayed in Figures 5.8.10, 5.8.11, 5.8.12 and 5.8.13.

Figure 5.8.10: Participation (Members of tripartite bodies; SG-8)

Figure 5.8.11: Participation (Members of tripartite bodies; SG-8)

Figure 5.8.12: Participation (Members of tripartite bodies; SG-8)

Figure 5.8.13: Participation (Members of tripartite bodies; SG-8)

// …I think our current principles of bipartite should be widely promoted. // …And these employee representatives must be consulted by the employer when employer is to take any action such as to reduce wages, to terminate an employee or to make any change before taking such actions. After the employer has consulted with the employee representatives then the employer can take such actions. // …There are some discussions about enacting the law to make it compulsory for employers to disclose information about the operating results to trade union or employee representatives. // …We must prescribe in the law that to have industrial democracy all companies must be responsible for election of employee representatives in the company. // …I think the best financial participation is to have employees become shareholders of the company… // …they open for employees to hold company shares before it is opened to general public. I think this is useful because at least employees will feel warm that they are also the owner of the company. // …a provident fund where employees and employer contribute to the fund… // …credit union. These types of participation are very useful. //

The concepts of participation that emerged in this stakeholder group are mostly concerned with laws related to employee participation and to making employee participation compulsory by laws. It is interesting to note that one respondent

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expressed that the best form of financial participation is to have employees holding company shares.

5.8.8 Problems in Participation (Members of tripartite bodies; SG-8)

The next category is problems in participation. There are 86 concepts in this category. Perceptions related to problems in participation are displayed in Figures 5.8.14, 5.8.15, 5.8.16 and 5.8.17.

Figure 5.8.14: Problems in Participation (Members of tripartite bodies; SG-8)

Figure 5.8.15: Problems in Participation (Members of tripartite bodies; SG-8)
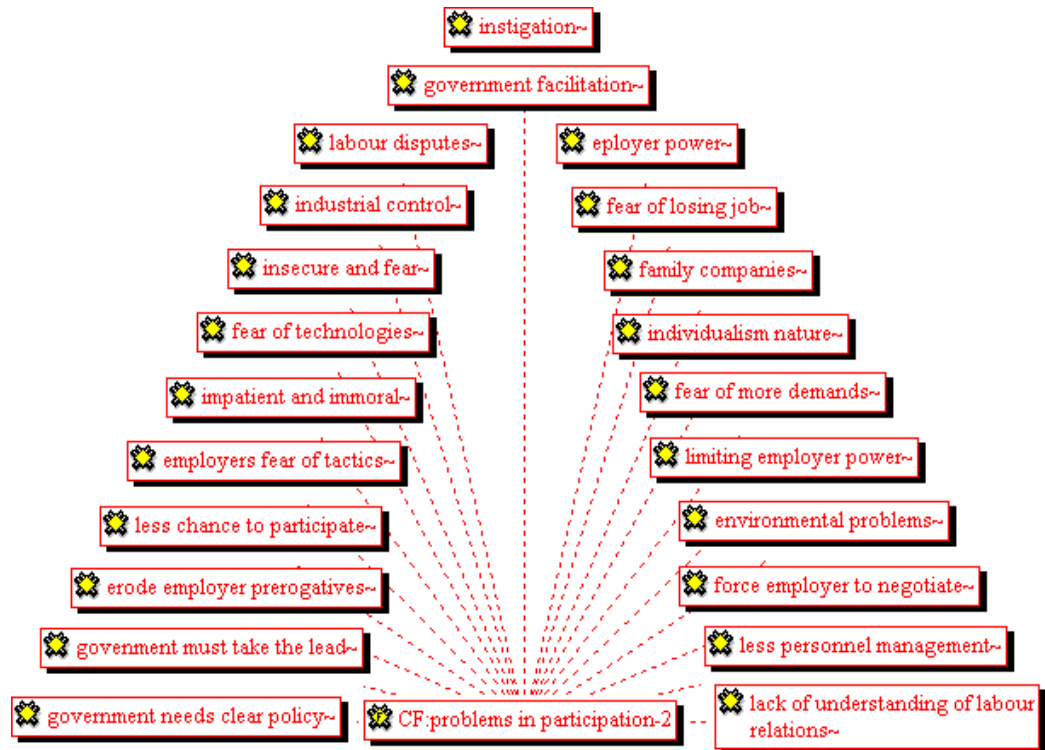
Figure 5.8.16: Problems in Participation (Members of tripartite bodies; SG-8)

mistakenly negotiaate with employer~

not being utilized~

not work well~

overlapping of roles~

no use to disclose~

more ability to pay~

lock out~

no direct knowledge~

no chance to express~

open mined~

more understanding~

must take it seriously~

no equality~

listen to each other~

more chance to choose~

no legitimacy~

most affected persons~

need more understanding~

poor attitudes~

not depending on the law~

proper participative attitudes~

CF:problems in participation-3

not representing employees~

Figure 5.8.17: Problems in Participation (Members of tripartite bodies; SG-8)

trade union against employee committee~

trade union performs too many roles~

wrong information~

violent in industry~

strikes every year~

small companies~

rules and regulations~

responsible industry~

try not to understand~

see only from outside~

strike should not occured~

weaken down trade union~

seek for own information~

undermined trade union~

to find acceptable solution~

strictly law enformcement~

relationships of the two parties~

take advantage of employees~

too much business management~

CF:problems in participation-4

quality of the representatives..~

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// In Thai society employee stays individually and they did not like to combine into groups unless they are facing with collective dangerous or collective distress...// ...In fact there are some conflicts in the concepts of employee committee and trade unions in the labour relations law. // ...There is not much information disclosure because employers still think that it will cause damage to the company if information is disclosed to employees... // ...This may create conflict among the majority of employees who are not satisfied with the situation. // ...The system is to create power for employers. If the company is using the CEO system without listening to the majority voice of employees it could cause problems and create violent in industry. // ...So if they are to make too much expression of their opinions or make too much demands the employer will hate them and they will not be able to keep their job. So there is not much expression from the Thais. // ...They think that it is no use to disclose the information because if employees know this they afraid that it will strengthening the potential of trade union to make high demands. //

Several concepts related to problems in participation emerged, including the problems related to the nature of the Thais and the disclosure of information. One interesting comment made by a respondent was that employers think that disclosure of information will damage the company.

5.8.9 Trade Union Issues (Members of tripartite bodies; SG-8)

The next category is trade union issues. There are 29 concepts in this category. Perceptions related to trade union are displayed in Figures 5.8.18 and 5.8.19.

Figure 5.8.18: Trade union issues (Members of tripartite bodies; SG-8)
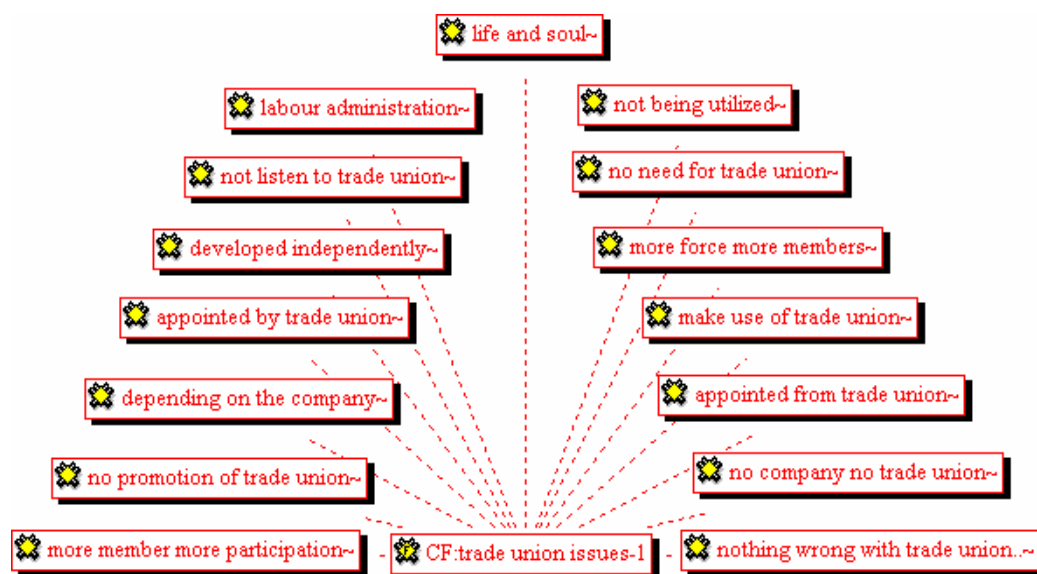
Figure 5.8.19: Trade union issues (Members of tripartite bodies; SG-8)
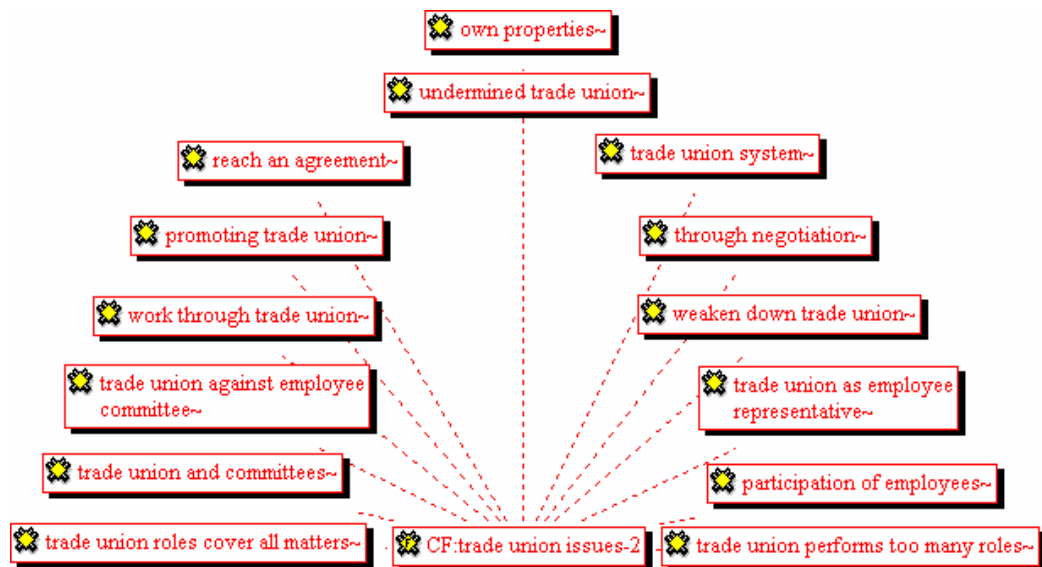
// …we have created the system of employee combination to be trade union and there are more trade unions. // …For trade union system from my past experience it is difficult to find an example for the good practice. We may find some case with acceptable relationships but to reach this level of relationships they have been fighting against each other for… years. // …At present there are overlapping of roles and trade union will send its representatives to be committee member and it make trade union performing several functions and roles at the same time. One role is as trade union committee member and the other role is as employee committee member and at the same time they have to play role as welfare committee member as well. // …In fact the role of bargaining or consulting with employer is the role of trade union and it covers all issues. //

Concepts related to trade union issues in this stakeholder group concerned the trade union system and the roles of trade union. One interesting element is the comment that it is difficult to find a good practice of trade union in Thailand. It was also commented that it is difficult to reach an acceptable relationship between employer and trade union as they have been fighting each other for many years.

5.8.10 Training and Development (Members of tripartite bodies; SG-8)

The next category is training and development. There are 12 concepts in this category. Perceptions related to training and development concepts are displayed in Figure 5.8.20.

Figure 5.8.20: Training and Development (Members of tripartite bodies; SG-8)

> *// …In order to create more participation in the future employers should have more education and training. // …In fact there are many courses that are useful such as management courses but those courses stresses on business management. // …The courses on labour relations …is no more available. // …We should have training for government officials especially at the lower levels. // …We have been paying attention to employers, employees and trade unions but we did not think of government officials… // …This is because they know that the company business is going well and they can develop themselves to correspond with the growth of the company business. It will create confident and commitment of employees to the company. // …We have to start with the education and learning systems that the system must make people express their opinion since they are young. So it becomes their nature and when they enter the workforce and work in any organization they can participate or they will find the organization that open for their participation or expression of their opinions. //*

The respondents in this stakeholder group expressed that training contributes to the success of industrial democracy. One interesting point is that a respondent in this group suggested the use of education and learning to instil the value of expressing their opinions in Thai people from a young age, so that they can participate with confidence when they join the labour force.

5.8.11 Welfare (Members of tripartite bodies; SG-8)

The next category is welfare. There are 10 concepts in this category.

Perceptions related to welfare are displayed in Figure 5.8.21.

Figure 5.8.21: Welfare (Members of tripartite bodies; SG-8)
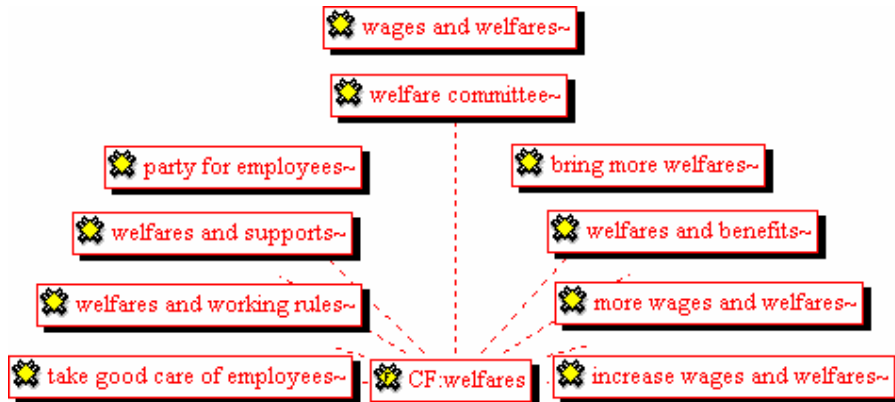
// …There will be demands and employees will be provided more wages and welfares. // …bring more welfares to employees. // …is the way to increase wages and welfares. // …At the same time there are bargaining to limit employer power in the areas of employee welfares and benefits administration too. // …This committee is to be responsible for consultation with employer and to determine the rules and regulation for arranging employee welfares and other working rules. // …Most of the employees are women and they are provided with dormitory. When an employee is married she has to move out but the company provides supports to the employee… //

Most concepts of welfare that emerged in this stakeholder group related to demands and negotiation for more welfare. It is interesting to note that the bargaining has the intention to limit employer power and discretion in managing employee benefits and welfare.

5.9 Human Resource Managers; Stakeholder Group Nine

This group comprises human resource managers. There were three respondents in this group. There are 12 categories in this group as presented in Table 5.1, SG-9.

5.9.1 Barriers to Implementation (Human resource managers; SG-9)

The first category is barriers to the implementation of industrial democracy. There are 29 concepts in this category as presented in the network map displayed in Figures 5.9.1 and 5.9.2.

Figure 5.9.1: Barriers to implementation (Human resource managers; SG-9)

Figure 5.9.2: Barriers to implementation (Human resource managers; SG-9)

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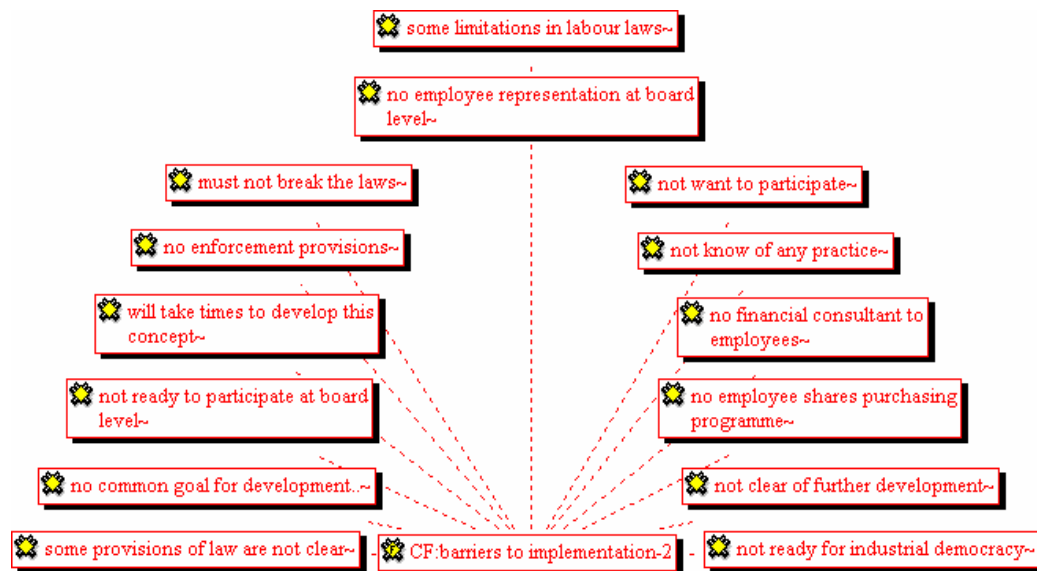
// …The idea is great and it can be done in the US but it cannot be implemented here. // …At the same time trade union can be abused and some management can create trade union to balance with the other trade union or it may be used for personal gains. // …However, some time trade union looks at employer as their enemy or on the other hand employer sees trade union as their enemy too. // …If one doing for own benefits it is more dangerous. It will create problems and cause damage to the process of labour relations and trade union. //…If we are going to promote the establishment of trade union we have to go back and look at the background of our people whether we have educated our people enough. // There may be several trade unions in one company. It does not create good labour relations. // …For financial information the disclosure is not made for all items for example in HR area there are some items that can be shared in the website. // …We should develop our language competency to meet with the emerging opportunities. // …There is no employee participation at the board level. I do not know if there is any employee participation at this level in Thailand. // …We have completely stop employee share purchasing programme as it is not suitable for Thailand. // …I think in Thailand we did not have readiness for industrial democracy. //

Several barriers to implementation concepts emerged in this stakeholder group and some mentioned the issues of trade unions and participation at board level. One interesting point here is that a respondent believed that industrial democracy is a great idea but cannot be implemented in Thailand. It was also expressed that Thailand is not ready for industrial democracy.

5.9.2 Benefits of Participation (Human resource managers; SG-9)

The second category is benefits of participation. There are 56 concepts in this category as presented in the network map displayed in Figures 5.9.3, 5.9.4 and 5.9.5.

Figure 5.9.3: Benefits of participation (Human resource managers; SG-9)

Figure 5.9.4: Benefits of participation (Human resource managers; SG-9)

Figure 5.9.5: Benefits of participation (Human resource managers; SG-9)
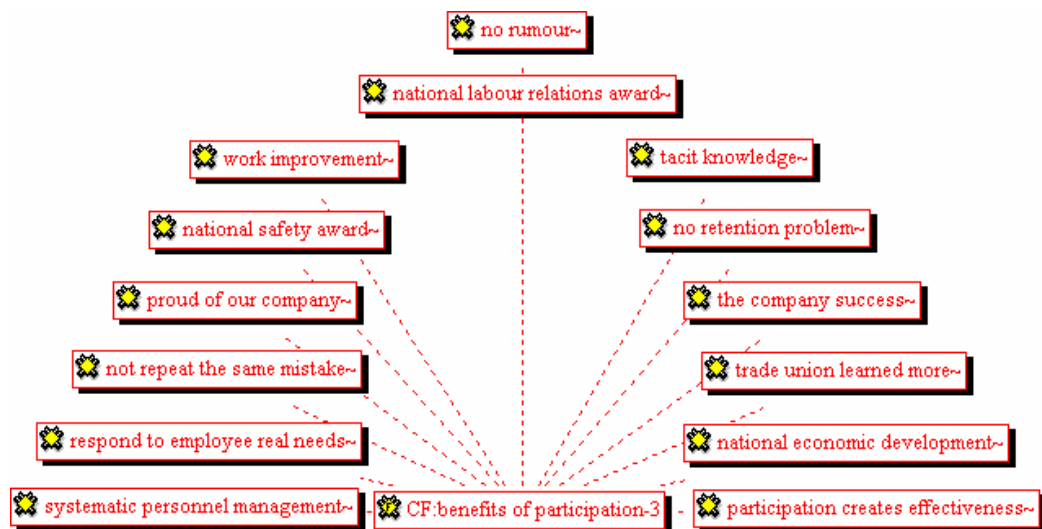
// …I think employee participation is very useful. Because at least we have the same goal and we can go to the same direction to achieve the established business goal jointly. // …Although management has to make decision we can say that all our successes come from employee participation… // …Whenever

we have problems we use this practice and it is always successful and it is our own pattern... // ...So it is important for employee to participate in order to create more knowledge for the company... // ...In creating innovations we need a lot of ideas from our employees. In our company we open it free in this area... // ...delete the feeling of win and lose... // ...It contributes to the national economic development... // ...It helps reduce conflicts in the company and there is peacefulness... // ...We received awards of the best company in labour relations last year. We received the best safety and environment company award... //

Benefits of participation expressed by this stakeholder group also concerned its contribution to the success of the company. It was interesting to note a respondent comment that, although management has to make decisions, all the successes of the company come from employee participation.

5.9.3 Committees (Human resource managers; SG-9)

The next category is committees. There are 10 concepts in this category.

Perceptions of participation through committees are displayed in Figure 5.9.6.

Figure 5.9.6: Committees (Human resource managers; SG-9)
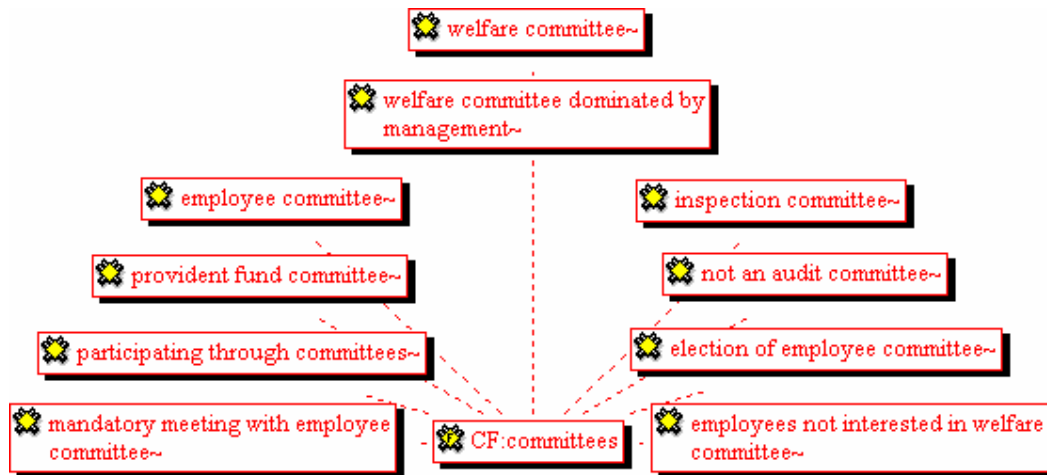
// ...We have employee committee who make suggestions to management... // ...The committee is elected by employees and it is a little democracy. The election is done according to the law... // ...we have inspection committee. We appoint the lower level employee or representative of trade union and supervisors including managers to be a member of the committee... // ...The committee is not an audit committee but act as advisor to all units for the development in the areas of safety and health, environment, housekeeping and

etc. // …Therefore our employees exercise their rights and voices in the committee for example in our provident fund committee... // …In our company trade union has majority members so the welfare committee functions are assumed by trade union. In conducting the meeting we did not separate the meeting of welfare committee and the meeting with trade union. // …Employees are not interested in the welfare committees. Some of them do not even know what the welfare is... // …Most of the committee establishments are dominated by management… //

The concepts of committees that emerged in this stakeholder group related to various committees in practice in Thailand such as the welfare committee, employee committee and provident fund committee. It is interesting to note that in one company there is an inspection committee comprising employees at the operative level up to supervisor and manager levels.

5.9.4 Communication (Human resource managers; SG-9)

The next category is communication. There are 57 concepts in this category. Perceptions of communication are given in Figures 5.9.7, 5.9.8 and 5.9.9.

Figure 5.9.7: Communication (Human resource managers; SG-9)

Figure 5.9.8: Communication (Human resource managers; SG-9)

Figure 5.9.9: Communication (Human resource managers; SG-9)

// …To communicate to our employees we put out our announcements. We make the announcement to all employees. // …Whenever we have an issue we will use our email or the website as our major tools. There is a lot of information and every employee can have access to it. // …For employee performance we inform them through their supervisors. Supervisors will have meeting with their subordinates… // …Employee communication in our company is divided into two parts. Direct employee communication and the communication made through trade union. All the matters related to laws we communicate through trade union… // …in our company we have five minutes talk. If we have issues or situation to inform employees in the production lines we will send information to line supervisors to talk to employees before the starting of each shift… // …If it is an informal issue we have an informal talk and convene the formal meeting for the formal issues which is a regularly monthly meeting. // …It just likes the principles of give and take and it is a good feedback and interaction. When the company is to do anything the management must think a lot and if there are feedback we have to make some corrections too…// …and at the same time they must obtain the feedback from employees to the company. // …We have newsletter and publications and we give to all employees… //

Communication concepts that emerged in this stakeholder group involved many advanced media such as internet and websites. However, the newsletter is still a channel of communication used, while several types of meetings are also used. It is interesting that a respondent expressed that feedback from employees is very important in communication.

5.9.5 Cultural Issues (Human resource managers; SG-9)

The next category is cultural issues. There are 33 concepts in this category. Perceptions related to cultures are provided in Figures 5.9.10 and 5.9.11.

Figure 5.9.10: Cultural issues (Human resource managers; SG-9)
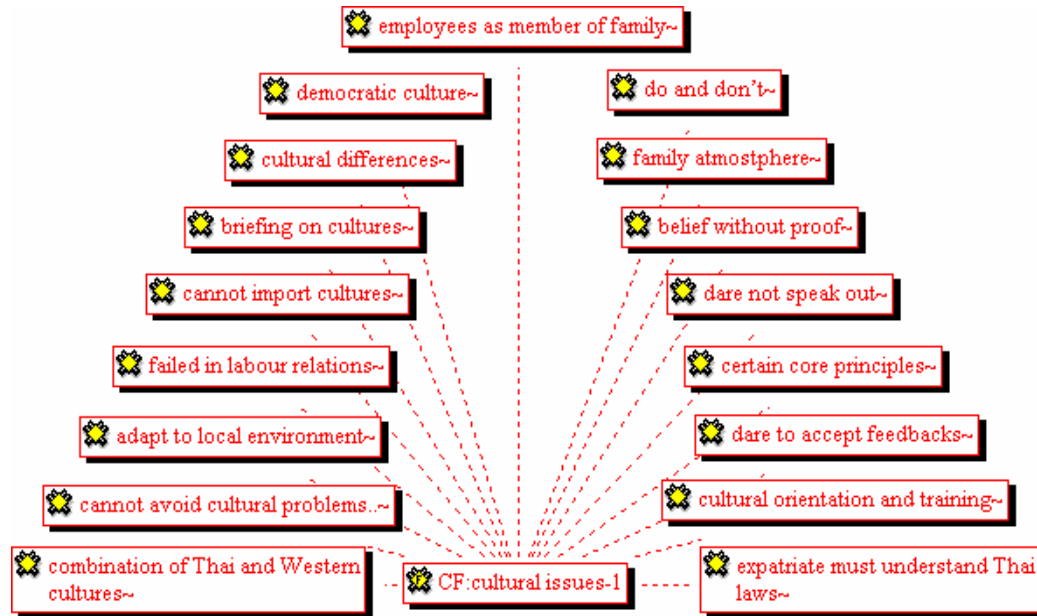
Figure 5.9.11: Cultural issues (Human resource managers; SG-9)

//…It is the real cultural problem and we cannot import cultures from abroad… // …it is not suitable for Thailand. // …understand the different of cultures… // …should be ready to pick up cultural skills. // …our culture is the culture that we trust in senior persons. // …I think in their culture they will not belief anyone until they have proof but in our case we belief mostly because of the Baramee of the person. This one of our weak points that makes the formation of the trade union failed. // …When a person had Bunkhun to another person or being a relative to an influential person and if that person asks him to do something he will follow without asking for any reason. He just follows instructions. If that person ordered him to join a strike he just joins the strike. // in Thai culture some time we dare not speak out… // …Our corporate cultures stress on being brotherhood, being family, understanding, helping each other and team work… // … In some case we have to adapt it and apply it to our local environment which we have done quite well in this area. // …If they stood firm that they wanted to do their own way such as they wanted to bring in … systems to apply in the operation they all failed… // …From our past experience we found that if our foreign partners allowed us do our own way all the cases were mostly successful. //

The cultural issues emerged in this stakeholder group concentrated on the Thai culture in contrast with other cultures. It is interesting to note that a respondent in this stakeholder group expressed his experience that the company was successful when using the Thai system and failed when using imported systems from abroad.

5.9.6 Democracy (Human resource managers; SG-9)

The next category is democracy. There are 23 concepts in this category.

Perceptions related to democracy are provided in Figure 5.9.12.

Figure 5.9.12: Democracy (Human resource managers; SG-9)

// …The democracy that I will be talking about is the freedom in the company which include the freedom of thinking, the freedom of practice and the freedom of working… // …There should be no discrimination based on the colour of skin and we should count everyone as an investor. This is to reduce the gaps between races and to treat all equal by providing similar benefits... // …We have to look at the industry too as our company is seen to be the front line company and our employees work very efficient. So we have to follow the business policy and benchmarking with location where the site is located otherwise employees will leave our company... // …In terms of participation everyone will receive information equally and it is the rights of each employee to participate in any activity as they known of. // …rather than stressing on freedom like in politic that how people has freedom, rights and duties which I think it is rather negative in Thailand... // …In production area we are trying to build the mini company concept or we called it self management team. //

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The concepts of industrial democracy that emerged in this stakeholder group concentrated on freedom, rights and equality. One interesting point from these concepts of democracy is the comment that industrial democracy is negatively viewed in Thailand.

5.9.7 Meeting (Human resource managers; SG-9)

The next category is meeting. There are 12 concepts emerged in this category. Perceptions related to meeting are presented in Figure 5.9.13.

Figure 5.9.13: Meeting (Human resource managers; SG-9)
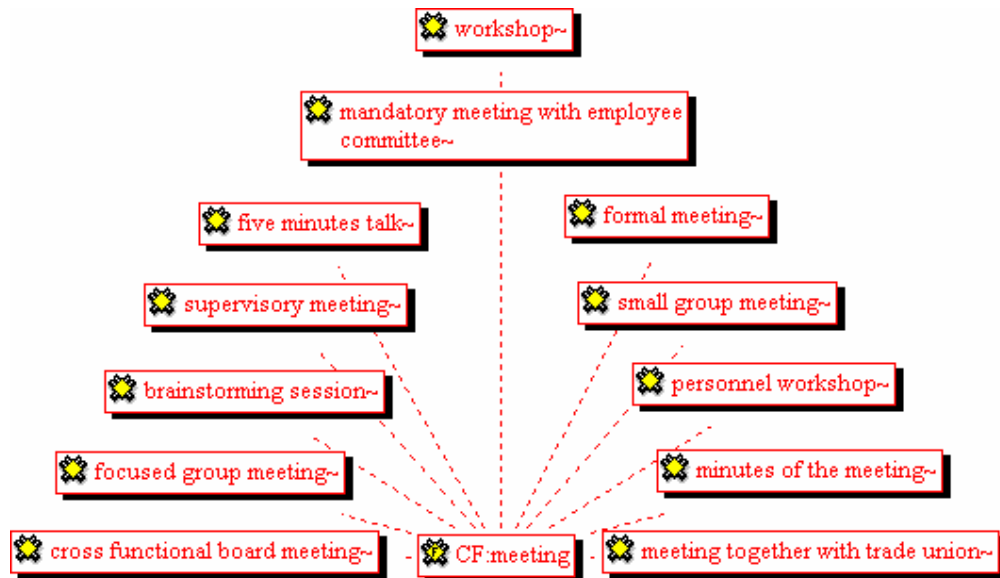
// …It is a small group meeting to resolve or to handle problems. // …There are also meeting for supervisors so that they know all the movements as well. // …In some sites we have focused group meeting. // …We use the focused group and the person who conducts the focused group will summarize the results by each business unit and by each corporation and then by each country. At the country level there will be a meeting of cross functions board and there are presentations made to each business unit. They will see if there are the same or there are different problems in each site. // …and convene the formal meeting for the formal issues which is a regularly monthly meeting… // …For example the employee committee according to the law it forces employer to have the meeting with the committee every three months. // …In conducting the meeting we did not separate the meeting of welfare committee and the meeting with trade union. // …But lately we have a workshop. We sit down together and exchange views. We conduct the workshop and discuss and

share information. // …We have … personnel workshop. We group our employees in to several groups … and conduct workshop for them… //

As expressed by this stakeholder group, the meeting is one of the means of employee participation. In addition to several types of meeting practiced in many companies it is interesting that the workshop, especially the personnel workshop, is conducted for employees.

5.9.8 Participation (Human resource managers; SG-9)

The next category is participation. There are 85 concepts in this category. Perceptions related to participation are displayed in Figures 5.9.14, 5.9.15, 5.9.16 and 5.9.17.

Figure 5.9.14: Participation (Human resource managers; SG-9)

Figure 5.9.15: Participation (Human resource managers; SG-9)

Figure 5.9.16: Participation (Human resource managers; SG-9)

- high performers~
- give and take~
- good system~
- labour relations~
- leadership style~
- participate as experts~
- give before demand~
- good trend for future~
- implementation plan~
- give whenever ready~
- not interfere with them~
- give reasonable times~
- level of participation~
- no financial consultant to employees~
- no interested in dividend~
- no employee shares purchasing programme~
- participate through email and website~
- more contribution more bonus~
- laws provided guidelines only~
- knowledge management system~
- CF:participation-3
- gain through provident fund~

Figure 5.9.17: Participation (Human resource managers; SG-9)

// …It takes one day for each group and we have to arrange in a small group so that it is intensive. This is the way for employees to participate directly… // …Through these practices our employees participate directly in decision making and company management. // …I think the best form of participation is the disclosure of information to all levels of employees… // …I think the best practice is the disclosure of information. But the level of disclosure should be classified into different level… // …At the same time the company should disclose as much as possible. // …At present we have fixed bonus and productivity bonus… // …Each employee receives different amount of bonus and it is the same in the business unit that each unit receives different amount too. // …There is a stock option programme for higher level management but it is not for everyone. It is distributed on a quota basis and it is based on performance. It is aiming at the retention of employees… // …There are a lot of employees buying the shares and the company contributes 10% to each individual employee in buying the shares and it is yield. // …One important thing is that our provident fund is required to buy the company shares … Our provident fund is very big and has accrued many billion Baht… //

The concepts of participation that emerged in this stakeholder group are varied. They include participation in decision making, disclosure of information, stock

options, bonuses and provident funds. One interesting point that emerged in this stakeholder group is that the size of the provident fund in one company has accrued to many billion Baht.

5.9.9 Problems in Participation (Human resource managers; SG-9)

The next category is problems in participation. There are 40 concepts in this category. Perceptions related to problems in participation are displayed in Figures 5.9.18 and 5.9.19.

Figure 5.9.18: Problems in Participation (Human resource managers; SG-9)

Figure 5.9.19: Problems in Participation (Human resource managers; SG-9)
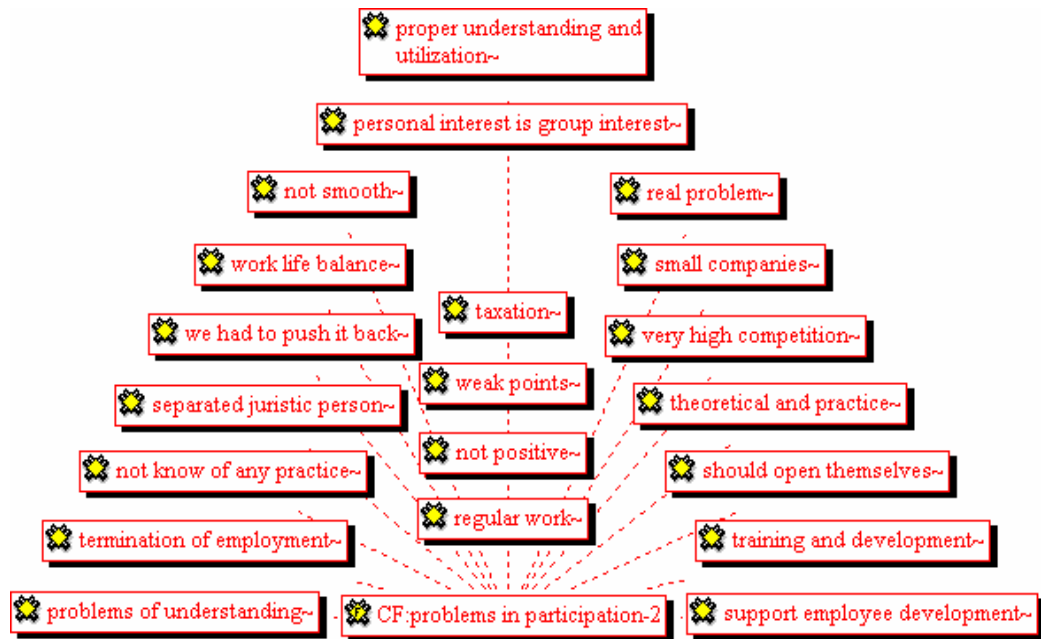
> *// …It is not a process problem but it is a personal problem… // …It creates disunity in the company. // …This is an attitude problem and in many cases we have to handle it personally off the line. // …For example in an organization where the leader recognizes employee values in this case it would be easy to implement employee participation system. But in the other organization where the leadership style is dictatorship type in this case it would be difficult to implement employee participation system. So the type of leadership is a very important factor for participation… // …Some of them may think of their personal benefits more than the benefit of the group or some of them may think that their personal benefits are the benefits of the group… // …Another problem is the interest groups who are involving in labour relations. These people care for their own interests more than the interests of the majority and our employees are easily believed other people… //*

Several concepts in problems in participation emerged including the problems related to attitudes and leadership styles. Problems of interest groups and protecting personal rather than group interests also emerged. It is interesting to note that one respondent commented that leadership style has a strong influence over employee participation in an organization.

5.9.10 Trade Union Issues (Human resource managers; SG-9)

The next category is trade union issues. There are 22 concepts in this category. Perceptions related to trade union are displayed in Figure 5.9.20.

Figure 5.9.20: Trade union issues (Human resource managers; SG-9)

// …We have no trade union here. We are union free company. // …The trade union is a separated juristic person from the company… // …trade unions in our group of companies are legal identity according to the law. // …When making improvement of benefits trade union almost have no participation. // …Employees elected their own representatives and mostly the people who are active in trade union are elected as provident fund committee. They are elected to the committee as a member of the fund. They are not appointed by the trade union. They are elected as an individual employee. // …To resolve problems the government should take more roles in seeing that trade unions are complying with their objectives and give feedback to them… // …Trade union understands this and we recognized them as the representative of employees so trade union helps us in our communication. // …Trade union will discuss with us about making some adjustments or changes in certain items. // …Then we have to look at our foundation that if in our company we have trade union we must not look at them as an enemy. We have to look at them as a part of our

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family. // …Trade unions are also learned more… // …We have minutes of the meeting and we distribute to all employees and trade union support the communication and inform their members. //

Concepts related to trade union issues in this stakeholder group concerned the concept of unionized and union-free. While the trade union in one company has not much of a role to play, it is interesting to note that a trade union in another company may play an active role in many areas including employee communication.

5.9.11 Welfare (Human resource managers; SG-9)

The next category is welfare. There are 13 concepts in this category.

Perceptions related to welfares are displayed in Figure 5.9.21.

Figure 5.9.21: Welfare (Human resource managers; SG-9)
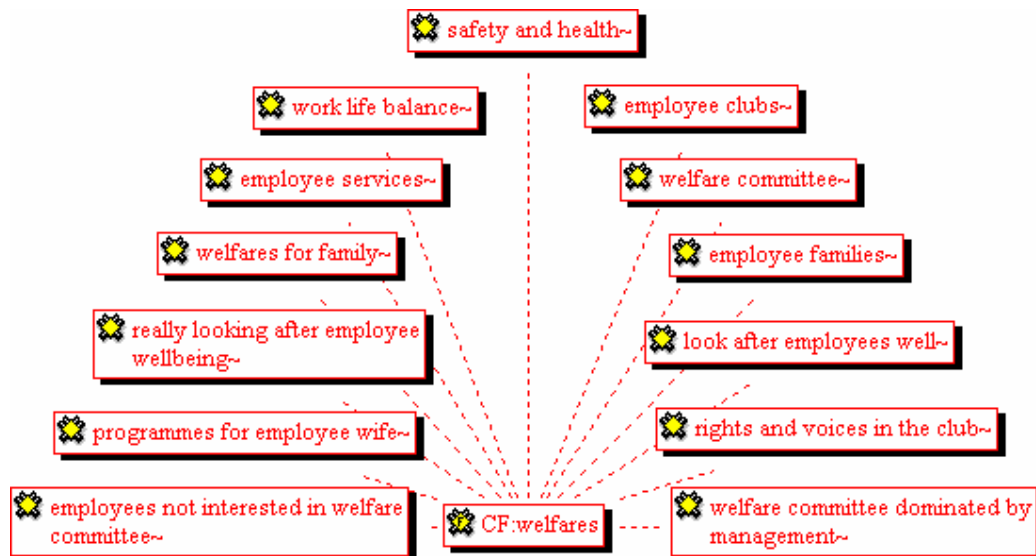
// …we look after our employee families as well. // …it involves more in welfares for family such a medical care for family members and those related to termination of employment. // …We have programmes for employee family too for example the projects on vegetable garden and cake preparation. The housewives can use their spare time effectively and they sell their products in the market. // …We also have many clubs and employees join the clubs and they have rights and voices in the club too such as the club for community service programme. // …This is the service provided to employees and it is also worldwide application as our employees have to travel overseas quite a lot too… // …We did not do that we give out to everyone and when they open their envelope they are happy because the company looks after them well. //

…At present economic situation people have to manage their working time to have personal time and have time for family too. There must be a balance in their time spending…//

The concepts of welfare that emerged in this stakeholder group involved various types of welfare provided for employees. It is interesting to note that the welfare provided is not limited to only employees themselves but also applies to their families. It is also interesting that the concept of work and life balance is also mentioned by one respondent.

5.10   Labour Academics; Stakeholder Group Ten

This group comprises labour academic. There were three respondents in this group. There are 12 categories in this group see Table 5.1, SG 10.

5.10.1 Barriers to Implementation (Labour academics; SG-10)

The first category is barriers to the implementation of industrial democracy. There are 50 concepts in this category as presented in the network map displayed in Figures 5.10.1 and 5.10.2.

Figure 5.10.1: Barriers to implementation (Labour academics; SG-10)

Figure 5.10.2: Barriers to implementation (Labour academics; SG-10)

not support participation~

responsible trade unions~

take over by management~

people with less education~

readiness for partiicipation~

no rights for decision making~

no really strong trade union~

reduce trade union power and strength~

rulers limited to small group of people~

taxation and financial benefits~

stresses on national security~

people did not know anything~

no freedom~

not willing to disclose inform..~

politicians want to control trade union~

should not be controlled by government~

obsolete concept~

participation depends on employer~

participation obstructs business~

not enough force~

no employee representation at board level~

weak trade unions and employer associations~

no trust in participation~

required all trade unions and employer associations to register~

CF:barriers to implementation-2

participation causes problems to business~

// ...but there is a lot of weakness because employees may not be able to reflect their new ideas to the upper level of management... // ...If they speak out it will return to them in the negative ways and they would be in trouble. This is also a limitation so in general the participation is not so good. // Some of the provisions in the present labour relations law may need to be rewritten... // ...They apply preventive measures not to have employees exercising their rights of association at the beginning for example not to have trade unions established in the industry... // ...But the base of democracy in our country is rather concentrated at a group of people who have the base of body of knowledge. I belief that participation in democracy is limited to those people who are well educated no mater it is the democracy campaign or whatever it is concentrated in the group of well educated people. For those people who are in the remote areas what had happened was the by-product of democracy. They are the recipient of democracy only. They may not even know what they have received is democracy... // ...So there is no employee representative at management level and there is no democracy. When we compare with the practices in the Western countries there is no much participation at this level in Thailand... // ...The accounting system is not transparent so they do not want to disclose information to employees. It creates some limitations to employee participation system. //

Several barriers to implementation concepts emerged in this stakeholder group and some mentioned that issues of expression and democracy are concentrated only in the well educated group. One interesting point here is that a respondent commented that the accounting system is not transparent and it caused problems to the employee participation system.

5.10.2 Benefits of Participation (Labour academics; SG-10)

The second category is benefits of participation. There are 59 concepts in this category as presented in the network map displayed in Figures 5.10.3, 5.10.4 and 5.10.5.

Figure 5.10.3: Benefits of participation (Labour academics; SG-10)

Figure 5.10.4: Benefits of participation (Labour academics; SG-10)

Figure 5.10.5: Benefits of participation (Labour academics; SG-10)

// …When employees participate they should have higher wages and incentives so employees will receive better compensation and services. // …It creates employment security and sense of belonging to employees. // …Another thing is that participation provide opportunity for employees to develop themselves too because in order to participate they must have enough knowledge and ability. They must prepare themselves in advance to be ready to participate appropriately. // …When the process of cost reduction is clearly transparent and the benefits are returned to them and they realized that they can participate in making profit for the company they will help each other to improve themselves. // …Therefore I think if the organization opens opportunity for individual employee to reflect their opinions and propose their creative ideas to the company these ideas and opinions will arouse the feeling of loyalty to the organization. They feel that they have chances to think of new things for organization. // …The government will look at the direction of national development and the industry must respond to the benefit of the growth of the national economic. // …It can contribute to the improvement of the national productivity. //

Benefits of participation expressed by this stakeholder group included benefits to employees in terms of higher wages and self-development. At the same time, the company gains through many concepts such as employee loyalty and dedication while the country gains in terms of economic growth. It was interesting to note a respondent express that employee participation can contribute to the improvement of national productivity.

5.10.3 Collective Bargaining (Labour academics; SG-10)

The third category is collective bargaining. There are 7 concepts in this category. Perceptions of participation through collective bargaining are displayed in Figure 5.10.6.

Figure 5.10.6: Collective Bargaining (Labour academics; SG-10)
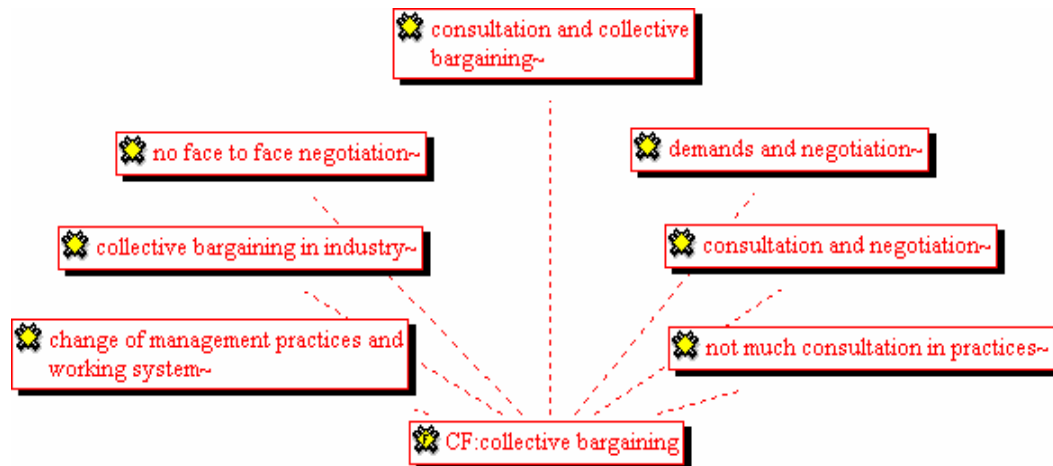
> *// …stressed on the important of the collective bargaining in industry. // …I think that the process of participation makes people to learn about consultation and bargaining and not allowing the conflict to become deadlock. // …If the power or acceptance is high employees can consult and do collective bargaining… // …Then the employer consults or negotiates with employees whether it is agreeable or not. // …For example at present the laws have provided power to trade unions to submit demands and to negotiate for agreement in the areas of working conditions already. // …It also includes the demands for changing of management practices or working system. // …There is no negotiation in this kind of participation so the participation is not moving to the higher level of determining policy. //*

Expressions on collective bargaining in this stakeholder group involved submission of demands, negotiation and collective bargaining. It should be noted here that demands and collective bargaining included the change of management practices and work systems.

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5.10.4 Committees (Labour academics; SG-10)

The next category is committees. There are 7 concepts in this category. Employee perceptions of participation through committees are displayed in Figure 5.10.7.

Figure 5.10.7: Committees (Labour academics; SG-10)
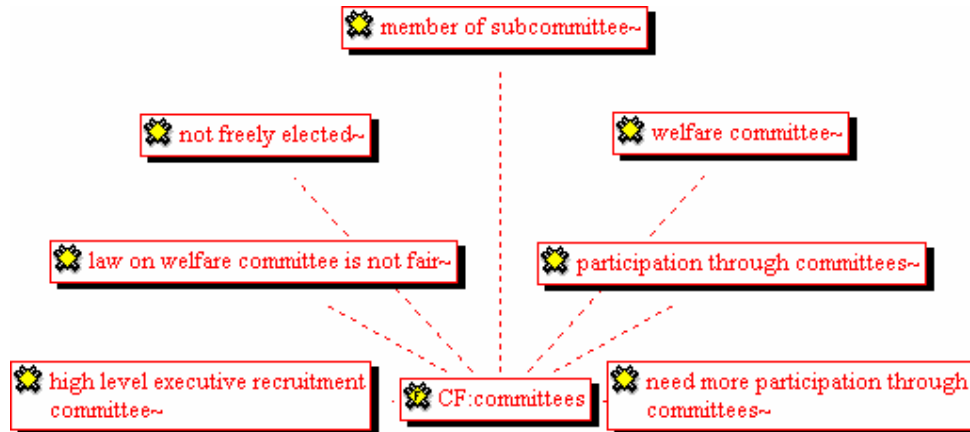
// …In public enterprises in the past they can participate in the selection of executive in the position of director or governor level. At present the recruitment committee members are appointed from various sources. The representative of trade union group in public enterprise relations is given an honour to participate in the committee. The participation is made through the channel of public enterprise labour relations committee as the committee sent its employee representative in the committee to be a member of such committee. // … participate as a member of subcommittee for improvement of enterprise. They may participate in the board of director meeting to listen to the board meeting. // …There are provisions in the laws that opened for employees to participate in various committees such as safety, health, and welfares. // …If we compare the number of committees and the number of companies in Thailand there are not many company that have the system of employee participation through the committees. // …There are provisions in the laws that opened for employees to participate in various committees such as safety, health, and welfares. // …There are not many companies that conducted freely election of the welfare committee. //

The concepts of committees that emerged in this stakeholder group related to employee participation in various committees, including being a member of a high level executive recruitment committee in public enterprises and being a member of a subcommittee and attending the board meeting as an observer. Expression was also made on other committees such as welfare and safety committees. It is interesting to

note that a respondent commented that not many companies conducted free elections of employees to the welfare committee.

5.10.5 Communication (Labour academics; SG-10)

The next category is communication. There are 7 concepts in this category. Perceptions of communication are given in Figure 5.10.8.

Figure 5.10.8: Communication (Labour academics; SG-10)
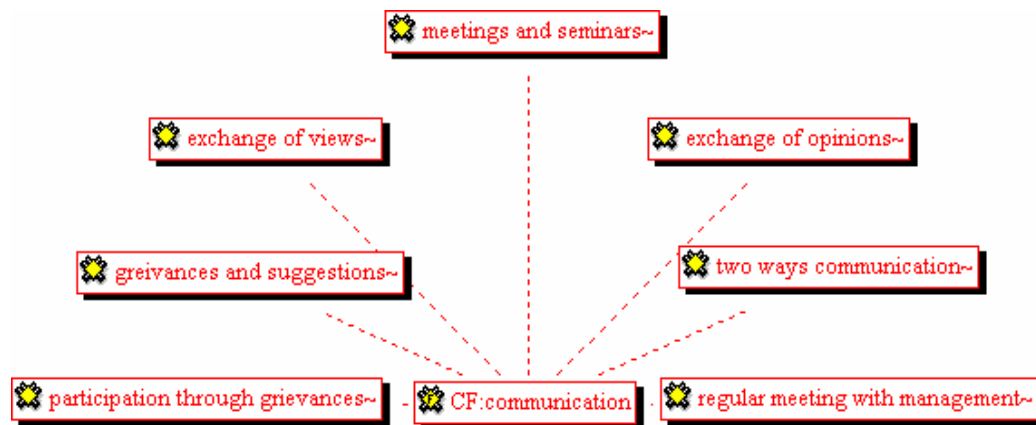
> *// …This type of relationship supports the new way of production. People can combine as a group and can reflect their opinions from the top down to the bottom and at the same time it allows people to organize as a group and can propose their opinions from the bottom to the top. // …Because economic democracy does not mean that employee organization or employee representatives are to reflect opinions from the bottom to the top only. Democracy in the forms of economic and social must be two ways democracy. Employees and their representatives reflect their opinions to management and at the same time management representatives have the duty to listen to employee opinions and to reflect management opinions to employees through consultations. // …Employees and their representatives reflect their opinions to management and at the same time management representatives have the duty to listen to employee opinions and to reflect management opinions to employees through consultations. // …But if it is the company where Thai employees or local people is holding the shares at least there will be chances to exchange views on how to produce the products to respond to the needs of local community. // …In Thailand participation may be made through grievance which is the kind of expression of not facing each other. //*

Communication concepts that emerged in this stakeholder group concerned the expression of two-way communication. It was noted that grievance is seen as a channel of communication in an organization.

5.10.6 Cultural Issues (Labour academics; SG-10)

The next category is cultural issues. There are 17 concepts in this category.

Perceptions related to cultures are provided in Figure 5.10.9

Figure 5.10.9: Cultural issues (Labour academics; SG-10)

> *// …Our culture is hierarchical culture that is we obey people who are senior and people who are superior to us. // …Thais dare not argue or make suggestion to others unless they are very close to each other. // …Thais do not like to speak out directly in front of the other person and if there is some suggestions to be made it will be made indirectly. // …Another thing that is different from other organization is that in this organization they did not call management as management but they call them as brothers or uncle. // …It should be suitable to the organization culture because one form of management that appropriate to one organization may not be appropriate to the other organization. // …In the past we have been locked in by our cultures but now we are in the phase of building our new democratic cultures. // …At the same time the Thai democratic political culture is now spread over to local communities. // …So I think that the forms of management that are available in the world and in several businesses at the present time no matter it is the Western or the Asian we should not apply it wholesales… //*

The cultural issues that emerged in this stakeholder group concentrated on management systems and organization culture with the stress on the difference

between Thai culture and other cultures. It is interesting to note that a respondent in this stakeholder group commented that any form of management to be brought into use in Thai organization should not be implemented wholesale.

5.10.7 Democracy (Labour academics; SG-10)

The next category is democracy. There are 50 concepts in this category. Perceptions related to democracy are provided in Figures 5.10.10 and 5.10.11.

Figure 5.10.10: Democracy (Labour academics; SG-10)

Figure 5.10.11: Democracy (Labour academics; SG-10)

// …So social democracy hold that everyone is equal and accept and respect the dignity of others and not taking the race of the people as an important matter. // …the base of democracy is that all people are equal without taking into account of the race or class that they are inherited from their birth. // …when we talk about economic democracy it means that there will be distribution of interests gained from the operating of business fairly. // …The meaning of democracy is that everyone can express himself according to his civil rights in certain capacity but not too much interfering with others rights… // …However, in Thailand we did not use employee shareholders issue to arouse employee participation. Although employees are minor shareholders their opinions are still important and they have the rights to express their opinions. // …The different is that it is not called a company. Therefore community business and SME may not be different in terms of encouraging employees to jointly hold shares and jointly making decision in management. // …form a community enterprise. This is the self management which is the same as the produce cooperative because in the cooperative employees who are working in the cooperative are shareholders. //…Employees have the rights to elect their leader and the rights to elect their organization. // …There are two major laws the labour protection and labour relations laws which in practice provided good guidelines for all people concerned. The laws provided rights

and freedom for employees to establish their representative organization independently... //

The concepts of industrial democracy that emerged in this stakeholder group concentrated on the principles of democracy, including freedom, rights and equality. One interesting point from the concepts of democracy from this stakeholder group is the expression of the feeling that self management enterprises established a Thai community.

5.10.8 Participation (Labour academics; SG-10)

The next category is participation. There are 78 concepts in this category.

Perceptions related to participation are displayed in Figures 5.10.12, 5.10.13, 5.10.14, and 5.10.15.

Figure 5.10.12: Participation (Labour academics; SG-10)

Figure 5.10.13: Participation (Labour academics; SG-10)

- happiness from work~
- employees are organized but not as trade union~
- identify the real cost~
- form a credit union~
- gradually developed~
- gradually move away~
- have access to information~
- fear of leak of information~
- employees can hold company shares~
- government view point of participation~
- high level executive recruitment committee~
- less participation through trade union~
- high chance for employee to take control~
- enacting new laws for employee participation~
- employee shareholding concept~
- financial ability of the company~
- expansion of participative system~
- help each other to make it happen~
- limitation to employee participation~
- CF:participation-2
- employee view point of partcipation~

Figure 5.10.14: Participation (Labour academics; SG-10)

Figure 5.10.15: Participation (Labour academics; SG-10)

// …For other parts of financial participation it is standard practices that employees are paid bonus and they have chances for advancement in their career too. // …They may have credit union or trading cooperatives as well like in this case they have three legs. There is trade union that performing the duty of consultation and collective bargaining, there is a credit union and a trading cooperative. This is for saving. // …Financial participation is participation at the share holding level. This practice is not popular probably because the amount of shares is too small to enable employees to have the rights for decision making… // …Although there are many companies both private companies and public enterprises have turned to accept the concept of having employees participating in holding company shares. // …I would like to have employee institutes to participate instead of the individual employees such as selling or buying shares through employee provident fund or employee credit unions. // …They have to disclose information to public and employees can have access to information as same as other stakeholder groups… // …Management fears that when the information is disclosed to employees it may leak to the competitor company. // …The chance of public enterprise is rather high to be able to participate at a higher level. // …they have established rules for participation so employees feel free to express themselves according to the rules…// …If the organization is to grow further management and employees must find a suitable form of management and employee participation for the organization. //

The concepts of participation emerged in this stakeholder group are mostly concerned with the principles of participation especially financial participation through shareholding. One interesting point was the expression of one respondent that employee organizations such as credit unions or provident funds should hold company shares instead of shares being held by the individual employee.

5.10.9 Problems in Participation (Labour academics; SG-10)

The next category is problems in participation. There are 83 concepts in this category. Perceptions related to problems in participation are displayed in Figures 5.10.16, 5.10.17, 5.10.18 and 5.10.19.

Figure 5.10.16: Problems in Participation (Labour academics; SG-10)

Figure 5.10.17: Problems in Participation (Labour academics; SG-10)

- lost opportunity~
- more conflicts in the long run~
- management view point of participation~
- limitations to managment participation~
- may lose this prerogative~
- more research is needed~
- lower level of participation~
- know how to use the rules~
- management not representing employees~
- need good system with good people~
- labour unequal important to other factors~
- less participation through trade union~
- it depends on public enterprise trade unions~
- less tapping of employee initiative and creativity~
- more trade unions but less member~
- good in format but poor in content~
- limitation to employee participation~
- less trade union in public company~
- management and employee conflict~
- CF:problems in participation-2
- less critical problem of participation~

Figure 5.10.18: Problems in Participation (Labour academics; SG-10)

- no innovation~
- no transparency in management~
- not freely elected~
- not enough profit~
- not in good status~
- no regular meeting~
- not in the near future~
- no follow up action~
- not enough incentives~
- no sense of confident~
- new paradigm to react to the constitution~
- new approach to public administration~
- not know what is democracy~
- no expansion of application~
- need more participation through committees~
- not know the positive affect of participation~
- not know how far can participate~
- not applicable in family company~
- not know of the status of this policy~
- CF:problems in participation-3
- no participation in small companies~

Figure 5.10.19: Problems in Participation (Labour academics; SG-10)

//There are also the attitudes of unequal between employers and employees. //This is the reason why the ideas of employees are blocked and not being used to help improving the company. // …they may think that the employee representative plays too much roles. // …some repetitive or overlapping among the roles of these committees. This issue has become a burden to both employers and employees. // …So it is necessary for them to settle and decide upon which committee will play which role. // …At the same time it is not easy to do so because a group of public enterprise employees suspect that employees may be brought into gambling. When the public enterprise is listed in the stock market and when there are profits employees may sell out all their shares. // …There is no sense of confident that they would not be intimidated or pressed by the government processes. // …There are problems in the family industries or the industry that the management process is not transparent. // …They know our cultures and they use our cultures for their benefits. // …The foreign investors know our weak points and they know the ways to use our weak points for their benefits. //

Several concepts in problems in participation were emerged including the problems related to employee shareholding and the abuse of Thai culture. It is interesting to

note that one respondent commented on the concerns of people that if employees are shareholders in public enterprise, they may be enticed into gambling.

5.10.10 Trade Union Issues (Labour academics; SG-10)

The next category is trade union issues. There are 38 concepts in this category. Perceptions related to trade union are displayed in Figures 5.10.20 and 5.10.21.

Figure 5.10.20: Trade union issues (Labour academics SG-10)

Figure 5.10.21: Trade union issues (Labour academics; SG-10)

// …They apply preventive measures not to have employees exercising their rights of association at the beginning for example not to have trade unions established in the industry…//…It is not always necessary to have trade union… // …Unless the organization thinks that and I think that trade union is not always the answer to business organizations. It is not the case that if there is no trade union the company would not be able to manage with efficiency. // …Otherwise when they say something or make some suggestions or sit in negotiation table they may not be impressed by employer or they may not receive good or important information enough to use for their decision making. // …I think in general employers attitudes would want to weaken down the trade union strength and it would be easy for them to deal with the trade union. But in this organization they help strengthening the trade union and it is easy for them to deal with employees as they can settle the matter only one time through the trade union. // …There is a check off system that is the company deduct membership fee from the payroll for trade union and that trade union do not have to collect the membership fee by itself. //…The trade union representatives who work full time for trade union can meet with management everyday if there is a problem occurred. I think it is an environment that creates the flexibility for the organization to adapt itself. I think this is the strength of both parties. //…Trade unions committee members are allowed to work full time for trade union and are authorized to use company resources. They can participate in meetings and seminars and they can go out to obtain more knowledge. //

Concepts related to trade union issues in this stakeholder group concerned the concept of unionization. It is interesting to note that in one company employers have tried to avoid trade unions while in another case the company was successful in working with and supporting a trade union.

5.10.11 Welfare (Labour academics; SG-10)

The next category is welfare. There are 8 concepts in this category.

Perceptions related to welfare are displayed in Figure 5.10.22.

Figure 5.10.22: Welfare (Labour academics; SG-10)
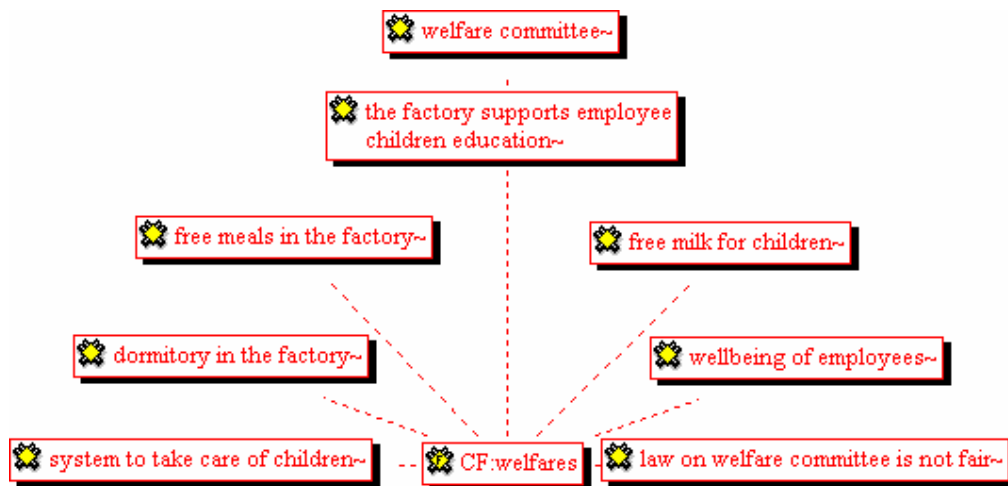
> *// …all employees are provided with dormitory in the factory. // …There are free meals in the factory. // …There is free milk for all employee children and all the meals are free. The food is served all day and it is good foods. Their food is toxic-free food. // …In the evening we will see a lot of activities and the parents do not have to worry about their children that they will be burden to them. They do not have to worry because they have day-care centre in the factory. There are systems to take care of children. // …For employee children there are buses provided for them to go to school in the morning and bring them back in the evening. //*

The concepts of welfare that emerged in this stakeholder group involve various types of welfare provided for employees in the factory. It is interesting to note that the welfares provided are not limited to only employees themselves but also apply to their families, including their children. It is also interesting that there is a system to take care of employees' children in one factory.

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5.11 Conclusion

This chapter responds to the objective of the study - identifying knowledge of industrial democracy in Thailand as perceived by selected stakeholders and the identifying of problems and difficulties encountered from the practising of industrial democracy within Thai business organizations. The objectives of investigating the similarities and differences in stakeholder perceptions of industrial democracy and the comparing of the similarities and differences in stakeholder perception of industrial democracy and the emergence of the best practice in industrial democracy as expressed by the stakeholders will be dealt with in the following chapters.

CHAPTER 6: FINDINGS ANALYSIS

This chapter presents the analysis of the findings of data obtained from ten stakeholder groups. The analysis was done using the data presented in the findings in chapter five. Using purposive sampling, as explained in chapter three and chapter four, eight groups were selected. As a result of respondent's suggestions, two more groups were added to the study. The resulting ten stakeholder groups were:

Stakeholder group 1: employees of non-unionized companies - shopfloor level;
Stakeholder group 2: employees of non-unionized companies - supervisory level;
Stakeholder group 3: trade union leaders - national level;
Stakeholder group 4: trade union leaders - company level;
Stakeholder group 5: employers of non-unionized companies;
Stakeholder group 6: employer organization leader group;
Stakeholder group 7: government officials;
Stakeholder group 8: members of tripartite bodies;
Stakeholder group 9: human resource managers;
Stakeholder group 10: labour academics.

The structure of this chapter follows the following research objectives:

To identify knowledge of industrial democracy in Thailand as perceived by selected stakeholders;
To investigate the similarities and differences in stakeholder perceptions of industrial democracy;
To compare the similarities and differences in stakeholder perceptions of industrial democracy;
To identify problems and difficulties encountered from the practicing of industrial democracy within Thai business organizations;
To emerge best practice in industrial democracy, as expressed by the stakeholders.

As presented in chapter five, predictably, the areas of concern were not identical across the ten stakeholder groups. However, the ten groups did share some major areas of concern. This chapter investigates the similarities and differences in stakeholder perceptions and compares the similarities and differences in the stakeholder perceptions of industrial democracy. The terminology in this chapter will include references to 'families' of data. This term has been used to denote the way that constructs have been grouped together to form conceptual categories of meaning. Operationally, a family is a 'bucket' of meaning that makes conceptual sense and which is populated by respondents' utterances.

First, a list of issues to be investigated and compared across the ten stakeholder groups is presented. A list of issues that were generated is presented in Table 6.1.1.

Table 6.1.1: List of issues to be investigated and compared

Issues	Stakeholder Groups
Barriers to implementation	All groups
Benefits of participation	All groups
Collective bargaining	3, 6, 7, 8 and 10
Committees	All groups
Communication	1, 2, 4, 5, 7, 9 and 10
Cultural issues	All groups
Democracy	All groups
Meeting	1, 2, 3, 5, and 9
Participation	All groups
Problems in participation	All groups
Suggestion	1 and 2
Trade union issues	3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10
Training and development	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 8
Welfare	1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10
Safety	4
Others	All groups

Sixteen issues were generated and compared. Since safety emerged only in Trade Union Leader - Company Level (SG-4), comparison with other groups cannot be made. However, comments will be made on this issue. Others contain miscellaneous issues and they are put into this classification for two main reasons. The first reason was that they are not similar enough to be able to create a separate family. The second reason was that the number is less than five and not enough to make it a separate family of issues. Since this is a miscellaneou issue, comparison was not made. Secondly, themes of similarity and selected differences in concepts of each issue will be presented in the form of a table. Comment will be made on those issues in each table where applicable. Thirdly, comparisons of theme of similarities and selected differences will also be presented.

6.1 Investigation of the Similarities and Differences in Stakeholder Perceptions of Industrial Democracy

Having identified the issues to be investigated for the similarities and differences in stakeholder perceptions of industrial democracy the similarities and differences concept is presented next.

6.1.1 Barriers of Implementation (Issue One)

All ten stakeholder groups share this conceptual category of meaning. There were 207 concepts emerged in this category of meaning. The similarities and differences are presented in Table 6.2.1.

Table 6.2.1: Similarities and differences of barriers to implementation

Similarities Theme	Selected Differences Concept
Barriers related to employee representation at board level	Readiness of employers and employees
Barriers related to financial participation	Weak trade unions and employers' associations
Barriers related to information disclosure	Abuse of the system
Barriers related to trade unions	May not adjust to local situation
Barriers related to employees	Come down from the top
Barriers related to employers	Concentrated at well educated people
Barriers related to government	Gap between management and employees
Barriers related to laws	Employees are prevented from participation
Barriers due to employees being exploited and manipulated	No concern for people in local community
Barriers due to language	Cannot demand
Barriers due to employee education	Loss of basic rights
Barriers due to attitude toward industrial democracy	No freedom
Barriers due to the concept of master and slave system	Limitation of basic rights
Barriers due to lack of professional human resource practitioners	Taxation and financial benefits
Barriers due to education and training	No clear policy
Barriers due to no further development	No trust of each other
	People are used to authoritative ruling system
	Managerial prerogative
	Long term consequences
	Obsolete concept
	Not communicating with each other
	No rights for decision making
	No bargaining power
	Not enough force
	Budget and personnel

6.1.2 Benefits of Participation (Issue Two)

All ten stakeholder groups shared this conceptual category of meaning. There were 535 concepts emerged in this category of meaning. The similarities and differences are presented in Table 6.2.2.

Table 6.2.2: Similarities and differences of benefits of participation

Similarities Theme	Selected Differences Concept
National economic and social development	Can demand additional benefits
Industrial peace	Fair distribution of interests
Customer satisfaction	Reduce unfair treatment
Success of company	Improve capability of industry
Accomplishing established goals	Higher ability to pay
Create more knowledge	Company gain more than lose from participation
Increase efficiency	Recognition of employee rights
Improve performance	Clear duties and responsibilities
Increase productivity	Create good understanding of rights and duties
Better quality of work	Deleting the feeling of win and lose
More profitable	Not repeating the same mistakes
Employment security	Protect grass root level employees
Increase employee income	Less labour problem
Improve employee welfares	Good governance
Better quality of life	Fertilizer for growth
Respond to employee needs	Good impression with the company
Employee satisfaction	Easy for management to control
Better morale	Creating desirable concepts
Employee loyalty	Increase technological skills
Employee dedication	Developing expression skills
Employee commitment	No employee exploitation
Employee retention	Employees control their welfares
Employee development	Company competitiveness
Information disclosure	Employees gain a lot of benefits
Trust each other	
Better understanding	
Sympathy to each other	
Better cooperation	
Employee cooperation	
Trade union and management cooperation	
Better team work	
Smooth operation	
Employee credit union	
Problem solving and prevention	
No legal problems	

6.1.3 Collective Bargaining (Issue Three)

Five stakeholder groups shared this conceptual category of meaning. There were 46 concepts emerged in this category of meaning. The similarities and selected differences are presented in Table 6.2.3.

Table 6.2.3: Similarities and differences of collective bargaining

Similarities Theme	Selected Differences Concept
Bargaining power Rights to demand Rights to consult Rights to negotiate and bargain with employer Information disclosure to facilitate negotiation Welfare committee cannot demand and negotiate	Procedures for submission of demand Employer ignoring trade union demands Collective agreement Informal agreement No face-to-face negotiation

6.1.4 Committees (Issue Four)

All ten stakeholder groups shared this conceptual category of meaning. There were 204 concepts emerged in this category of meaning. The similarities and differences are presented in Table 6.2.4.

Table 6.2.4: Similarities and differences of committees

Similarities Theme	Selected Differences Concept
Participation through committees Welfare committee Employee committee Safety committee Canteen committee Provident fund committee Employee representative group Trade union committee Tripartite committee Election of committee Committee meeting No committee meeting Interference of employer and management Committee decision making Clarification of committees roles Trade union roles in committees Committee operation Good performance of committees Poor performance of committees	Law on welfare committee is not fair Just want to comply with law Committee system Competitor of trade union Not aware of committee activity Employees want to know more about committee members Management listens to committee proposals Keep employees informed Managing committee work No training for committee members Committee development Chance for discussion Employees are not interested in welfare committee Benefits of being committee member Being member of committee is appropriate There are some committees Many types of committee Better to have more committees Committee is demanding Not responding to employee needs Company fully complies with law Not able to work with management No need to comply with all demands Committee terms of office Proper application of committee No continuity of committee activity

Several comments on employee representatives were made by Stakeholder Group-5, Employer of non-unionized companies, that: employee representatives are mature, know the problems in depth, are very cooperative, can express themselves freely, listen to management, speak out about what they want, participate very well and dare to speak out.

6.1.5 Communication (Issue Five)

Seven stakeholder groups shared this conceptual category of meaning. There were 149 concepts emerged in this category of meaning. The similarities and differences are presented in Table 6.2.5.

Table 6.2.5: Similarities and differences of communication

Similarities Theme	Selected Differences Concept
Communicating through bulletin board Communicating through newsletter Communicating through website and internet Communicating through internal broadcasting and paging systems Communicating through email Communicating through meeting Communicating through trade union Communicating through supervisors Communicating through grievances and suggestions Communicating through open door policy Exchange of views and opinions Frequency and urgency of communication Two-way communication Feedback on communication Freedom in communication Direct interaction Communicate with rationales Announcement to all employees Best practice in communication Barriers to communication	Items of communication Consistency of communication Communication must be easy to understand Employees not being kept informed One-way communication Writing is not as good as talking Need to have more effective communication Employees communicate with team advisor Employees are informed in advance Communication with operator Open communication Can talk to human resource staff

Other comments were made by a Stakeholder Group-9, Human Resource Manager about fairness and communication, same understanding of business, and obligation to inform employees.

6.1.6 Cultural Issues (Issue Six)

All ten stakeholder groups shared this conceptual category of meaning. There were 204 concepts emerged in this category of meaning. The similarities and differences are presented in Table 6.2.6.

Table 6.2.6: Similarities and differences of cultural issues

Similarities Theme	Selected Differences Concept
Nature of Thai culture	The competitor failed
Thai industrial democracy	The real cultural problem
Application of foreign system	Failed in labour relations
Application of Thai system	Cultures not being accepted at the beginning
Combination system	Must not affect other matters
Foreign system not suitable for Thailand	Must follow people values
Democratic culture	Employee value
Corporate culture	Pick up of cultural skills
Cultural training	We had to push it back
No cultural problems	Using Thai weak points for own advantage
Some cultural problems	Applying flexible working hours
Cultural differences	Certain core principles
Thai cultural differences	International company
Differences of foreign culture	Managed by foreigners
Adapt to culture	Expatriate executive
Building participative culture	Cultures create enthusiasm and readiness to work
	Perception of own country
	Culture imposed by management
	Dare to accept feedback
	Employees should dare to express
	Management deal with foreigners
	Did not deal with foreigners
	Representative of each culture
	Thai follows the system
	May not adjust to local situation
	Developed countries

Stakeholder Group-6, Employers Organization Leader, made several comments on the application of a Japanese system in a Thai joint venture company. These comments include: joint venture company, foreign partner has unique culture, perception of discipline and seniority, foreign partner uses principles of law, foreign partner has different labour system, Thai senior management, Thai management under Japanese supervision, new generation group not against everything, new generation group are reasonable people, new group has demanding attitude, new group is very creative, new group did not know corporate culture, old generation knows corporate cultures well, failure in creating understanding of two groups.

6.1.7 Democracy (Issue Seven)

All ten stakeholder groups shared this conceptual category of meaning. There were 250 concepts emerged in this category of meaning. The similarities and differences are presented in Table 6.2.7.

Table 6.2.7: Similarities and differences of democracy

Similarities Theme	Selected Differences Concept
Nature of democracy	Badly need industrial democracy
Nature of industrial democracy	No industrial democracy under old management
Employee rights	style
Legal rights	Democracy in communication and relationship
Rights to combine	It depends on industry development and
Rights to express	employer
Rights to know	Less democracy in downturn economy
Rights to demand	Industrial democracy was over limited
Rights to vote	Initiative of management
Rights to make suggestion	Not destroying economic system
Employee freedom	Fair distribution of interests
Freedom of expression	Initiative of government
Opportunity for expression	Not an absolute power
Expression of idea	Balance of power
Expression of opinion	Power to veto
Limitation of expression	Power to cancel
Equality	No deadlock in conflict
No equality	Government must take the lead
Election	Meet half way
Election campaign	Joint consultation to resolve the problems
No election	Consult each other
Voting	It is not full democracy
Rules and regulations	Difficult to find democracy
Rule of majority	Satisfaction of both parties
Open mind	Scope too limited
Self-management	Too much support to industrial democracy
Trade union and democracy	

Stakeholder Group-8, Member of Tripartite Bodies, mentioned that a Thai industrial democracy system should be established and that, although there were attempts to create the Thai industrial democracy these attempts not been successful as yet. It was further mentioned that Western methods of industrial democracy are difficult to apply in Thailand due to the differences between cultures.

Stakeholder Group-5, Employers-Non-unionized Companies, expressed the constraints of a voting system in business saying that if voting is used it would be difficult to manage the company.

6.1.8 Meeting (Issue Eight)

Five stakeholder groups shared this conceptual category of meaning. There were 100 concepts emerged in this category of meaning. The similarities and differences are presented in Table 6.2.8.

Table 6.2.8: Similarities and differences of meeting

Similarities Theme	Selected Differences Concept
General meeting	Mandatory meeting with employee committee
Supervisory meeting	Fixed schedule for meeting
Meetings conducted by supervisor	Meeting more often
Management-trade union meeting	Must have effective meeting
Committee meeting	Guidelines for handling meeting
Brainstorming	No opinion expression in the meeting
Small group meeting	Must encourage participation in the meeting
Extraordinary meeting	Everyone must accept the meeting decision
Various types of meeting	Minutes of the meeting
Information dissemination	
Make comments in the board meeting	
Question and answer session in the meeting	
Meeting once or twice a month	
Issues discussed in meeting	
No general meeting	
Committee has no actual meeting	
No audit no meeting	

6.1.9 Participation (Issue Nine)

All ten stakeholder groups shared this conceptual category of meaning. There were 678 concepts emerged in this category of meaning. The similarities and differences are presented in Table 6.2.9.

Table 6.2.9: Similarities and differences of participation

Similarities Theme	Selected Differences Concept
Participation at board level	Participate through email and websites
Employee shareholding	Policy supporting participation
Disclosure of information	Employee participation is continue improvement
Joint consultation	Participative behaviour
Financial participation	Employee participation is the right policy
Bonuses	More pressures on management to have more
Provident fund	employee participation
Dividend payment to shareholder	Supporting facilities are provided
Profit sharing	Problems reporting system
Employee credit union	Participate as expert
Participation through committees	Not much participation in family company
Rules and regulations	Leadership style
Participation through trade union	Participation in people area

Representative participation	Employees against shopfloor participation
Participation through QCC	Employee viewpoints of participation
Participation through suggestion	More knowledge more participation
Bipartite system	Knowledge management system
Forms of participation	Employee representative
Participation through morning meeting	Participation must benefit both parties
Participative attitudes	Financial ability of the company
Laws related to employee participation	Condition of participation
More participation in the future	Gradually developed
Participation in decision making	Participation creates effectiveness
Opportunity for participation	Conflict management
Promoting employee participation	Use with rationale and benefit to all
Shopfloor work organization	Participation creates fairness
Bottom up approach	Participation can damage the company
Scope of participation	Employee participation is good management
	Participation from beginning through to end

6.1.10 Problems in Participation (Issue Ten)

All ten stakeholder groups shared this conceptual category of meaning. There were 687 concepts emerged in this category of meaning. The similarities and differences are presented in Table 6.2.10.

Table 6.2.10: Similarities and differences of problems in participation

Similarities Theme	Selected Differences Concept
Problems related to employees	Labour unequal to other factors
Problems related to employers	Lack of understanding of labour relations
Problems related to government	Must have clear procedures to avoid problems
Problems relate to employee shareholding	Need consistency of practices
Problems related to trade union	No demand and negotiation
Problems related to nature and scope of industrial democracy	Conflict of interests
	Management and employee conflict
Problems related to information disclosure	More personal than group interests
Problems related to financial participation	People become aggressive
Problems related to trade union and employee representation at board level	Need more understanding
	Try not to understand
Problems related to committees	Different views of the problem
Problems related to laws	Create disunity
Problems related to time to participate	Very high competition
Problems related to education and training	Sense of insecurity
Problems related to employee representatives	Voting system difficult to use
Problems related to culture	People have own way of thinking
Problems related to equality	Need consultant for both parties
Problems related to chance for participation	Roles of each party
	Conflict with actual situation
	Ruining labour relations system
	Do whatever one wants to do
	Leadership style
	Proper understanding and utilization
	Industrial democracy is over limited
	Sincerity is the most important thing in participation
	Conflict of concept

Stakeholder Group-5, Employer-Non-unionized Companies, has concerns for using a voting system in the company, expressing that it would be difficult to manage if the voting system is used in the management of the company.

6.1.11 Suggestions (Issue Eleven)

Two stakeholder groups shared this conceptual category of meaning. There were 22 concepts emerged in this category of meaning. The similarities and differences are presented in Table 6.2.11.

Table 6.2.11: Similarities and differences of suggestions

Similarities Theme	Selected Differences Concept
Employee can make suggestions Suggestion box Suggestions on work system and process	Most suggestions for problem solving come from operators in production lines Employee welfare is the major topic of suggestion There is reward for employee suggestion There is no award for suggestion made by employee

The category of suggestion emerged from only two stakeholder groups; employees of non-unionized companies - shopfloor level (Stakeholder Group-1); and employees of non-unionized company - supervisory level (Stakeholder Group-2). Only a few similarities and differences themes were identified. The rest of the concepts were emerged from Stakeholder Group-1 which include: company response to employee suggestion; employee dissatisfied with reply to suggestions; there is some improvement from suggestions; not much improvement from suggestions; employees are informed of the result of suggestions; suggestions are the major channel of expression; suggestion is not as good as sitting down and talking; and some issues cannot be expressed in writing.

6.1.12 Trade Union Issues (Issue Twelve)

Seven stakeholder groups shared this conceptual category of meaning. There were 283 concepts emerged in this category of meaning. The similarities and differences are presented in Table 6.2.12.

Table 6.2.12: Similarities and differences of trade union issues

Similarities Theme	Selected Differences Concept
Nature of trade union	No company no trade union
Roles of trade union	Trade union not being developed
Trade union roles in committee	Quality of trade union leader is now better
Trade union participation	Trade union has less bargaining power
Trade union committee	Trade union will be meaningless in real
Participation through trade union	democracy
Communicating through trade union	Ignoring trade union demands
Laws related to trade union	Protect bad employees
Understanding of trade union	Politicians want to control trade union
Trade union acceptance and recognition	Separation of employee and supervisor trade
Trade union as employee representative	union
Avoiding trade union	Change in trade union attitudes
Trade union is not necessary	Change in trade union strategies
Failure of trade union	Influence of trade union advisor
Management and trade union meeting	Not strong enough
Management and trade union cooperation	Many trade union in one company
Management support trade union	Image of trade union
Collective agreement	Trade union can do better job
Trade union and welfares	Can prove trade union ability
Trade unions learn more	Employees not interested in trade union
Trade union committee self development	Trade union is necessary
No strong trade union	Rights to form trade union
Abuse of trade union	No promotion of trade union
Work full-time for trade union	Reduce trade union power and strength
	Trade union is troublesome
	Responsible trade union
	Strong trade union
	Unity of trade union

Stakeholder Group-3, Trade union leader - national level, explained the process of submission of demand. The process followed is: trade union conducts employees needs survey; makes proposal to management; seeks management comments on proposal; management makes suggestion on proposal; take into account economic and financial situation; trade union makes decision on proposal.

6.1.13 Training and Development (Issue Thirteen)

Seven stakeholder groups shared this conceptual category of meaning. There were 81 concepts emerged in this category of meaning. The similarities and differences are presented in Table 6.2.13.

Table 6.2.13: Similarities and differences of training and development

Similarities Theme	Selected Differences Concept
Need for educational and training Availability of education and training Benefits of education and training Employee development Employee self development Employees have chance for advancement Problems in education and training Education and training is a key success for industrial democracy	Investment in people development Labour plays important part in national social development Training compulsory by law Employees are employed because they have skills Needs for mentoring system Teams learn from each other Management is responsible for creating sense of belonging

6.1.14 Welfare (Issue Fourteen)

Nine stakeholder groups shared this conceptual category of meaning. There were 105 concepts emerged in this category of meaning. The similarities and differences are presented in Table 6.2.14.

Table 6.2.14: Similarities and differences of welfare

Similarities Theme	Selected Differences Concept
Establishment and operation of welfare committee Availability of welfares Welfares for employee family Take good care of pregnant employees Look after employees well Trade union roles in employee welfares Employee roles in employee welfares Safety as part of employee welfares	Success resulting from employee welfares Dissatisfaction with welfares Law on welfare committee is not fair Not good to have party during difficult period Welfare facility for employees Employee services Concentrate on welfares Well-being of people in industry Better family well-being

In addition to the above themes, Stakeholder Group-2, Employees of non-unionized companies - supervisory level, mentioned canteen committee and sport committee including employee service. In one case the company received a best canteen in the province award. Stakeholder Group-7, Government Officials, mentioned working conditions and well-being and working conditions and quality of life. Stakeholder Group-9, Human Resource Managers, mentioned work-life balance and it was commented that welfare committees were dominated by employers and that employees were not interested in welfare committees.

6.1.15 Safety (Issue Fifteen)

Only Stakeholder Group-4, Trade Union Leader - Company Level mentioned safety. There were 11 concepts emerged in this category. It was mentioned that unsafe conditions make employees feel unsafe. There is a case where employees had to work with lead and employees made the suggestion that a rotation system should be used; the company adopted the suggestion and applied a rotating system. In one case it was made a policy that safety is everybody's responsibility and employees must follow all safety rules. Safety and discipline are part of the rules and regulations. There is a safety committee in the company and in one company the safety committee has full authority in conducting safety audits and has safety meetings on a bi-weekly basis. In one company it was mentioned that there is no safety award for employees but there are some small tokens given to employees to remind them of proper safety practices. In one case, it was complained that management argues that the investment in safety is too high. At the same time one company won the national safety award.

6.1.16 Others (Miscellaneous Issues)

There are 44 concepts from all stakeholder groups that are put into another category. A few examples of concepts in this category with researcher comments follow. In one company there is no trade union and employees want to have a trade union. In one company where there is no trade union employees express that there is no need to have a trade union as the company takes employees as a main pillar of the company. It was suggested that there should be a central representative body to coordinate all employee participation activities in factories.

6.2 Comparison of the Similarities and Differences in Stakeholder Perceptions of Industrial Democracy

Having identified the themes of similarities and differences of fourteen issues, the comparison of similarities of themes of each issue will be presented next. Selected differences related to industrial democracy will also be analysed.

6.3 Comparison of Similarities of Themes of Barriers to Implementation

6.3.1 Barriers related to employee representation at board level

All stakeholder groups perceived that there is no employee representation at board level in Thailand with the exception of one respondent in Stakeholder Group-7, who expressed that there is a practice of employee representation at board level in one printing company in Thailand. Some respondents commented that they are not aware of any employee representation at board level. Some of them commented that the lower level or ordinary employees are not appointed as board members. Some of them commented that there is no such practice in Thailand. They further commented that there is a big gap in basic knowledge and interests between employees and members of the board of directors. One stakeholder group commented that it is not necessary for employees to participate at the board level and one group commented that employees are not ready to participate at board level.

6.3.2 Barriers related to financial participation

It was perceived by many stakeholder groups that there is no financial participation and financial decision making by employees. It was commented that employees are not allowed to participate in decision making on payment and bonuses. There is no clear policy on financial participation and the financial policy on salary increase is determined by management. There is no employee shareholding programme and one group commented that the employee shareholding concept is too advanced.

6.3.3 Barriers related to information disclosure

Many stakeholder groups expressed that there is no information disclosure to employees. It was commented that business information is confidential and everything was kept confidential, especially financial information. Information is not fully disclosed and not much disclosure is made and employees are not given information. It was commented by one stakeholder group that there is some limitation on financial information to be disclosed such as some information related to human resource. Employers are not willing to disclose information and that there is no purpose in disclosing information to employees. One stakeholder group commented that management fears that information may leak to competitors if it is disclosed to employees.

6.3.4 Barriers related to trade unions

It was commented that there is a need to have responsible trade unions. There are many trade unions in one company. Sometimes employers and trade unions treat each other as enemies. It was commented that there is no really strong trade union and if a trade union was strong the gap between management and trade union would be narrowed. It was expressed that trade unions may be abused especially by trade union advisors and there was a concern and fear that trade unions may be taken over by management. In addition, the weaker trade union the easier the politician can take control. At the same time it was expressed that management had strong anti-trade union attitudes. They prevent trade union participation and establishment. They use several preventive measures to avoid trade unions. On the employee side it was commented that employees felt that there was no need to have trade unions. Concerning participation, it was commented that some trade unions were against employee participation and felt that participation reduces trade union strength.

6.3.5 Barriers related to employees

It was expressed that employees are not ready to participate fully and that employees must prepare themselves to participate appropriately. Employees are against shopfloor participation as they feel that participation increases their workload and they are afraid of negative consequences. They may not want to participate if they do not have enough information. It was also mentioned that employees do not try to learn more.

6.3.6 Barriers related to employers

It was commented that employers cannot accept the concept of participation and they felt that they cannot allow employees to participate in everything. It was commented that in the Thai model the employer has absolute power in the company and that management has total control over everything and trade union should participate in order to share power. They are power-hungry and they obstruct the establishment of trade unions. They have high confidence in themselves and once they have high confidence they feel that there is no need to listen to employee opinions. They felt that there was no need to be open to employee participation and there is no need for participation. To use a participation system the employer must be open-minded. They do not have moral ethics and they should practice ethics objectively. It was

commented that participation depends on how much the employer wants to be open for participation. It was expressed that employers are concerned with cost and if it reached a certain point where the employer is not able to afford it, it will end there.

6.3.7 Barriers related to government

It was commented that implementing industrial democracy depends on government policy and that at present the government did not have a clear policy to promote industrial democracy. The government did not take the application of industrial democracy seriously and government officials just try to please the minister by doing their jobs. In addition it was commented that the government could not take the leading role and the government uses the wrong approach to industrial democracy. The assumption used by the government was that people did not know anything and that the government always regulated and controlled and dominated the activities. It was expressed that the government used autocratic power and did not care about the feelings of people. The government requires all trade unions and employer associations to register even though these organizations are private sector organizations and should not be controlled by government. The government was not open to the idea of labour participating in decision making and stresses on national security by putting strict control over trade unions and employer associations.

6.3.8 Barriers related to laws

It was commented that there are some limitations in the labour laws related to employee participation. There is a need to change or amend some of the unjust or obsolete laws related to participation. Some of the provisions of the laws are not clear and there is no enforcement provision, such as the law requiring the employer to have a regular meeting with the employee committee but having no provision for the results of the meeting. It was further commented that at present there are a lot of laws and the laws create a lot of conflicts. The laws create a discordant atmosphere between the two parties and create win and lose situations. This results in poor labour relations situations. They said that the labour protection laws create weakness in trade unions. There are some loopholes in the laws and amendments are needed. It was commented that management paid very little attention to labour law and there are legal problems in small companies. It was mentioned that employers did not comply with laws, for example there are provisions for overtime work and in practice

the laws were not complied with. In some cases employers do something only to show that they are complying with the laws. So employees should demand compliance with all laws.

It was commented that the application of industrial democracy depends on the enforcement of the laws concerned. Government officials did not support public standpoints and it was dangerous to enforce the law without a public standpoint. It was felt that the laws were very limited. A proposal was made to make employee participation through committee compulsory by law but it was argued that if it was so, the committee may be used to certify that employers are complying with the law. In some cases trade unions may abuse the rights given to them by law. Trade unions have made demands for laws to protect employees who are establishing trade unions, but without success. It was felt that the law on welfare committees is not fair and it was proposed that government should enact new laws for employee participation.

6.3.9 Barriers due to employees being exploited and manipulated

It was mentioned that there is no democracy as employees are exploited and that the main reason for establishing trade unions is due to employees being exploited. Employers take advantage of employees and they look at employees only to see how much employees can create revenue for employers. In addition to this, employees are being attacked by employers without any help from government. Employees are being framed in many ways. In some cases where employees tried to establish trade unions, some gangsters were hired to threaten or do bodily harm or even kill some employees. Management tries to find ways to force employees to leave the company if they were found to be setting up trade unions - so employees were forced and persecuted. At the same time it was commented that both trade unions and management try to take the advantage from each other by using the present provisions of law. It was also commented that employees themselves are taking advantage of each other.

6.3.10 Barriers due to language

It was commented that language is a major problem in implementing industrial democracy. Communication cannot be made with expatriates and it was expressed that Thais should have higher language competency.

6.3.11 Barriers due to employee education

It was commented that the reason why employees are not allowed to participate was because employers think that employees did not have enough knowledge. So participation depends on employee knowledge and ability. There is a need to provide more education to employees so that they know how to participate, especially those employees with lower education who are working in the factories. Most factory employees have only an elementary education and so they have a limited understanding of industrial democracy. It was commented that low standards of education in employees causes some problems to trade unions and employers and also that most trade unionists have lower education and they hardly understand the laws. So the education background of employees is a very important factor for implementing industrial democracy.

6.3.12 Barriers due to attitude toward industrial democracy

It was expressed that Thai society did not support participation and it was commented that industrial democracy is a great idea but it cannot be implemented in Thailand. It was expressed that Thailand is not ready for industrial democracy and it is believed that it will never happen in Thailand. It was expressed that industrial democracy has a lot of weaknesses and that participation can obstruct business and can cause problems to business. It can damage the company, especially if employees did not have sufficient experience in making decisions and so made wrong decisions. It also can cause damage to the labour relations system if persons who are involved are aiming to protect their own interests. It was commented that there is no common gaol for development and it would take some time to develop the concept of industrial democracy in Thailand.

6.3.13 Barriers due to the concept of master and slave system

It was commented that Thai culture was developed from a master and slave system and it was felt that there is still a master and slave system in Thailand.

6.3.14 Barriers due to lack of professional human resource practitioner

It was commented that there was a limited knowledge of human resource management in Thailand. There are few people with education and experience in personnel management, so there is a need to have more people who have graduated

and have experience in personnel management. It was also commented that there is a need to have professional human resource persons to handle human resource functions.

6.3.15 Barriers due to education and training

It was expressed that in order to implement industrial democracy there is a need to change many things including education and concept development of employers. It was further expressed that moral responsibility must be instilled through education and training reaching higher levels from the beginning. More education and training is needed for all concerned.

6.3.16 Barriers due to no further development

It was expressed that there is no clear future direction of industrial democracy and there would be no further development in industrial democracy in the future.

6.4 Differences in Concepts of Barriers to Implementation

Different views are also expressed by stakeholder groups. It was expressed that with no participation, the company would not have enough force and it was felt that democracy is concentrated on the well educated people. At present, trade union and employer associations are weakening and the implementation of industrial democracy is depending on the readiness of employers and employees.

6.5 Comparison of Similarities of Themes of Benefits of Participation

6.5.1 National economic and social development

It was commented that participation contributes to national economic development. It creates economic potential and national economic growth. It helps improve national economic performance. It results in more exports and brings in more foreign exchange for the country. It contributes to national productivity and creates and strengthens national competitiveness. It contributes to a sound national industrial relations situation. It creates national order and it creates a positive image for the country. It creates investor confidence and brings in more investment.

It was expressed that participation creates innovations for social systems and it provides a base for modern society. It is also the base for national democracy because if industrial democracy is strong, national democracy will be strong too. It also promotes the national democracy system. It creates a quality population - the country has a well disciplined workforce and the country has quality people. It was commented that participation creates more employment. It provides more jobs and income for people. It was expressed that during an economic boom, more jobs are available for people.

6.5.2 Industrial Peace

It was expressed that participation creates good relationships between the two parties and resolves conflict in the company. It creates a better working atmosphere and better work relations. Trade union and management work together well and there is no quarrel between the two parties. Trade unions and management can co-exist in happiness and stay together in peace.

It was expressed that employee participation helps in preventing and reducing conflict between management and employees. It is a tool for dispute prevention and reduction of strike. It can change conflicts into creative forces and conflicts can be resolved through the bipartite system with no deadlock. Both parties can work together well, as participation balances the needs of both parties. It was also expressed that participation results in no labour problems and no labour disputes. It creates industrial peace in the country.

It was expressed that if there is industrial democracy it would be easier for management to manage. Government officials would spend less time in settlement of labour disputes and could use their time to do more developmental work.

6.5.3 Customer satisfaction

It was expressed that employee participation results in quality products and customer satisfaction. When a company produces quality products, customers will buy more and the company has more customers as they have confidence in the company. It was also commented that if there is no employee participation, the customers would not

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buy company products. Employee participation also promotes product development and product synergy.

6.5.4 Success of company

It was expressed that participation supports the success of business and also creates sustainable business. It was commented that a democratic organization may develop slowly but it is sustainable. Participation makes the company grow and succeed. It was commented that employee participation is the most important part of company success. It was stated that the company was always successful through employee participation and it has become the company pattern of work. Some companies received many awards such as the best employer award, best canteen award, vendor of choice award, national safety award, and the national labour relations award. Some companies were very successful in communication and change management through employee participation. Some companies were ranked second in the world in an employee satisfaction survey in the group. In some companies both parties survive difficulties together through employee participation.

6.5.5 Accomplishing established goals

It was expressed that all the successes of the company come from employee participation and that the company can accomplish the established gaols as employees extend their cooperation. It was commented that participation is a means to achieve company goals. Management and employees have common goals and that in the unionized company, trade union and management work together to achieve common goals. Participation helps both parties to achieve common goals jointly.

6.5.6 Create more knowledge

It was expressed that employee participation creates ideas and more knowledge for the company. Employees, during long years of service, gain knowledge and experience and become expert in their jobs. Employee knowledge becomes company knowledge and participation opens opportunities for management to tap employee talent and use it in the company. It was expressed that employees' tacit knowledge should be tapped and shared in the company. Company knowledge is a big issue and it is essential that the company has it own knowledge management system. Employee participation helps in creating innovation and employee knowledge can be

accumulated and transferred to the next generation of employees in the company. Managerial skills are also important and they can be transferred and used in other organizations as well.

6.5.7 Increase efficiency

It was commented that participation increases efficiency and effectiveness. It will result in the company's efficiency as participation makes employee jobs easier. Employees can work faster and the company can get more work done. Participation creates speed of work and it improves management efficiency by being able to resolve working problems faster and with less expense. It was expressed that participation can help reduce costs and employers gain more productivity. Trade unions also work with management on cost reduction campaigns. Savings from participation by small group activities or from suggestions include the saving of money and expenses. It was mentioned that in some companies the saving through QCC was in a very big amount and waste was reduced more than expected and the sales are always over target.

6.5.8 Improve performance

It was expressed that employee participation helps improve company performance. Employee ideas can be used for improving work methods and processes. It helps improve the work process by reducing unnecessary steps in work processes. Employees can improve their own work and their working conditions and if they are satisfied, their performance improves. Trade unions can also contribute to the improvement of company performance. Consultation can lead to the improvement of company services to customers. Committees can contribute to the improvement of company performance as well. For example it was expressed that there were some positive changes after the election of the welfare committee. Employee suggestions also contribute to the improvement of company performance. It was commented that things have improved since the suggestions were made and employees were satisfied with the system.

Employee participation contributes to the improvement of company management and employers can use several ideas from employee participation to improve company management. It was noted that some companies concentrated on systematic

personnel management and that company personnel management becomes more efficient through employee participation. It was also expressed by the employees that they were satisfied with the performance of the human resource staff of the company. It was commented that the form of participation to be used should include the component of continuous improvement. It was also noted that industrial democracy has been improving and developing due to the fact that in the past there was no law related to industrial democracy such as there is at the present time.

6.5.9 Increased productivity

It was commented that participation results in higher productivity and that the company gains from participation by getting higher productivity. The employer increases productivity to maintain or gain more profits. Employee participation improves company productivity.

6.5.10 Better quality of work

It was expressed that participation creates quality of work and that when employees have opportunities to participate the products produced are quality products. Participation creates better quality products for the company.

6.5.11 More profitability

It was expressed that participation makes the company more profitable and that the company can also make profits in the long run. When employees are allowed to participate they are dedicated to the company, the management is also improved and the company can become more profitable.

6.5.12 Employment security

It was expressed that participation creates employment security for employees. For example in the company where employee participation is practiced, employees were able to retain their jobs while employees in other companies lost their jobs. In addition, when employees become shareholders of the company it creates employment security for them. They are not ordinary employees but they are partners in the company and they cannot be easily terminated.

6.5.13 Increased employee income

It was expressed that employees receive better compensation as a result of their participation. For example the employee shareholding programme provided additional income for employees.

6.5.14 Improved employee welfare

It was expressed that employee participation improves employee welfare. It was commented that the company looks after employees quite well and they are satisfied with the company practices that the company is concerned for employees. The company provides good welfare and benefits to employees and in some companies the benefits are extended to employees' family as well. It was mentioned that employee welfare has improved since the welfare committee election and that the improvement includes bus services, canteen and dispensary. It was expressed that the welfare committee exists to bring more welfare to employees.

6.5.15 Better Quality of life

It was expressed that one of the objectives of business is to develop the quality of life of labour. It will lead to better working conditions and quality of life for employees. It was also commented that employee participation results in better quality of life for all parties and that it will result in the better well-being of the Thai people.

6.5.16 Respond to employee needs

It was commented that if employees are allowed to participate it will help management to know the real needs of employees. Management would also know whether employees are satisfied or dissatisfied. When management knows what employees want, management then can respond to the real needs of employees appropriately. It was commented that if the company did not know the real needs of employees it was not possible to respond properly to the needs of employees.

6.5.17 Employee satisfaction

It was expressed that participation creates job satisfaction and that employees then become satisfied with the company. It is a factor to motivate employees and create better employee morale. It is a channel for employee recognition and for employees to feel that management recognizes their values. Employees are proud of their work that results from their participation and it motivates them to participate more. They also benefit from productivity gains so they participate very well. It creates satisfaction for both parties as - when employees are satisfied both management and employees are happy.

6.5.18 Better morale

It was commented that participation helps create good morale and that when employees have chances to participate they feel warm and secure and they are happy. It was expressed that participation creates happiness at work and that employees have higher morale.

6.5.19 Employee loyalty

It was commented that if employees are allowed to participate it will create employee loyalty to the company. Employees love the company and are proud of the company. Employees have confidence in the company. Employees feel that the company is their home and have a sense of belonging. They are proud of their contributions which result from their participation and they feel that they are part of the company.

6.5.20 Employee dedication

It was commented that if employees are allowed to participate they will be dedicated to the company as if they were the owner of the company. It was also expressed that employee participation is one of the techniques used for creating employee dedication. In some companies employees are so highly dedicated to the company as a result of their participation that they volunteer to work during the Songkrarn festival period.

6.5.21 Employee commitment

It was expressed that participation creates employee commitment and higher productivity. When employees participate in decision making they have commitment

to the company. Employers gain commitment from employees both in the short and long term.

6.5.22 Employee retention

It was expressed that participation reduced employee turnover and that the company was able to retain talented employees. Employee shareholding and stock option are good programmes for employee retention. It was commented that the company employee turnover was at the normal rate and the company has no retention problem. It was commented that in some companies employees have long service years and the turnover is only by retirement.

6.5.23 Employee development

It was expressed that participation motivates employees to develop themselves. Participation strengthens employee potential and it creates chances for advancement. It helps develop employee thinking ability, develop more leaders in the organization and allow employees to have chances to progress in their jobs and to grow along with the company.

6.5.24 Information disclosure

It was expressed that the company uses an open system and employees are satisfied with the open system of the company. Employees know the actual performance of the company. Employees receive extraordinary information so that employees know what management is thinking. In some companies, employees can ask all kinds of questions and the company has experts to answer the questions. Employees received information and explanations on their questions. In some cases the company balance sheet is provided to trade unions and trade unions received information before others. The trade union has information to answer member questions. It was commented that when employees participate they are informed in advance of future changes. For example, before any rules or regulations are issued, employees are informed in advance so that there is no surprise to them.

6.5.25 Trust each other

It was mentioned that participation creates trust in each other for both parties and that if employees have trust in management they will assist management as needed.

Disclosure of information creates trust from employees and if information is not disclosed, employees feel that there is something being concealed by the company.

6.5.26 Better understanding

It was expressed that when employees are allowed to participate they have a better understanding of the company situation. It was expressed that management is open-mined and listened to employee problems and opinions. Participation also prevents misunderstanding between management and employees.

6.5.27 Sympathy to each other

It was expressed that participation creates sympathy to each other between management and employees or trade union. Both parties are relying on each other so they have to help each other. It was also commented that the system of participation should provide the pattern for all parties to help each other.

6.5.28 Better cooperation

It was commented that participation creates cooperative attitudes. It was expressed that trade union attitudes have been changed to be cooperative, working together with management. It was commented that trade unions must transfer their cooperative attitudes to employees and that management must understand trade unions and provide cooperation and assistance to them. The trade union is ready to partner with management and is ready to support management if it allows trade unions to discuss policy matters. Employees will cooperate in implementing the policy if their representatives can participate in the formulation of the policy. It was expressed that, in some companies, trade unions now cooperate with management in all matters in the company.

6.5.29 Employee cooperation

It was expressed that employees extend their cooperation to the company when they are allowed to participate and that an example of the success of employee cooperation is the ISO certification of the company and volunteering to work during the Songkrarn festival period. If they are requested to cooperate, employees will give cooperation; they can be requested to cooperate in many areas such as energy saving and wasted reduction and etc. In some companies it was expressed that management

received very good cooperation from employees. When employees are given the opportunity to participate, it will create cooperative working relationships. It was commented that participation brings about cooperation of both parties and if there is a request for cooperation in a reasonable way, the Thais are willing to cooperate.

6.5.30 Trade union and management cooperation

It was commented that if trade unions can play roles in participation the company will gain benefits. A trade union can contribute its ideas and opinions to management and it can play a key role in pushing for cooperation in the company. Trade unions can work well together with management and they extend cooperation to each other so that both parties gain benefits.

6.5.31 Better team work

It was expressed that employee participation creates team work for the company. For example team work is practiced in QCC group and that employees can participate in team work in the company.

6.5.32 Smooth operation

It was expressed that when employees are allowed to participate it will help the company operation to run smoothly and that employee participation creates order in the company. It promotes good labour relations and allows the company operation to run smoothly without any problems. It was also noted that the company runs very smoothly as a result of employee participation.

6.5.33 Employee credit union

It was commented that the employee credit union is a very popular form of employee welfare at the present time. It has a large sum of funding and it creates a feeling of ownership. It is being used as a tool for employee retention as employees wanted to continue their employment in order to maintain their credit union benefits and membership.

6.5.34 Problem solving and prevention

It was expressed that management is not always in the actual work operation and employees are in the actual work situation. Employees therefore know the real problems, so employee participation helps management know the real problems. The company also knows its shortcomings and it will be able to take proper corrective actions.

It was commented that participation can be seen as a group problem solving and that, since they are the persons who know the problems best, employees can solve their own working problems. Employees can solve problems effectively as they know the real causes of the problems. Participation allows management and trade union to solve problems together. It helps reduce problems and is also a tool for prevention of problems.

6.5.35 No legal problem

It was expressed that there was no legal problems in the company and that the company complied with all laws requirements such as the establishment of a safety committee in the company. In some cases the company has used the practice even before the law was enacted such as in the case of training and the environment.

6.6 Differences in Concepts of Benefits of Participation

There are different views expressed by stakeholder groups. For example it was commented that employee participation creates transparency. It creates balance of power in the company and it creates more values. It helps reduce politics in organizations and prevents employee exploitation in the company. It was commented that a company with employee participation has less chance for loss than one without employee participation. It has more pros than cons and it creates strength for both parties. It was expressed that it is a good and a very useful system. It was commented that participation is the best system and that the company has a very good system of employee participation. Employees gain a lot of benefits and employees are satisfied with the company system of participation.

6.7 Comparison of Similarities of Themes of Collective Bargaining

6.7.1 Bargaining power

Employees have bargaining power when they are combined in a group and trade unions come from the creation of bargaining power. Trade unions can negotiate with management and the benefits go to trade union members. Bargaining power can cancel management power which includes the change of management practices and working system and both parties have very similar bargaining power.

6.7.2 Rights to demand

Employees and trade unions have the rights to demand more employee benefits other than prescribed in the labour protection laws. For example they can demand salary increases and bonuses. At present trade unions can make a demand and negotiate with management under the law and it was commented that trade unionists felt that the trade union should be the only group or people who make demands and negotiate with management. This is because the law provided that employees could also make demands and negotiate with employers.

6.7.3 Rights to consult

Employer can consult with employees and it was noted that this type of consultation is not much practiced.

6.7.4 Rights to negotiate and bargain with employer

Employees and trade union can negotiate and bargain with employers. Through collective bargaining, employees can participate in many areas including financial. Through collective bargaining, employees can participate in financial decision making. However, bargaining at the present stresses the amount to be paid rather than the criteria or the rules or methods of payment. There is a practice of annual collective bargaining with trade unions in some companies.

6.7.5 Information disclosure facilitates negotiation

At present employers offer more information to employees or trade unions in collective bargaining. It was noted that information disclosure made negotiation easier as it is easier to bargain based on the figures. It also helps reduce problems in

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negotiation, as when the trade union has accurate information it can prevent negotiation on impossible issues.

6.7.6 Welfare committee cannot demand and negotiate

It was commented that welfare committees cannot make demands and negotiate with management. Employers did not understand this fact and they were afraid of welfare committees making demands so they did not convene a meeting of the welfare committee.

6.8 Differences in Concepts of Collective Bargaining

There are some different opinions on collective bargaining as it was mentioned that there is no face-to-face negotiation and that employers ignore trade union demands. The employer argued that there was no need to negotiate with trade unions. It was noted that the argument of employers was that the employer already has an agreement with employees and there is no need to negotiate another agreement. However, trade unions claim that such an agreement was an artificial agreement and the trade union brought the case to court.

6.9 Comparison of Similarities of Themes of Committees

6.9.1 Participation through committees

It was commented that employee participation is practiced in the form of committees. There are several committees such as welfare committees, safety committees, canteen committees, recreation committees, transport committees, suggestion committees, sport committees, inspection committees, joint consultation committees, drug prevention committees, and others. The committee is a bipartite system. In non-unionized companies, employees can participate through committees. It was also commented that there is a need for employees to participate more through committees.

6.9.2 Welfare committee

Comment was made that a welfare committee is a method and channel for participation of employees. It is one among many other committees established in the company. A welfare committee is prescribed by law and members of the committee

must be elected by all employees in the company. It was mentioned that in some companies trade unions run the welfare committee, while in some companies the welfare committee is dominated by management. It was commented that at present there is too much dependence on a welfare committee and that to have a welfare committees is better than not having any committee at all. It was noted that the welfare committee is inspected by a government inspector.

6.9.3 Employee committee

Employee committee is prescribed by law but it was not made compulsory to have an employee committee. Employees have rights to establish employee committees. The employee committee is a consultative body. It is not there to make joint decisions with management like in some developed countries. It has no rights to make any proposal to the company. However, it can consult with management in all matters for all employees in the company. Where membership of a trade union is more than one half of the total employees in the company, trade unions can appoint employee committees. It was commented that an employee committee is good for trade unions and that employee committees also act as welfare committees in the company. It was commented on the other hand that the employee committee is not working and the protection provided by law on employee committees to employees and trade unions are not effective.

6.9.4 Safety committee

It was mentioned that there is a safety committee in the company and in some companies, trade union committee members are also members of safety committees. It was commented that safety and health of employees are very important and the safety and health committees play key roles in employee safety and health. Safety and health committees are established under the provision of law.The safety committee has a monthly meeting and in some companies the safety committee has full authority in conducting safety audits. In some companies an inspection committee is established to handle employee health and safety issues. It is an advisory committee in the areas of safety, health, environment and housekeeping. It was mentioned that in some companies there is no safety committee and in some cases where there is a safety committee, the company appoints company men to be members of the safety committee.

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6.9.5 Canteen committee

Employees can participate through canteen committees. The committee is appointed by management to handle canteen issues in the company.

6.9.6 Provident fund committee

A provident fund committee is also established in those companies where there is an employee provident fund. Employees can participate in the provident fund committee. The function of the committee is to look after the employee provident fund.

6.9.7 Employee representative group

In some companies an employee representative group is established to be a channel of communication with employees. This employee representative group can act as an employee welfare committee. The members of this group are elected by all employees. It was mentioned that employee representative groups are the best practice of employee participation of the company.

6. 9.8 Trade union committee

Employees can participate through trade union committee. The trade union committee changes from time to time according to the terms of office. It was commented that management has to deal with trade union committees and many other committees. The trade union committee convenes its meeting separately.

6.9.9 Tripartite committee

Employees can participate in tripartite committees at the national level. The tripartite committee comprises three parties. There are representatives of employees, employers and the representatives of government in the committee. There are several tripartite committees such as the labour relations promotion committee. It was mentioned that the labour relations promotion committee is appointed by the Minister of Labour and due to the frequent change of minister there is no continuity of this committee.

6.9.10 Election of committee

It was mentioned that employees have the rights to elect many committees in the company. It is required by law that the welfare committee must be elected by all employees in the company. Election campaigns are conducted in a similar manner to political election campaigns. In some cases trade unions also contest in the election of the committee. An employee committee also requires that its members be elected by all employees according to the law. The election is done through voting by secret ballot. In some companies computer voting is used. On the other hand there are some comments made that there is no election of committee members according to the law, especially in those non-unionized companies.

6.9.11 Committee meeting

It is compulsory by law that employers must have regular meetings with some committees. For employee committees the law requires employers to have meetings with the committee every three months. There are regular meetings in some companies, for example on a monthly basis. In some companies the committee meets frequently. In some companies a meeting is convened once or twice a month. It was commented that the committee meeting creates better understanding and better relationships.

6.9.12 No committee meeting

While there are regular meetings of the committee in many companies it was commented that in some companies there are no actual committee meetings. It was mentioned that where there was no actual meeting of the committees, the "minutes" of the meeting were written up by employers and used for reference. It was expressed that when there is no committee meeting, the committee work was not progressed.

6.9.13 Interference of employer and management

It was commented that most of the welfare committees are not freely elected. If there is no trade union in the company, the persons elected to the committee are employer representatives and not employee representatives. Employers prefer to have committees rather than to have trade unions. They can control the committee, especially those committees that are appointed by the employer. In some companies even the elected committees are under the control of management.

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6.9.14 Committee decision making

It was noted that committee decisions are made by majority vote. It is group decision making.

6.9.15 Clarification of committee roles

It was commented that one employee was a member of many committees playing different roles. Employees have to clarify which roles they are playing to ensure that they play proper roles in each committee. There is a need to separate the roles of committees and trade unions. It should be made clear that a trade union is responsible for trade union matters as there are some conflicting roles between trade unions and the roles of committees. It was expressed that it is better to have a separate committee for each specialized area and each committee must have clear, specific area of responsibilities.

6.9.16 Trade union roles in committees

It was mentioned that there are several committees in the company and in some companies trade unions are represented in all committees. In some companies, the trade union takes up all committee positions. In some companies, the trade union can participate in the company executive committee meeting and discuss several issues in the meeting.

6.9.17 Committee operation

It was commented that in some companies the committee activities include all the company activities. The committee in some companies can set up its own agenda for a meeting with management. Employee representatives can bring up their dissatisfaction or concern for consideration in the committee meeting. The committee in some companies discusses production problems and helps solve such problems.

6.9.18 Good performance of committees

It was commented that the committee is a very successful system, for example the canteen committee in some companies. It was expressed that employees are satisfied with committee performance and it was rated at a good level.

6.9.19 Poor performance of committees

While there are some comments made on the success of committees there are some comments about the poor performance of committees. It was mentioned that the committee did not have decision-making authority and that the committee could not do anything for employees. The committee produced no results and the committee is not working in reality. It was commented that the committee has no real activity.

6.10 Differences in Concepts of Committees

There are some different opinions on the issue of committee. It was commented that where there is no trade union and an employee committee, management may arrange for election to a welfare committee just to comply with the law requirements. There is no committee system in small size companies. It was also expressed that employees feel that a welfare committee is a competitor of trade unions. Welfare committees face problems of managing committee work as the members of the committees have to perform their regular work as well. There is no training for committee members so they did not know their roles. There are so many types of committee and employees were not interested in the welfare committee. Employees did not want to become a committee member because they did not know the benefits of being members of committees.

6.11 Comparison of Similarities of Themes of Communication

6.11.1 Communicating through bulletin board

Bulletin boards are still the major tool for employee communication and employees get information from bulletin boards. The boards are used to post and disseminate various kinds of information such as information from human resource departments, minutes of meetings, answers to employee questions and suggestions. There are also other types of board, such as production boards which are used to post information on production including scrap rates. Billboards are also used by some companies.

6.11.2 Communicating through newsletter

Communication with employees is also made through employee newsletters. Employee newsletters are mostly issued on a monthly basis.

6.11.3 Communicating through website and intranet

Website and intranet are used as a means of communication with employees in some companies. Company information is available on the company website.

6.11.4 Communicating through internal broadcasting and paging systems

An internal broadcasting system is used in the company to disseminate information to employees and it includes general information. The paging system is used for work matters only.

6.11.5 Communicating through email

It was expressed that email is used as a means for communication with employees by many companies. It is a two-way communication where management email to the supervisor to disseminate information to employees and in some companies employees can email direct to the managing director of the company. Employees also use email to communicate with each other.

6.11.6 Communicating through meetings

Several types of meeting are used to communicate with employees. In some companies, the workshop is used by management and trade unions to come up with an agreement while in some companies the personnel workshop is used as a tool for employee participation. The management panel is used to answer employee questions and employee suggestions. The formal meeting is used for discussing formal issues while an informal meeting, like a five-minute talk by supervisor with employees before the beginning of each shift, is used to warm up and prepare employees to be ready for work. Focused group meetings and small group activities are also used in some companies. In addition to employee meetings management also conducted supervisory meetings to keep them informed and the cross-functional board meeting is used in some companies. Management is required to have meetings with certain committees for example the welfare committee. The minutes of the meeting are distributed to all employees. In some companies a general meeting with all employees is held to disseminate information to employees and to hear from employees directly.

6.11.7 Communicating through trade union

Communication through trade unions is practiced in many companies. Management have prior discussions with trade unions on various issues to insure that there is no misunderstanding or misinterpretation of issues. Whenever there is a problem or disagreement, management and trade unions discuss with each other to come up with a resolution. When a resolution is made the trade union is responsible for communicating such resolution or information to all employees.

6.11.8 Communicating through supervisors

It was commented that supervisors are required to communicate with employees on a day-to-day basis, as supervisors are the first line management who deal directly with employees. Management rely greatly on supervisors to communicate with employees. The issues communicated to employees include production problems.

6.11.9 Communicating through grievances and suggestions

Suggestion is another method of communication. Employees make suggestions to the company and answers are provided to employee suggestions.

6.11.10 Communicating through open door policy

An open door policy is used in some companies. Management announced that employees can walk in to meet management at anytime.

6.11.11 Exchange of views and opinions

It was commented that employees wanted to exchange views and ideas with management. There is information sharing between employee representative groups with management.

6.11.12 Frequency and urgency of communication

It was mentioned that it is essential to communicate with employees all the time. Some issues must be communicated immediately while other issues may be communicated within twenty four hours. It was noted that if there is some urgent matter to communicate with employees, senior management would cascade information down the line of authority.

6.11.13 Two-way communication

Two-way communication is emphasized and it is derived from good relations. Two-way communication conducted with the trade union makes them willing to help in solving problems.

6.11.14 Freedom in communication

It was commented that democracy involved communication and relationships. Employees are free to communicate and they can speak out and participate in any activity they want. They can say whatever they want to say and can express whatever they think. They can ask all kinds of questions and the company has experts ready to answer all the questions. In one company it was made a policy that employees can ask question online and the answer must be given within seven days.

6.11.15 Feedback in communication

It was commented that management who make final decisions must listen to employee comments and feedback and that management alone cannot make corrective actions. They must obtain feedback from employees and they must be open-minded. It was also commented that trade unions must dare to accept feedback and use rationale instead of feeling.

6.11.16 Direct interaction

It was expressed that direct interaction is needed in employee communication. It was commented that there are suggestion boxes but there is no direct interaction such as informal talk, by sitting down and talking to each other, between management and employees and they would prefer to have direct communication than indirect communication.

6.11.17 Communicate with rationales

It was commented that discussion is to be made with rationale. Management and trade unions talk with reasons and rationales and stay 'down to earth' and give reasons when they disagree with each other.

6.11.18 Announcement to all employees

It was commented that written announcement is made and issued to all employees.

6.11.19 Best practice in communication

It was commented that the company has no practical problems because it has a good communication system. There are two stakeholder groups who identified company best practice in communication.

6.11.20 Barriers to communication

There are some barriers to communication expressed, such as that employees cannot make direct communication as they cannot speak English. Employees dare not talk and dare not use the open door policy. It was also commented that Thais should have higher language competency.

6.12 Differences in Concepts of Communication

There are different views on communication expressed by various stakeholder groups. It was commented that employees felt that they were not being kept informed of what was going on each day in the company. It was expressed that the meeting used to communicate information to employees is mostly one-way communication.

6.13 Comparison of Similarities of Themes of Cultural Issues

6.13.1 Nature of Thai culture

Several characteristics of the Thai culture were expressed. Thais have their own traditions and customs that tie them to families. They are close to families and are kind to each other. Thais like to treat each other as brothers and sisters and employees are treated as family members. This kind of attitude is similar to trade unions as some companies treat trade unions as part of their families. Employees in some companies feel that employers operate employee patronage and in some companies management is respected as senior family members and that management staff are called brother or sister or uncle or aunt like a senior member of family. Thai people still have warm family relationships. They talk to each other in a pleasant way. This is to maintain relationships. Thais have a helping mind and are willing to help others and all groups of people will help each other. Thais are in sympathy with each other and participation creates sympathy, we should use attitudes of sympathy to create participation so that when employees understand the company situation employees will have the attitude of helping each other.

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Thais do not like forcing but they like to request for cooperation. For example if a request was made nicely for them to work overtime during the Songkrarn festival period, which is similar to the Western Christmas, they would be willing to extend their cooperation. They do not like aggressive manners. They talk to each other and understand each other without forcing and they like to be free and be flexible. They do not like taking advantage of others. In some cases where employee representatives are aggressive, employers are annoyed and this creates a bad situation for participation. They prefer to work together like brothers and sisters and respect each other. Thais hold on to culture and they do not want to make changes in the Thai culture. They do not want to change their jobs often and as long as they are happy they will stay working in the company, as they are not working for money alone but they are concerned with hearth.

Thais normally do not want to express themselves especially when they feel insecure. When faced with problems they will keep quiet and not say anything. They dare not speak out what they think and in some cases they write suggestions. In some cases they just observe the situation when they see something going wrong. They just watch at a distance and wait until the damage has occurred and the supervisor becomes aware of the problem by himself. They dare not make a report to the supervisor as they do not want to do harm to others. Thais do not speak out if they feel that there is going to be a negative effect for others and will find an alternative way to inform the person in a nice way. They do not like using a direct approach but they will find an indirect approach to make arguments or make suggestions. They dare not make arguments or suggestions to others unless they are very close friends. Even with an open door policy that management had announced where anyone could walk into the management office to discuss any problems, employees would not dare to walk into the management office and practice the open door policy.

Thais obey and accept power of superiors and they have trust in senior persons. Especially if that person has Baramee or power, employees do not need proof of whether it is true on not. They hold that Bunkhun is very important and they will try to find every way to pay back at all costs. Thais are individualistic but they are compromising and they adjust to each other.

6.13.2 Thai industrial democracy

There were some expressions of the need for Thai industrial democracy. It was commented that there were attempts to create the Thai participative model but that they have not been successful. To develop further there is a need for knowledge of what the Thai system should be. It was commented that if the system is developed based on the Thai culture, Thailand would have its own Thai industrial democracy system. It was further expressed that the best form of participation should suit the nature of Thais and the Thai culture. It should correspond with Thai ways of participation and it would be the best system for the Thais. It was commented that culture should be integrated into the system and the system should respond to the needs of Thai people and it should not be against the feeling of the Thais. It was commented also that the system should also be flexible, take into account the informal ways and be adjusted to the surrounding environment.

6.13.3 Application of a foreign system

It was expressed that the application of industrial democracy, no matter whether it is the Asian or Western system, should not be applied wholesale as it depends on the culture and cultures cannot be imported from one country to another. It was commented that culture is part of industrial democracy and in applying industrial democracy one must take into account the cultural differences of the people involved. It should be adapted to suit people and organization cultures and it must be adjusted to suit the local situations and cultures too. It was commented that the application, including the rules and regulations, should be gradual and must adjust to local practice and the environment. It was also commented that the strong points of Thai culture should be used in implementing industrial democracy in Thailand.

6.13.4 Application of Thai system

It was mentioned that the companies are most successful when using Thai approaches while competitors failed when using foreign approaches. In some companies Buddhist philosophy and principles were used with success. It was further expressed that one of the key successes of a company is the application of Thai culture and it was mentioned that Thai culture should be applied if it were to be successful.

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6.13.5 Combination system

It was expressed that to be successful a mixed system with the combination of Thai and Western cultures should be used. It should be a mixture and merger of several cultures.

6.13.6 Foreign system not suitable for Thailand

It was commented that Western industrial democracy is difficult to apply in Thailand. There was a study carried out by a company before implementing some Western management concepts and it was found that it was not suitable for Thailand. It was also mentioned that some companies using imported system failed in their operations.

6.13.7 Democratic culture

It was commented that to have democracy, Thailand must have a democratic culture. Although it was mentioned that Thai people are now absorbing more democratic political cultures all over the country, it was also said that it is in the phase of building new democratic cultures.

6.13.8 Corporate culture

It was mentioned that employees have to adapt themselves to corporate cultures. It was commented that in some companies corporate cultures stress family atmosphere while other companies stress a process orientation. In some join venture companies, foreign partners bring along the corporate cultures they practice in their home countries. It was mentioned that there are cultural problems in some cases where there is a merger of two companies. It was commented that the agreed form of participation to be used in any organization must suit the organizational cultures.

6.13.9 Cultural training

It was mentioned that foreigners do not understand Thai culture and that for foreign investors who are authorized to invest in Thailand, it must be compulsory to learn Thai culture. Expatriates who are assigned to work in Thailand should be trained in Thai culture so that they understand the differences from their own culture. The training programme should include 'do' and 'don't' guidelines on culture. Cultural orientation and briefing programmes should also be provided to expatriates. It was

commented that expatriates must understand Thai laws and they should be trained also. In some companies expatriates are trained in Thai culture before they come to work in Thailand.

6.13.10 No cultural problems

It was expressed by some stakeholder groups that there was no serious cultural problem and that the company was able to manage its cultural situation very well. It was also expressed that there were no cross-cultural problems because all the expatriates were well trained in Thai culture before coming to work in Thailand. It was mentioned in one stakeholder group that there were no cross-cultural problems because Thai management has full authority in managing the company.

6.13.11 Some cultural problems

It was mentioned by some stakeholder groups that there were some cultural problems in dealing with expatriates in the companies, especially those in multinational companies. There are some cultural conflicts due to cultural differences in the company. It was also mentioned that there are some cultural problems among employees who come from different parts of the country. In addition it was commented that under globalization we cannot avoid cultural problems.

6.13.12 Cultural differences

It was mentioned that the way of life of people is different in different places and that different people in different places have different cultures.

6.13.13 Thai cultural differences

It was mentioned that Thai society is not a totally eastern society and it is different from other societies, especially Western society, so that when Thai employees are working abroad they need to adjust themselves to the local cultures too. Thai people did not need outside social protection so the needs for trade union is less. Trade unions must approach issues in a polite way in order to gain support for solving problems.

6.13.14 Differences of foreign culture

It was commented that there is no sympathy in foreign culture and that management did not have sympathy to employees. Money is the major factor in the Western culture and when a higher salary was offered elsewhere, employees still left the company.

6.13.15 Adapt to culture

It was commented that newcomers in organizations have to adapt themselves to the culture and that some new employees could not adjust to the new situations.

6.13.16 Building a participative culture

It was expressed that participation is based on culture and tradition and that the level of participation depends on the culture. It was commented that Thai culture supports participation so Thai culture should be used to create participation and that if the practices become the culture of the organization, it will last a long time.

6.14 Differences in Concepts of Cultural Issues

There were different views expressed by various stakeholder groups. It was expressed that foreign investors are using Thai weak points for their own advantage. In some companies culture is imposed by new management teams, but both parties can gradually adjust to each other. In some cases the company used the import system and failed in labour relations and the failed cases were due to the real cultural problems. It was observed that cultures in general and working cultures in particular are changing to participative culture.

6.15 Comparison of Similarities of Themes of Democracy

6.15.1 Nature of democracy

It was expressed that democracy (which is the power of the people) is the greatest and that the use of the power of the people is by the people and for the people. It is a form of government system. It means that there is no discrimination against people because of race or education institution. It was commented that participation is democracy and democracy is for lower people. It was commented that to avoid many problems there is a need to have both scope and limits of democracy. Political democracy provides a system for election of representatives while social democracy

accepts and respects others' dignity. It was noted that the trend of democracy in general is good. However, people in remote areas may not know what democracy is and thus they are recipients of democracy only. It was commented that to have democracy we must have a democratic culture. Although Thai people all over the country have now absorbed some democratic culture, it was also commented that Thailand is currently in the phase of building a new democratic culture.

6.15.2 Nature of industrial democracy

It was expressed that industrial democracy is 'democracy in action' as, since the company has objectives that differ from the national objectives, it is different from the national level democracy. Industrial democracy is employee rights and duties. It is employee participation and it is the participation of all employees in the company. It is a small scale democracy which is the base for large scale democracy at the national level. It promotes the national level democracy because if the industrial democracy is strong the national democracy will be strong too. Stress was laid on the well-being of people who work in industries and that includes the matters of working conditions and employee wellbeing.

6.15.3 Employee rights

Several types of employee rights were identified. It was expressed that in general employees have rights of election. Industrial democracy provides rights for employees to do many things. They also have rights according to traditional practices. They have rights to elect their organization and their leader. They have the right to choose a job that they like and is suitable to their field of study and if, for example, they do not like the present company where they are working they can change their work place and can move to a new company as they wish. They have rights to participate and rights of privacy. For example - wages is a private matter of employees and they should have the right to manage their own privacy. They also have rights to ask questions and ask for help and have the right to voice their opinions.

6.15.4 Legal rights

It was commented that in democracy people have rights according to the law. The law provides rights and freedoms for employees and management should accept the legal rights of employees.

6.15.5 Rights to combine

Employees have rights and the freedom to form trade unions independently. Management recognizes employee rights to organize.

6.15.6 Rights to express

Employees have rights to express themselves. They have rights to express their opinions and to express what is good what is bad. For example, when a decision on a matter has not been made, anyone can speak and express anything on the issue and management should use the points so expressed to promote employee participation.

6.15.7 Rights to know

Employees have rights to know information on the operation of the company. They have the right to know what others know.

6.15.8 Rights to demand

Employees have rights to demand of the company more compensation and benefits and both parties have equal rights to demand and bargain.

6.15.9 Rights to vote

It was expressed that democracy means that employees have rights to vote and rights to do everything. They have rights to vote in the factory as well. For committees all members of the committee have equal rights to vote and in some companies employee representatives have the right to vote on the disciplinary investigation.

6.15.10 Rights to make suggestions

Employees have rights to make suggestions. Employees can make suggestions and their suggestions are used for resolving problems.

6.15.11 Employee freedom

It was commented that industrial democracy is freedom in the company. Employees have freedom and equality and they are free to speak out and participate in any activity they wish. They are free to combine themselves as a trade union.

6.15.12 Freedom of expression

It was mentioned that the meaning of democracy is freedom of expression but the expressions must not interfere with other peoples' rights. Employees feel free to express when there is a clear rule for participation. The constitution supports people voicing opinions and employees can exercise their rights of expression both in work and personal problems. Employees dare to speak out to express themselves. They can express whatever they think and whatever they have to say and want to say. It was mentioned that in some companies employees voice their work problems with the supervisor but express concerns about their welfare by writing suggestions. It was commented that it was faster to express their work problems with a supervisor than express them in writing through suggestions.

6.15.13 Opportunity for expression

Employees are given opportunities for expression. However employees should be given more opportunities for expression so that the employer can gain benefits from their participation.

6.15.14 Expression of ideas

It was commented that industrial democracy provides opportunities for employees to express their ideas. They can express their ideas to management. They can express their ideas through the trade union and through suggestions. They can express their ideas in QCC projects and they can express what they want or express the situations that need corrective actions.

6.15.15 Expression of opinion

Employees have rights to express themselves and they can express their opinions or ideas. They are allowed to express their opinions and suggestions on various matters. It is a way to inform employers of their needs and they can express themselves in meetings. In some companies employees can express their opinions in writing on

suggestion sheets which are available in the rest room. Employees can also express their opinions through grievance procedures and trade unions have the same benefits in that they can voice their opinions as well. The expressions of opinion are used for resolving problems as supervisors may overlook the problems but employees are working on the line all the time so they know the real problems.

6.15.16 Limitation of expression

It was commented that sometimes the opportunity for expression is closed and employees do not have much chance to express their ideas in their day-to-day work. It was also mentioned that employees want to have more opportunity to express their ideas.

6.15.17 Equality

It was expressed that industrial democracy should create equality under the law; that all people should be regarded as equal and that there is no discrimination based on race and class. It was commented that there must be equal benefits to all and employees need to receive equal information. It is a matter of equity within the company and equality in rights and treatment. It was also commented that comparison with industry is made to ensure external equity for employees for the purposed of employee retention.

6.15.18 No equality

It was expressed that there is no equality in industry and in practice it is the same and there are some differences. Employees felt that there is unequal treatment in the company and that employees should be treated equally.

6.15.19 Election

It was remarked that employees can elect their representatives to represent them. Employee representatives can help in resolving and preventing conflicts. Employees have rights to elect members of many committees in the company. The Welfare committee is required by law to be elected directly by all employees in the company. The employee committee is also elected by employees and the election occurs according to the terms of office of each committee, for example every three years for

the employee committee. It was also mentioned that there are elections of tripartite bodies in the labour field as well.

6.15.20 Election campaign

In some companies where real elections took place, there were election campaigns similar to political election campaigns. There are also election campaigns in the election of trade union committees.

6.15.21 No election

It was mentioned that while real elections took place in many companies there are no real election in some companies. It was commented that in a non-unionized company there is no proper election of committees according to the requirements of the law.

6.15.22 Voting

It was expressed that where there is real election of committee the elections were carried out by voting using secret ballot, in the same way as the election of MP. In some companies computer voting was used.

6.15.23 Rules and regulations

It was commented that employees have rights according to the rules and regulations of the company. The rules and regulations are used in order to create justice. It was commented that the frames of reference for participation should be jointly established by both parties and that the best form of participation should be the form jointly designed by both parties. It was expressed that before the rules and regulations are issued they should be discussed in a meeting so that employees could make comments about them.

6.15.24 Rule of majority

It was stated that the rule of majority is used and that - if the suggestion is from the majority of people the company should listen to the suggestion. It was expressed that the committee used a majority vote system in making decisions and that employees were satisfied with the company decision because it was decided by the majority vote of employees.

6.15.25 Open minded

It was expressed that the management of the company is open minded and it was commented that if employers are open minded the extent of participation would increase in the future.

6.15.26 Self management

It was stated that employees can have self-management and that a committee system provides employee self government. In some companies the concept of mini company is practiced and in some companies front line employees are delegated full authority to make decisions. It was commented that employees should be given the power to make decisions regarding their participation.

6.15.27 Trade union and democracy

It was expressed that trade union is democracy and that if there is no trade union employees would feel that there is no democracy. The trade union promotes democracy; uses the majority vote system which is a 'one-man-one-vote' system and votes on all matters. The trade union uses bottom up management style and elects committee member to manage the trade union. In some companies the decision on bonuses is a joint decision by management and trade union. It was also mentioned that in some companies management did not accept trade union rights and in some companies - if there is no trade union and there is no employee committee - the persons elected to be members of committees were employer representatives not employee representatives.

6.16 Differences in Concepts of Democracy

There are some different views on democracy and most of them concentrated on industrial democracy. For example it was mentioned that democracy can create satisfaction to both parties. It was remarked that the present laws give too much support to industrial democracy and also that it has been over limited in the past. That it is not full democracy and also that the scope of industrial democracy at present is too limited. In the real democracy the employer can deal directly with each individual employee.

6.17 Comparison of Similarities of Themes of Meeting

6.17.1 General meeting

In some companies there are employee general meetings convened once every two or three months; some companies have a quarterly meeting while in another company it is a monthly meeting. This is the meeting management conducts with all employees and it is used as a means for communication with all employees.

6.17.2 Supervisory meeting

In some companies there is a meeting convened for supervisory level employees. This is to keep them informed of movements and in some companies it is a weekly meeting.

6.17.3 Meetings conducted by supervisor

In some companies, supervisors conduct their daily meeting with their direct subordinate and in some companies they convene a weekly meeting with their employees. This kind of meeting is usually conducted in an informal way and it is a small group meeting.

6.17.4 Management - trade union meeting

In some companies there is a monthly meeting convened between management and trade union. This is a regular meeting. The management personnel who attend the meeting in some companies include factory manager and deputy factory manager. The meeting can take about three hours and sometimes takes longer.

6.17.5 Committee meeting

There are regular meetings of committee and management and in some companies it is a monthly meeting, for examples, the meeting of welfare committee or the employee representative group. In some companies the committee meeting is convened right after the announcement of the election result. The committee meets very often in some companies while a meeting of committee is convened once every two or three months in some companies. In some companies the committee meeting is combined with the trade union meeting. The meeting usually takes about one to two hours.

6.17.6 Brainstorming

In some companies a brainstorming session was conducted by top management to obtain some ideas and ways to solve problems. Employees participate in the brainstorming sessions and make suggestions.

6.17.7 Small group meeting

Small group meeting is the practice in some companies. The meeting is used for discussion of several issues.

6.17.8 Extraordinary meeting

In some companies an extraordinary meeting can be called if there is an urgent matter to be discussed or if the situation requires.

6.17.9 Various types of meeting

Several types of meeting are used in various companies. These include cross-functional board meeting, group work meeting, meeting of all groups, separate group meeting, big group meeting, meeting with other department, meeting conducted by manager, leader meeting with feeders, leader meeting with employees, meeting with operators, formal meeting and five-minute talk which is an informal meeting and workshop.

6.17.10 Information dissemination

Most of the meetings are for information dissemination. This includes employee meeting, work communication meeting and information dissemination meeting.

6.17.11 Make comments in the board meeting

In some companies the trade union is allowed to participate in the company board of directors meeting. The trade union can criticise and make comment on the company policy in the board meeting.

6.17.12 Question and answer session in the meeting

In the meeting a question-and-answer session is included in the agenda and employees can ask questions in the meeting. The question-and-answer section is also provided at the general meeting.

6.17.13 Meeting once or twice a month

In some companies there is a meeting of committee once or twice a month - to keep records and to show that there are some activities of committee taking place.

6.17.14 Issues discussed in meeting

Many issues were discussed in the meeting. For example, the company performance, quarterly work progress, sales situations, sales issues, production plan, production goals, production issues, customer complaints, quality issues, profitable products and products that needed improvement, revenue and expenses, company project, expectation of the company of employees and employee welfares.

6.17.15 No general meeting

It was mentioned that in some companies there is no general meeting. It was expressed that there are thousands of employees and the company cannot stop production for the meeting.

6.17.16 Committee has no actual meeting

In some companies there is no actual meeting of the committee but the minutes of the meeting were just made up by employers to be used as references.

6.17.17 No audit - no meeting

It was expressed that the meeting is convened when there is an audit and if there is no audit there is no meeting convened. It was mentioned that in some companies there was no meeting for a period of as long as three months.

6.18 Differences in Concepts of Meeting

Different views were also expressed in this issue. For example it was mentioned that there was no expression of opinion allowed in the meeting and it was just a one-way communication type of meeting. There is no fixed schedule of meeting and employees wanted to have fixed schedule of meeting. There was an expression that there is a need to have an effective meeting and in some cases guidelines for the meeting was used for handling the meeting.

6.19 Comparison of Similarities of Themes of Participation

6.19.1 Participation at board level

It was expressed that there is a practice of employee representation at board level in one printing company in Thailand. In some companies management employees at the level of department manager and upward are appointed as company board members. In some companies employees are appointed to the advisory of the board of directors and some employees who are company shareholders are invited to join the board meeting from time to time. In some companies trade union can attend the board meeting but to listen to the meeting only and in some companies, trade union can submit written comments to the board of directors.

6.19.2 Employee shareholding

It was commented that the concept of employee shareholding is acceptable but there is not much practiced. At present employees can become company shareholders and become owners of the company. Employees can buy company shares on the stock market and in some companies many employees purchase company shares. In some companies employees can buy company shares on the stock market abroad as well. Some companies allowed employees to become shareholders when the company was transforming into a public company. Employees were allocated shares before they were opened to the public and in some companies an allocation of company shares was made instead of paying profit sharing. It was mentioned that there was a case where employees purchased company shares by using their severance pay in order to keep their jobs.

It was commented that management supported an employee shareholding system, especially in the international companies. The shareholding programme is used for rewarding employees and in some companies all employees are given company shares. In some companies there is a stock purchasing programme for management employees only. In some companies there are two employee shareholding programmes - one programme is for management staff and the other programme for all employees.

In some companies the shareholding programme is used to reward employee contribution and there are some criteria of eligibility. For example, to be eligible, employees must have at least five consecutive years of service with the company while in some companies the eligibility is based on the level of employee position. In some companies employee performance is a major criterion and only those high performers can buy the company shares. In some companies it is open to all employees and it is a non-compulsory shares ownership programme. It was expressed that in some companies nearly all employees join the share purchasing programme as it provided additional income for employees in that they can make extra money when they sell the shares. In some companies it is a free-of-charge programme, while some companies subsidize employee share purchasing programmes. In some companies employees can make payment by instalment through a deduction from their salary.

6.19.3 Disclosure of information

It was commented that information is very important to everyone and that there should be an information system available for use by all parties concerned. Formal disclosure makes management transparent and employees can predict their benefits - so the company should disclose information as much as possible. It was also commented that there was some discussion regarding making disclosure of information compulsory by law. It was expressed that some systems, such as the ISO accreditation system, required the company to disclose information. The company cannot conceal information now and it was commented that employers should disclose all information to employees. In addition all industry information should be disclosed to the community surrounding the factory as well.

However it was also commented that there is some disclosure of information by the company now and it was expressed that disclosure of information is democratic. It was mentioned that those public companies listed in stock market disclose their information voluntarily. In some companies all information of the companies is available on the company website. The company uses an open system and employees are satisfied with the open system of the company. In public companies employees can access to all information in the same way as shareholders.

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It was commented that some companies are very open and do not conceal any information. The company opens all figures to employees and trade unions and employees can have access to all company information. The company balance sheet is also provided to trade unions and disclosed to all employees. Items of disclosure include profit and loss, profit per share, sales, production plans, execution plans, forecast and accomplishments, target and achievements, company expansion plan, cost information, quality information, company performance, company situations, problem solving, customer complaints, customer visits, information about competitors, employee bonus and salary adjustments.

In some companies all information is disclosed except the salary of employees. In some companies only salaried employees are informed of the company's quarterly performance and margin and profit. In some companies product cost and profitability information is given to a supervisor who is responsible for such product and in some companies cost information is given to managers so that they can control the cost in their areas. In some companies profit and loss is disclosed to manager and upper level staff while in some companies it is disclosed to supervisor and upward only. In some companies employees are not informed in terms of figures specifically but they are informed in general terms such as the number of product produced and most of the other information is related to their work issues.

It was expressed that the means of information disclosure include meetings, bulletin boards, websites and intranet. In some companies there is an information sharing workshop conducted for employees and employees share at the meeting whatever they have to share. There are exchanges of information between the two parties. It was commented that information facilitates participation and that management and employees should have the same or similar information and that information disclosure should be made on a timely basis.

It was commented that a good governance company would disclose financial information to employees. It was expressed that the best practice of industrial democracy is the disclosure of information to all levels of employees.

6.19.4 Joint consultation

It was expressed that in a non-unionized company a consultation system is used for employee participation. It was commented that the system of joint consultation has been practiced without relying on the provisions of law. The joint consultation committee is among many committees that employees can participate in within the company, especially in a large company. It provides opportunities for both parties to consult with each other in various matters including consultation for problem solving. It was commented that there should be a regular consultation between management and employees. It was commented that employees can consult with supervisors and also with human resource staff.

6.19.5 Financial participation

It was commented that employees can participate in financial areas through collective bargaining. For example in some companies bonus is paid according to a collective agreement made with the trade union. In some companies trade unions participate in the discussion of salary adjustment. In some companies employees are paid overtime for the time they spent on participation activities out of their normal working hours.

6.19.6 Bonuses

It was expressed that bonus is the standard practice in Thailand and that employees received bonus in addition to their salary. In some companies bonus is paid based on performance while in other companies it is paid based on length of service of employees. In some companies a special bonus is paid on special occasions such as to celebrate the 35th anniversary of the company. In some companies bonus amounts are equivalent to one month of employee salary while in some companies it is equivalent to two months or more. The amount of bonus is decided by management and employees have no rights to participate in decision making on bonus. However, in some companies the decision on bonus is a joint decision between management and the trade union.

6.19.7 Provident fund

Employees can participate through a provident fund where employees also contribute to the fund along with the company. In some companies the employee provident fund

is required to buy company shares and employees gain benefits from company shares through the provident fund too. It was commented that the provident fund is a very good saving programme for employees. It was expressed that employees participate in managing their provident funds by electing their representative to the provident fund committee.

6.19.8 Dividend payment to shareholder

It was expressed that those employees who are company shareholders received payment of dividend when the company made profits. It was commented that dividend was fairly paid to shareholders.

6.19.9 Profit sharing

It was commented that if a manager is properly educated he will think of all stakeholders and not serve only the shareholders, but distribute profits to employees as well. It was commented that all parties should share losses and gains in business. In some companies a profit allocation plan was made in advance to allocate profits to all stakeholders including employees. It was expressed that there is a profit sharing scheme for employees. In some companies profit sharing is based on the quarterly performance of the company.

6.19.10 Employee credit union

It was expressed that employees can participate through an employee credit union. In some companies trade unions established employee credit unions and trading cooperatives. In many cases the company supported the establishment of a credit union. The company helped in deducting employee salary for repayment of the loan to the credit union. It was noted that the credit union was very successful in many companies. Employee credit union committees have power as they are the group that approve or disapprove any loan requested by members. Employees can see very clearly the benefits of being members of credit union committees.

6.19.11 Participation through committees

Employees can participate through various committees in the company. The system of committee is mostly used for employee participation in a non-unionized company. Employees can participate in several committees such as the welfare committee,

safety committee, canteen committee, recreation committee, transport committee and others.

6.19.12 Rules and regulations

It was commented that employee participation depends on the rules for participation. Employees should be allowed to participate in the determination of rules and regulations for participation. It was commented that rules and regulations are guidelines for practice and there must be a set of rules and regulations to be followed in the company. In some companies employees discuss and make comments on rules and regulations in the meeting. Rules and regulations are open to all and are distributed to each individual employee.

6.19.13 Participation through trade union

It was expressed that in unionized companies employees participate through trade unions. Employees participated through trade unions when the issues could not go through the welfare committee. It was argued that to be beneficial to trade unions all participation must be done through the trade union and if participation is made through trade union the management system and other things would be better and cleaner. It was commented that employees feel that it is better to participate through trade unions. It was commented that participation through trade unions is preferable if the trade union is a responsible trade union.

6.19.14 Representative participation

It was mentioned that representative participation is the best form of participation. It opens ways for employees to participate through trade unions and it is useful for employee welfare and quality of life. It was commented that there should be an employee representative system in large companies.

6.19.15 Participation through QCC

It was commented that small group activities are among the many forms of employee participation in the company. It is a form of direct participation and that shopfloor participation is mostly done through the QCC system. In many companies employees can participate through QCC system. Management supports QCC and times and spaces are provided to employees to do their QCC activities. Employees support

QCC as it provides chances for employees to participate in company activities. It was mentioned that the company benefits from the results of the QCC. There are presentations of the results of the QCC activities and the competition is made at many levels. The QCC activities are direct related to work and improved the work processes. There is also an annual competition for a QCC annual award in some companies.

6.19.16 Participation through suggestion

It was expressed that a suggestion system is used in some companies. Suggestion boxes are available for all employees and they can write their suggestions and put them into the suggestion boxes. In some companies employees can make suggestions on any subject related to their work. In some companies suggestion topics include issues on personnel and financial issues. In some companies, encouragement was made to front line employees to make suggestions as they best know the problems. In some companies employees are rewarded in cash when their suggestions are adopted. In some cases employees receive an award from the saving resulting from their suggestions on a monthly or quarterly basis.

6.19.17 Bipartite system

It was expressed that a bipartite system is a successful government policy. Where there is no trade union the bipartite system can be promoted as the relationship of management and employees in the company. It helps to reduce the problems as it stresses the mutual agreement of both parties. At present the law requires employee participation in a bipartite system and a management and trade union relationship is also a bipartite relationship. It was commented that the success of trade unions in industrial relations is having the ability to talk with management in the bipartite system. It was also commented that the bipartite system is the best practice of industrial democracy.

6.19.18 Forms of participation

It was commented that there are two major types of participation which are: direct and indirect or representative participation. It was commented that both approaches should be used to supplement the other. Different forms should be used for different situations. It was expressed that a direct approach is suitable for personal matters. It

was commented that direct participation is successful in some companies while there was some comments that representative participation is the best participation method for Thailand. It was expressed that there is no fixed model of employee participation, but that it depends on the readiness of the employer. In some companies a mixed system is used. It was expressed that a participation method should be varied and a combination of approaches by using many forms of participation should be applied. To be successful several means of participation should be used and the best system is the easiest to practice by all parties.

It was expressed that management and employees must find the most suitable form of participation and that both parties should discuss and agree on the form of participation to be used in the company. It was mentioned that the framework should be loose so that there is some flexibility in the system. It was also commented that the best participation system for the Thais must be based on the Thai culture.

6.19.19 Participation through morning meeting

It was expressed that one form of participation at the shopfloor level is the morning meeting or morning brief. Supervisors talk to their employees before start working on each shift.

6.19.20 Participative attitudes

It was expressed that participative attitudes are needed in implementing industrial democracy. The success of participation depends on the willingness of employees to participate. They can participate, no matter in what role they are to perform, when they have adopted the proper attitude. It was mentioned that in some cases the attitudes of both parties were changed after a conflict and strike occurred.

6.19.21 Laws related to employee participation

It was expressed that provisions for employee participation are prescribed by law. The law provides good guidelines for the practice and it also provides guidelines for employer and employee relationships. The intention of the law is to have both parties discuss various issues and that the law may not be compulsory in all matters but both parties discuss with each other to find acceptable solutions.

6.19.22 More participation in the future

It was commented that people can participate more under the present constitution and there will be more pressures on management that will lead to more employee participation in the future. It was anticipated that there will be more participation in the future.

6.19.23 Participation in decision making

It was expressed that one of the benefits of industrial democracy is that the employees can participate in decision making in the company. It was commented that if the acceptance level of employer in employee participation is at a higher level employees can participate in decision making. It was expressed that direct participation provides employees chances for participating in decision making directly, while representative participation allows employee representatives to participate in decision making as it they were investors and shareholders. It was commented that training is needed to help employees make proper decisions when participating in decision making.

6.19.24 Opportunity for participation

It was commented that the company should open more opportunities for employee participation. In some companies lower level employees feel that they have chances for participation and that collective bargaining is now a mechanism for employee participation. In some companies employers are open to employee participation and it was commented that employees should learn how to create chances for participation and that they should have strategies to gain benefits from their participation.

6.19.25 Promoting employee participation

It was expressed that the present government policy promotes participation and that the government has been promoting participation for a long time. It was commented that government should support participation according to the constitution and that the government should use the law as a condition to encourage participation.

6.19.26 Shopfloor work organization

It was expressed that participation at the shopfloor level will create the base for an employee participation system. It was commented that best practice should begin with shopfloor work organization, starting with employer and employee and promoted by government.

6.19.27 Bottom up approach

It was expressed that management should use the bottom up policy by allowing employees to participate by expressing their opinions. They can participate in various activities in the company including QCC. It was commented that using bottom up activities will promote participation from the grass roots level and then it will expand from the company to society.

6.19.28 Scope of participation

It was commented that employees wanted to participate in all matters related to all the work of the company. Employees at all levels should be allowed to participate in company activities including management activities. Employee participation should include participation in problem solving and decision making.

6.20 Differences in Concepts of Participation

There are some different views in participation. It was commented that there is no employee representation at board level. There is no employee shareholding programme for employees and it is more practical for small and medium size companies. In those companies that provided an employee shares ownership programme, employees are a minority group of shareholders and there is no financial consultant to employees. It was also commented that the company shares are so expensive that employees cannot afford to buy the shares. There is no information disclosure. Employers believe that if information is disclosed to employees it will cause damage to the company - they are afraid that information may leak to competitors. In the area of joint consultation it was commented that joint consultation should be made compulsory by law. It was commented that the suggestion system does not work well in Thailand.

6.21 Comparison of Similarities of Themes of Problems in Participation

6.21.1 Problems related to employees

It was expressed that employees just received orders and follow instructions of management and they may not understand democracy. It was commented that employees become selfish and they just take only and there is no commitment or loyalty to the company. It was expressed that employees expressed their need to participate in all decision making in the company but they have little knowledge of policy. It was expressed that in some cases employees did not want to participate as they were afraid of making mistakes and in some cases they feel uneasy when they are required to comply with company rules. It was also expressed that employees are taking advantage of each other too.

6.21.2 Problems related to employers

It was expressed that management were not serious in implementing industrial democracy. It was commented that employers used a closed system and there was no room for employees to participate. They did not listen to employee opinions and they felt that there was no need to listen to employees. It was commented that employers are always protecting their own benefits and all decisions are made by employers without employee participation. It was expressed that most employers take advantage of employees. In some cases employers closed down the factory and sneaked away. It was expressed that management is cost oriented and employees are expected to be the same and it causes problems and conflict.

It was commented that employers have absolute power and control over all resources in the company. They used power to opress employees and used a dictatorial leadership style and it was commented that there would be no industrial democracy under this type of leadership style. It was commented that in some companies there is corruption and that it would be difficult for this to occur if employees were allowed to participate. It was commented that management is afraid of the consequences of participation and some of them feel that if employees are allowed to participate it would cause problems for the company.

6.21.3 Problems related to government

It was expressed that the government did not have a clear policy and did not seriously promote the policy on employee participation. The government were not dedicated to it. That people have no confidence in the government process and that people movement is still being repressed by the government process. It was expressed that there many unresolved problems and the Ministry of Labour could not do anything about them and could not control them. The government officials did not have a standpoint to support the public standpoint. It was commented that to win votes from employees the minister just responds to the demands from employees. It is necessary to use a new paradigm to react to the constitution that the government has to place emphasis on economic participation in addition to political participation. There is a need for a new approach to public administration. It should be decentralized instead of controlling. The government policy makers did not have direct knowledge in the labour field. The government should find out what are the real problems and should tackle such problems properly. There is a need to have more research in Thailand especially research on successful employer and employee cooperation. The government must take a leading role in promoting industrial democracy. There is a need to have more publicity on the companies that are successful through employee participation and that more incentives should be provided to bring support from the private sector to government policy.

6.21.4 Problems related to trade unions

It was expressed that trade unions in Thailand have not been developed as they should have been. It was commented that there is no unity among trade unions and the trade unions in Thailand gain less acceptance from parties concerned. It was commented that there was a lack of proper knowledge of trade unions among those people who were establishing trade unions. Trade unions are not properly utilized and sometimes they are being abused and the image of trade unions is not positive, for example trade unions are viewed as protecting bad employees and as being troublesome.

6.21.5 Problems related to nature and scope of industrial democracy

It was commented that democracy is only known in theory and people in the remote areas may not even know what democracy is. The present practice of industrial

democracy is not so good and there is a need for more development in the field of industrial democracy. There is a need to have a clear framework as employees did not know how far they can participate. The scope of industrial democracy needs to be widened as, currently, employees cannot participate in everything. It was commented that the scope of industrial democracy at present is too limited and if the scope of participation is narrow or there is no clear frame of references for participation - employees will not see the total picture. Thus it was commented that there is a need to have a new framework for methods of participation.

It was commented that there is a need to consider the strengths and weaknesses of each form of participation as the forms to be used must suit the situations. It was expressed that the best form should respond to the needs of Thai people and it should not just to follow international standards. It was commented that the real problem in practice is how far it should go and that sometimes it has gone too far. One of the weak points was that we let it go beyond its limit. In some cases management has to observe the process to ensure that they are not going too far.

6.21.6 Problems related to information disclosure

It was commented that all information in the company is treated as a confidential matter. There is no financial participation. Even employee wages and salary are kept confidential. Employees are required to keep information about their wages and salary confidential. It was commented by employees that there is no reason to keep employee wages and salary as a confidential matter. It was commented that employers want to keep all information confidential to help give the business a competitive advantage. Employers think that if the information is disclosed it will cause damage to the company. They are afraid that if information is disclosed to employees it may leak to competitors. They feel that there is no reason to disclose information to employees. It was also commented that employees only know what has been disclosed. If the employer did not disclose information and employees wanted to know more they will seek for information on their own and if employees got wrong information it would cause problems.

6.21.7 Problems related to financial participation

It was expressed that employee financial participation in Thailand is not of good status. There is no employee participation in the determination of criterion for payment. For example, the decision on salary adjustment is made by management alone. Supervisors have no rights to make salary increases for employees and they have to follow the company established system and procedures. It was commented that some practices of employee compensation are not proper, for example the payment of diligence allowances.

6.21.8 Problems related to employee shareholding

It was commented that employees have no knowledge and understanding about the company share purchasing programme. Employees did not buy the shares because they did not know how to handle the process. It was expressed that employees did not gain much from the programme due to taxation problems. In some companies in Thailand there is no employee shareholding programme but there is a programme in Europe. It was commented that the price of the shares is too high and employees could not afford to buy the shares. It is not a popular programme due to the high price, taxation and other problems related to the programme.

6.21.9 Problems related to trade union and employee representation at board level

It was commented that there is no trade union representation at board level and there is no trade union representative appointed as a member of the board of directors of the company. It was commented that only shareholders are represented at board level. It was also commented that the practice of employee representation at board level would not happen in the near future.

6.21.10 Problems related to committees

It was expressed that there are several committees in the company and that the committees have overlapping roles. It was commented that there is a need to clarify the roles of each committee so that employees know and can play their roles properly. It was also expressed that there are also conflicts between trade union and committee roles. It was commented that laws do not fully comply in practice. For example the law required members of the welfare committee to be elected by all

employees in the company but, in practice in some companies, there was no real election. It was commented that the committees were not freely elected according to the intent of the law. In some cases it was commented that all company men were appointed as members of committees and they are not representing employees. In some companies employees are not interested in the welfare committee and they do not even know what a welfare committee is. In the case of employee committee it was commented that the committee was not working in practice.

6.21.11 Problems related to laws

It was expressed that several laws enacted in Thailand are based on international standards and practices, such as those governing working hours and welfare committees. It was commented that the industrial democracy concept was made law by government officials. There are problems of law interpretation, as people interpret the law for their own benefit - so giving rise to conflicts in law interpretation thus leading to conflict of opinion which sometimes becomes conflict in the organization. It was commented that there is a need to create better understanding of laws related to employee participation as it was expressed that both employers and employees did not understand the laws. It was commented that laws should be strictly enforced and that in practice several laws were not complied with. In some cases, for example in the case of the welfare committee - it was established only to comply with the requirement of the laws and there were no actual activities performed.

6.21.12 Problems related to time to participate

It was commented that participation is time consuming and employees feel that they did not have enough time to practice it and still have the time to perform their regular work. It was expressed that participation creates more responsibilities to employees in addition to their regular work. It increases employee workload and they have to put more effort into their work. If both regular work and participation work, for example the work of a committee, are both heavy - employees would face difficulties. It will affect employee performance in the regular work. It was commented that government officials have suggested that participation or committee work can be performed after working hours and employees felt that this suggestion would not work because the employees need rest time too.

6.21.13 Problems related to education and training

It was commented that employers are educated and trained in business rather than industrial relations. The training programme for a small or a medium size company concentrates on business and there is neither employee relations nor personnel management in the curriculum. It was commented that for the members of committee there is no training provided to them - especially no training on how to make decisions. In addition it was commented that employees have to take leave without pay to attend a training course and it affects their income and causes problems to employees and their family.

6.21.14 Problems related to employee representatives

It was commented that the success of employee participation depends on the quality and the ability of the employee representatives. It was expressed that trade union representatives must have quality. In some companies employee representatives are employer representatives. It was commented that some employee representatives are aggressive and use strong words and employers did not like that and in some cases employee representatives may use their position to create personal power and influence.

6.21.15 Problems related to culture

It was commented that there are some cultural problems in practicing industrial democracy. It was expressed that the system cannot be applied wholesale as some international standards and principles are not able to be implemented fully in Thailand. In some cases expatriate managers apply their own management system and some projects are not applicable to the local culture. It was commented that foreign investors take advantage of Thai people through Thai culture and that they use Thai weak points for their own advantage.

6.21.16 Problems related to equality

It was expressed that there is no equality in industry and in practice it is not equal. It was also commented that the attitudes of inequality between employee and employer prevail.

6.21.17 Problems related to chance for participation

It was expressed that employees did not have enough opportunities to participate and that the participation in management is very rare. It was expressed that employees have to follow instructions given to them by leaders and supervisors all the time. It was commented that employees wanted management to be open to more participation.

6.22 Differences in Concepts of Problems in Participation

There were some different views on the problems in participation expressed by stakeholder groups. It was commented that there is more disclosure of information at present than in the past. Some large companies which are not listed on the stock market disclosed their own information voluntarily. It was expressed that the present government system creates more power to employers. It was commented that there is a fear that employees may be tempted into gambling if employees become company shareholders.

6.23 Comparison of Similarities of Themes of Suggestions

6.23.1 Employee can make suggestions

Suggestion is a means for employee participation and employees can make suggestions to the company. They can make suggestions to their supervisor. They are in the best position to make suggestions because they are the people who know the problems the best. They can make suggestions personally or they can suggest them in a meeting.

6.23.2 Suggestion box

Suggestion boxes are used in many companies while in some companies there are suggestion sheets available to enable employees to write their suggestions. Some companies use online suggestion systems in addition to suggestion boxes. It was commented that suggestion is a major channel of communication and expression in some companies.

6.23.3 Suggestions on work system and process

It was commented that employee suggestion are related to working methods and processes and that most of the suggestions for improving problems come from the operators in the production lines.

6.24 Differences in Concepts of Suggestion

There are some different views on the suggestion system; that welfare is the major topic of suggestion in some companies and that although the employees are informed of the result of their suggestions, there is no award for suggestion in some companies. It was commented that employees are not satisfied with the answer to suggestions. While there are some improvements resulting from suggestions in some companies there were comments that there is not much improvement resulting from suggestions in other companies. It was also noted that to sit down and talk is better than making suggestions as some issues cannot be put in writing.

6.25 Comparison of Similarities of Themes of Trade Union Issues

6.25.1 Nature of trade union

It was expressed that the trade union is a separate legal identity from the company. It is an organization with life and soul no matter whether it is a juristic person or not. It has its own properties and it also has to manage a large sum of its own funds. At present a trade union uses several working techniques learned from participation in managing trade union activities. Trade unions are participated in by employees and trade unions represent their members and can handle all matters related to the members. It uses a bottom up management style and it is democratic in nature. It was expressed that a trade union is more democratic than government and that if there is no trade union there is no democracy. Trade unions use a majority vote system and they promote industrial democracy. It was expressed that trade unions are not being utilized sufficiently and they should be properly utilized as there is nothing wrong with trade unions. It was mentioned that trade unions and employer organizations have a long history and there is every opportunity to make them become more beneficial to all parties. It is essential that the real objectives of trade union should be observed and the principles of trade unionism should apply. In order to ensure trust

from management and employees trade unions must be neutral and trade unionists must be honourable people.

6.25.2 Roles of trade union

It was expressed that trade union roles cover all matters in which protection or benefit of employees is involved. Trade union roles include social and political roles and it was commented that trade union must be involved in politics. Trade unions can demand more benefits other than those prescribed in the labour protection law. The demands usually include salary increments and bonuses. Trade unions can push for higher wages and this might be one reason that trade unions are being avoided. Trade unions can move for new laws or for amendment of the existing laws for the benefit of employees. However, it was commented that trade unions must not make any movement that would be harmful to the company and the society. It was also commented that trade unions are against corruption and if a trade union is allowed to participate it would be difficult for corruption to occur.

It was expressed that trade unions can protect employment security and when employees are faced with employment insecurity they feel a need for trade union. It was commented that to make participation work well there is a need to adjust trade union roles so that a trade union is to be responsible for trade union matters only.

6.25.3 Trade union roles in committee

It was commented that welfare committees may be a starting point for trade unions, although this might be in only few cases. There was a case where trade union began from an employee committee and before starting a trade union employees used the provisions in the law to have an employee committee election. It was commented that trade unionists are against the concept of employee committees as they feel that if the committee can make a final decision it will weaken the trade union and will undermine trade union objectives. It was commented that the welfare committee is the competitor of trade unions. There are some conflicts between the roles of trade unions and the role of committees and it was commented that in the case where there is an employee committee, employers preferred to deal with the employee committee and would not listen to the trade union.

At the same time it was expressed that an employee committee is good for trade unions and in a unionized company the trade union could make a proposal to the company to set up committees and that trade union representatives should be appointed as employee committee members. In a case where the trade union has the majority of employees as its members, the trade union can appoint the employee committee in the company. In some companies where there are elections, the trade union contests in all elections and in some companies the trade union takes up all the positions and are represented in all committees in the company. In some companies where an employee committee exists, employees use the committee to push issues to their trade union for further action. It was commented that the committees, especially the welfare committee, could not do much as the committee has no rights to make a demand and cannot bargain with the employer. It was also commented that at present management has to deal with trade union committees and also with many other committees in the company.

6.25.4 Trade union participation

In some companies the trade union can participate in all company activities as management is open to trade union participation. In some companies the trade union can participate in company management but not at the board level; trade unions are allowed to participate in the board meetings as an observer only. Trade union participates in financial matters through negotiation with management according to the law. It was commented that when a trade union is allowed to participate it can play more roles and the company will gain benefits from trade union participation. Trade unions play a key role in the bipartite system in the company and they can push for cooperation in the company. Trade union can participate at the national level by election of various tripartite bodies at the national level.

6.25.5 Trade union committee

A trade union committee is elected by all members of the trade union and the committee is to manage trade union activities. The committee is elected according to the terms of office so trade union committees change from time to time. It was commented that in some case the newly elected committee cannot work with management and that when they gain more experience the committee improves it performance.

6.25.6 Participation through trade union

It was expressed that in the unionized company employees can participate through a trade union. In some companies trade unions receive very high recognition that everything is done through the trade union and that the trade union is the centre for employee participation in the company. Employees can express their ideas through their trade union and they feel that it is better to participate through the trade union. It was commented that in some companies the employer prefers to work through trade unions while, at the same time it was commented that participation through trade unions is preferable if the trade union is a responsible trade union. While there were comments that participation through trade union is the best system, there was some comment made that in practice there is less participation through trade unions.

6.25.7 Communicating through trade union

It was expressed that some companies communicate with employees through trade unions while in some companies only certain types of communication are carried out through the trade union. In some companies the trade union supports communication to its members while in other companies the trade union is responsible for the dissemination of information to all employees.

6.25.8 Laws related to trade union

It was commented that labour protection laws weaken trade unions. At present there is no law to protect trade union organizers and trade unions made demands on government to enact laws to protect trade union promoters without success.

6.25.9 Understanding of trade union

It was commented that there is a need for management and shareholders to have more understanding and acceptance of trade union and its participation. It was expressed that some management did not understand and did not accept trade unions. At the same time those people who were establishing trade unions also did not have proper knowledge of trade union. There was no training programme for those employees who wanted to establish a trade union.

6.25.10 Trade union acceptance and recognition

It was commented that employees still need trade unions and that trade unions must gain acceptance from all parties concerned. Trade unions must have acceptance from employers in order to participate effectively. If a trade union is recognized by management it will pave the way for management and trade union cooperation and it will lead the way to disclosure of information. It was expressed that there is insufficient acceptance of trade unions in Thailand. It was expressed that employers did not accept trade unions and in some case employers did not accept trade unions with sincerity and therefore did not accept trade union rights. However, in some companies trade unions gain very high recognition from management and in one case, the trade union president was honoured by the company president. It was commented that in some companies the trade union was assigned to look after the welfare of employees.

6.25.11 Trade union as employee representative

It was expressed that in some companies the trade union is recognized as the employees representative. The company uses the system of trade union as employee representative. Trade unions can represent employees in many activities such as demand and negotiation with management on behalf of employees. However, there were some comments that the law should be clearly stated that where there is a trade union the trade union is the employee representative in such a company.

6.25.12 Avoiding trade union

It was commented that management has strong anti trade union attitudes. They are afraid of trade unions. Employers do not want a trade union. In some companies management did not accept trade unions and used various preventive measures to prevent trade unions from being established or participated in.

6.25.13 Trade union is not necessary

It was commented that in some companies, employees feel that there is no need for trade unions. In some companies employees can deal directly with management and there was no need to have a trade union to represent them. It was commented that in the real democracy situation a trade union is not necessary. It was commented that a trade union is not always necessary and that it is not always the answer. It does not

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necessarily mean that the company would not be effective if there is no trade union in the company. It was also commented that a non-unionized company can be successful as well.

6.25.14 Failure of trade union

It was commented that a trade union system is not successful in Thailand. It was commented that the failure was due to the fact that employees want more and more without understanding the company situation.

6.25.15 Management and trade union meeting

It was expressed that there is a monthly meeting between management and the trade union. Several issues are discussed in the meeting. In some companies, in addition to the monthly meeting, trade unions can meet with management at any time.

6.25.16 Management and trade union cooperation

It was commented that management and trade unions work together very well in some companies. Both management and the trade union cooperated with each other to overcome economic difficulties. In some companies, trade unions work with management in cost reduction campaigns.

6.25.17 Management support trade union

It was commented that if a trade union is strong it benefits the company. In some companies management supports the trade union in many ways including encouraging employees to become members of the trade union. In some companies a check-off system was used and the trade union was provided with all necessary facilities. In some companies trade union committee members are provided with trade union leave for 250 days per year. It was commented that the practice of supporting trade unions creates good trade union and management relationships. It was also commented that if management understand trade unions and change their mind set then a sustainable relationship can be created. It was expressed that a trade union is not the enemy of management and it should not be treated as an enemy.

6.25.18 Collective agreement

In some companies the trade union negotiates with management in various matters such as bonus. If both parties understand - they will reach an agreement and there is no strike. The joint agreement is used as a guideline for managing employee relations. In some companies the agreement is made for two years.

6.25.19 Trade union and welfare

It was commented that trade unions now believe that welfare is part of the function of a trade union. In some companies a trade union is elected as a welfare committee and it exercises the responsibilities of the welfare committee at the same time. In some companies trade union meetings with management are combined with the welfare committee meeting.

6.25.20 Trade unions learn more

It was expressed that trade unions can learn many new systems through the practicing of industrial democracy. It was commented that as trade unions have more experience and increasingly learn more it will enable labour relations situations to be improved.

6.25.21 Trade union committee self development

It was commented that industrial democracy provided opportunities for employees and trade union committee members to develop themselves. They gained more knowledge through meetings and seminars in which they are authorized to participate.

6.25.22 No strong trade union

It was expressed that there is no really strong trade union and it is believed that the gap between management and trade unions will be narrowed if there is a strong trade union. It was also commented that the number of trade unions has increased but the number of members are decreasing.

6.25.23 Abuse of trade union

It was commented that new trade unions depend a lot on the trade union advisory and that a trade union can be abused. The trade union advisories can abuse trade unions.

6.25.24 Work full time for trade union

It was mentioned that in some companies trade union committee members are allowed to work full time for the trade union. In some companies key trade union committee members work for the trade union full time and they do not have to work for the company.

6.26 Differences in Concepts of Trade Union Issues

There are some differences in concepts of trade union issues. It was commented that the trade union system is not being developed as it should have been. A trade union has less bargaining power and there is a belief that participation reduces trade union strength. It was commented that the trade union protects bad employees through its legal rights. A trade union is not good and it is troublesome. There is a need to have a responsible trade union. In some companies trade union committee members work full time for the trade union and they stick to trade union positions. Employees are not interested in a trade union as they can gain benefits without a trade union.

At the same time there are some comments supporting trade unions. It was remarked that trade unions are necessary for employees as they can help employees in many areas. In some companies almost all employees are trade union members. It was expressed that trade union committees in some companies are more developed than management.

6.27 Comparison of Similarities of Themes of Training and Development

6.27.1 Needs for education and training

It was commented that education is the most important factor in promoting industrial democracy and more education and training are needed in this area. It was commented that employers or management should be educated in law and ethics. Training in industrial relations also needs to be provided to employers. There is a need to have personnel management training for management, especially the training programmes, as small and medium size companies currently did not include industrial relations and personnel management in their training. It was also noted that training should begin with the training of the supervisor. For employees - they should be trained in many areas so that they can express their ideas. Safety training is an

essential part and it should be stressed in an employee training programme. Orientation programmes are also essential for new employees.

It was commented that there is no learning activity for production operators and that there is a need to have a learning process to transfer knowledge to all employees. Training to reinforce corporate culture is needed. It was also mentioned that government officials, especially those in the lower level of officials, should be provided with training as well. It was noted that there are currently no training programmes for trade union promoters who are establishing a trade union and neither is there a training programme for committee members.

6.27.2 Availability of education and training

Several training programmes are available for management and employees including other parties involved in the industrial relations system. The programmes include cultural training programmes for expatriates who are coming to work in Thailand. Supervisory skill training is also provided to supervisors which includes training through meetings. There are some relationships training programmes provided to employees. Safety training is also available. There are training programmes for new employees and they include training on rules and regulations and discipline. Personnel management training is also available. Lower level of government officials have lately been provided with some training. Training courses on worker participation are also provided by the Federation of Thai Industries.

6.27.3 Benefits of education and training

Several benefits of training emerged from different stakeholder groups. These benefits include the comment that training is the starting point of industrial democracy as training provides guidelines for practices. Training creates better understanding of the duties and responsibilities in various roles. Training can help solve many problems as employees can be trained to do other jobs and well-trained employees can participate very well. It was mentioned that education enhances management effectiveness and that training and seminars can help in increasing the moral and ethical responsibility of the people involved. It was also noted that education makes management think and act reasonably and that it can help in transferring managerial skills to Thai organizations.

6.27.4 Employee development

It was commented that participation is a channel for employee development as participation help strengthen employee potential. It was mentioned that employers must develop employees and that employees have a commitment to the company. If management develop them it will be beneficial to the company. It was also mentioned that at present there are many employee development activities available and it was remarked that employees are more developed now, as they have attained higher education, than they were in the past.

6.27.5 Employee self development

Employee self development is in practice as employees now have several activites through which they can develop themselves. Employees can continue their education while they are working and some companies provide a library and support employee self development. Trade unionists also develop themselves through industrial democracy and it is essential for trade union committee members to develop themselves to keep abreast of changing situations.

6.27.6 Employees have chances for advancement

It was noted that employees have chances for advancement in their job and supervisors support employees for advancement. There is an internal promotion system in some companies. It was commented that if employees see their chances for advancement in the company they will have a commitment to the company as employees want to have career growth as well.

6.27.7 Problems in education and training

There are some problems in this area as mentioned by some stakeholder groups. These problems include the comment that training needs more investment and it increases costs and it is also time consuming. It was mentioned that employees could not join a training programme and in some companies employees have to take leave without pay to attend training courses. It was commented that present training programmes for small and medium size companies stress business management while another comment was that employees are not trained properly as required by the system and that when employees completed their self development through

continuing education the company did not recognize such achievement. For example there is no salary adjustment for higher education.

6.27.8 Education and training is a key success for industrial democracy

It was commented that employee education is an important factor to implement in the system. Employees have less education so they have limited knowledge and understanding of industrial democracy. It was noted that lower standards of education in employees causes problems to both management and trade unions and also leads to that employees not being allowed to participate as employers think that employees do not have enough knowledge.

6.28 Differences in Concepts of Training and Development

There are some different views on training and development. It was commented that at present trade union committees are more developed than management. It was proposed that training should be made compulsory by law and that employees are employed because they have skills. There should be a mentoring system in the company as employees can be developed through the mentoring system and the company should invest in developing employees.

6.29 Comparison of Similarities of Themes of Welfare

6.29.1   Establishment and operation of welfare committee

The welfare committee in an enterprise is prescribed by law. It is among many committees established in a company. The welfare committee members are required by law to be elected by all employees in the company. It is a channel through which employees can participate in the company. The committee aims to bring more welfare to employees. The functions of the committee are not only to arrange for new welfare, but also to include the efficiency of management of the current welfare. The committee is operated through meetings. The major issues discussed in the meeting were employee welfare but other company matters were also discussed. In one company the committee is also responsible for the working rules in the company. It was commented that employee welfare was improved after the election of the committee while other comments said that, when the committee did not have the authority to make decisions, employees did not gain benefits from the committee. It

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was also commented that there is inspection of committee performance and operation by a government official. In one company where there is an employee committee established under a different law, that employee committee assumed the responsibility of the welfare committee as prescribed by law.

6.29.2 Availability of welfare

Several types of welfare are provided to employees. These include monthly party; new year party; bus services; dormitory; canteen; free meals; sports day; sport facilities; services facilities such as fitness room and karaoke room; company library; social security; emergency loan with low interests. An employee club is also established in many companies and the club is run by employees. The company also support outside sports activities. The company provides a budget and the welfare activities are run by the committee.

6.29.3 Welfare for employee family

Welfare is also extended to employees' families; such as childcare and a system to look after employee children. There are meals and free milk for employee children in one company and there are several programmes for employee wives to earn extra income to support the employee's family.

6.29.4 Take good care of pregnant employees

It was commented by many stakeholder groups that the company looks after employees quite well and employees are satisfied with company practices. The company takes good care of pregnant employees and in one company the pregnant employees are temporarily transferred to work at the company library to perform light work before going on maternity leave. In one company there is a programme to help pregnant employees prepare themselves to be good mothers.

6.29.5 Look after employees well

It was commented by many stakeholder groups that the company takes very good care of employees. Employees are satisfied with the company. It was stated that all management, no matter whether human resource or line managers, are responsible for ensuring the wellbeing of employees.

6.29.6 Trade union roles in employee welfare

Trade unions play key roles in welfare matters in some companies. It is believed by trade unionists that welfare is part of the trade union responsibility. In some companies, trade unions run the welfare committees. In addition the trade union negotiates with management for improving welfare. Once an agreement was reached the company provided more welfare to employees according to the agreement. It was noted that negotiation and agreement is a way to limit employer power in welfare management. In some companies a trade union meeting is combined with a welfare committee meeting and in some companies the trade union is assigned to look after employee welfare.

6.29.7 Employee roles in employee welfare

Employees have opportunities to participate in managing employee welfare through welfare committees. Employees help control their welfare, for instance, in the case of the canteen they can participate in controlling the prices and the quality of the food. Employees can make suggestions on welfare issues and most of the suggestions submitted by employees are related to welfare. Employees also have rights and a voice in managing the employee club.

6.29.8 Safety as part of employee welfare

In addition to a welfare committee, employees can participate through safety and health committees. It was commented that safety and health issues need reinforcement as employees work around machines and chemicals. There is a need to review employee working hours in relation to employee safety as well. The safety committee convenes a monthly meeting and it also conducts safety audits and employees participate in the safety committee. As a result of safety committee activities there are no accidents and all parties gain benefits.

6.30 Differences in Concepts of Welfare

There are some different views on employee welfare. These include the view that the law on welfare committee is not fair. It was also commented that employees are not interested in the welfare committee and in some cases the welfare committee is being dominated by management. It was also commented that in some cases employees

were dissatisfied with company welfare so they wrote a lot of suggestions on welfare issues.

6.31 Conclusion

This chapter responds to the objectives of the study of investigating the similarities and differences in stakeholder perceptions of industrial democracy and the comparing of the similarities and differences in stakeholder perceptions of industrial democracy. The objective of identifying problems and difficulties encountered from the practicing of industrial democracy within Thai business organizations and the emergence of best practice in industrial democracy as expressed by the stakeholders will be dealt with in the following chapters

CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSION

7.1 Overview

This study began with a rich and comprehensive description of the British industrial relations heritage. The reasons for this were explained in chapters one and two. Also explained was the social and philosophical acceptance of employee exploitation that led to the need for collective bargaining to protect workers, especially in England. This manifested itself in two ways. One was legal and the other was confrontational. The win-lose mentality became a habit born almost from the beginning of collective bargaining and the structure of friendly societies and guilds. Within the British cultural framework, the values of harmony, graciousness, kindness and caring for the other, such as are in the Thai culture, were not embedded. Against this backdrop, the Thai industrial relations evolution was described in juxtaposition to Thai culture. The reason for this was that many elements of British and, in the wider sense, Western industrial relations methodologies were grafted onto Thai industrial arrangements. The time has come now for a broadening of many of the social and industrial relations arrangements in Thailand to allow a cross-section of members of Thai society to take part in governance at both the organizational and societal levels.

The catalysts for this, as described in chapter one were the Constitution of the Kingdom of Thailand B.E. 2540 (1997) and the Ninth Economic and Social Development Plan B.E. 2545-2549 (2002-2005).

Article 45 of the Constitution of the Kingdom of Thailand B.E. 2540 (1997) guaranteed the freedom of people to organize themselves as association, union, federation, cooperative, cooperative group, private organization and other forms of groups (MOE 1997; Jumpa 2002; Viriyayudthangura 2002).

At the same time, Article 76 of the constitution promotes and supports people to participate in policy determination, political decision making, economic and social including political development plan formulation, and auditing the exercise of power of the government at all levels (MOE 1997; Jumpa 2002; Viriyayudthangura 2002). In addition, Article 86 of the constitution required the state to promote employment

for the population in the workforce, provide protection of labour especially women and child labour, establishing employee relation system, social security and fair compensation to labour.

The Constitution of the Kingdom of Thailand B.E. 2540 (1997) thus provided the foundation for industrial democracy in Thailand.

For the Ninth Economic and Social Development Plan the King of Thailand and the Government regard the *Ninth National Economic and Social Development Plan* (9NESD) as providing guidelines for economic and social development policies 2002 – 2006. This is a strategic plan for organizational development, drawing upon "the views of Thai people from all social sectors at provincial, sub-regional, regional, and national levels" (NESDB 2001, p.2) and based upon a "shared vision of Thai society for the next 20 years" (NESDB 2001, p.2).

The 9NESD expresses the strategic intention to include the less senior members of Thai society in decisions about their lives and working lives.

For example, the 9NESD stresses the "consolidation of a strong social foundation" (NESDB 2001, p.8). The plan provides a formal recognition that "people, families, and communities are the corner stone of Thai society. Major development approaches advocated include strengthening of networks (social and business) that link rural and urban areas, as well as prudent management of natural resources and the environment to achieve sustainable development" (NESDB 2001, p.8).

The Plan stresses the "empowerment of the people to cope with changes" (NESDB 2001, p.8). One of the major targets of the plan is "empowerment of communities and the development of livable cities and communities. Emphasis should be placed on the development of processes that empower communities so that they can serve as strong foundations of society" (NESDB 2001, p.9)

The change would have many repercussions for Thai society in a range of domains. This study aimed to give less senior members of organizational life, together with the senior members who have been involved in the construction and implementation of

industrial relations, a voice about the broadening of industrial relations arrangements. In addition, representatives of the academic domain who provided commentary on such things as industrial relations were included. The conceptual framework within which these voices would be heard was that of industrial democracy. The study sought, for the first time in Thai industrial relations history, to paint a rich portrait of a range of individuals who design, implement or are affected by industrial arrangements in Thailand.

The centrepiece of the study revolved around elements of industrial democracy such as benefits, barriers, and other issues emerging from the respondents themselves. Chapters five and six have combined data that were analyzed into conceptual maps (chapter five) and a commentary on the many issues raised by the respondents in terms of similarities and differences (chapter six).

Before going on to discuss the findings in relation to the literature in chapters one and two, the following propositions can be tentatively made on the basis that the research has paved the way for a larger-scale but still comprehensive study into this area. When listening to the respondents' voices as they were telling their stories a vision seemed to be emerging. This has been envisaged as the "Three Tree Model". It is recognized that this model is only one way of envisaging the data and that other researchers and thesis readers may construe the data in a different way. The researcher draws mainly on the comments and stories represented in chapter six to support the three trees ideas. Because of the importance of this visualization of the data, the model has been presented at this point in the discussion chapter. The discussion on culture, including respondents' comments is presented later in the chapter.

7.2   The "Three Tree Model"

The "Three Tree Model" originated in 2002 (Joungtrakul 2002). The original conceptualisation was made on the basis of intuitive and anecdotal data. The design of the study was carefully crafted so as not to mention any element of the model. Not only was this designed into the study in a structured way (see the research questions presented in chapter one) but, following phenomenological principles (Berger &

Luckmann 1966), the researcher 'bracketed' this schema in a reflexive manner. In the familiarization study, there were no indications that respondents were aware of this model.

The data in this study supported the original idea, which was based largely on a deep analysis of the documents appertaining to the construction and consolidation of the industrial relations superstructure and infrastructure in Thailand. This was done over the period when industrial relations was formally launched by the government (Chandravithun & Vause 1994). The idea that Western theories were applied in Thai organizations without any adaptation to local values was supported. These theories appeared to be copied from the Western text books elements of the texts represented the learning experience gained from management education and training that were conducted using Western management theories.

Furthermore the application of Western theories in Thailand was made on a piecemeal basis without appropriate planning and implementation. Change management processes (Thai style) were not applied appropriateley. Applications were mostly concentrated on vision, mission, objectives, strategy and organization charts. Systems and procedures and processes were not established for people to follow to achieve the objectives. The worst part is that behavioural change activities were not performed and people were not prepared to follow the processes to achieve the objectives. People were not informed and not allowed to participate in the change processes. They were not trained and prepared to cope with the change that was facing them. It was just like the practice of developing a blue print and expecting that change would occur automatically according to the blueprint.

Figure 7.1: The Application of the Western Theories in Thailand
                 (The "Three Tree Model")
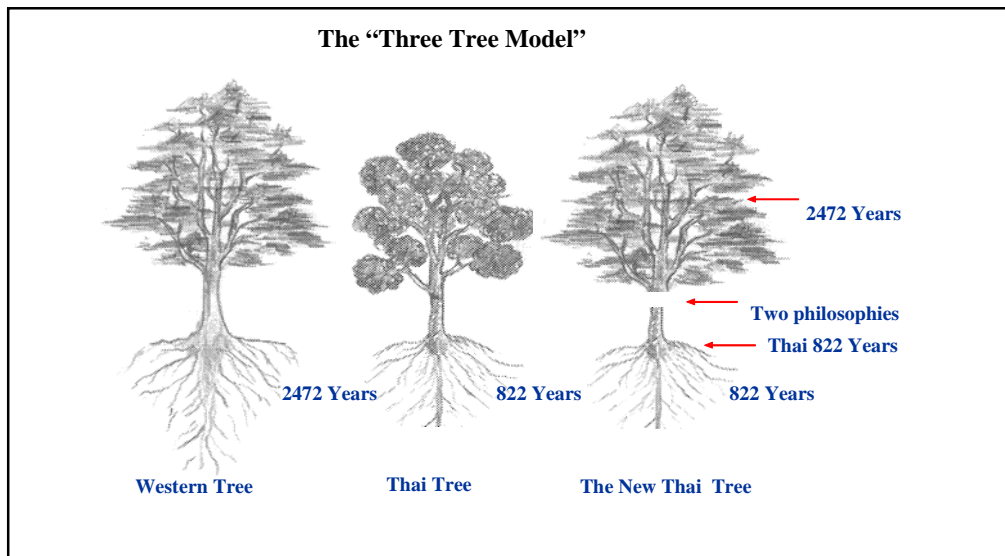
In Figure 7.1, the Western Tree first depicts Western philosophy (Tarnas, 1991) or culture. It has developed from Socrates, 469 B.C in the Greek era and continues to grow steadily today. That is over a period of about 2472 years. The second tree, the Thai Tree, represents Thailand's Buddhist culture developed from Sukhothai era, now about 822 years (Thawornthansarn et al. 1996). The third tree is the New Thai Tree which began to grow from 1932 when Thailand changed its national administration system from absolute monarchy to a democratic system. This change illustrated a major application of Western philosophy into Thai Society on a radical and wholesale basis.

The influences of Western philosophy in Thai society further expanded from 1961 as Thailand started to develop itself from an agricultural to an industrialized country. The early national development plans stressed the adoption of Western culture into Thai society. These changes involved not only adopting the new culture but also giving up or minimizing the ancient Thai culture. Metaphorically, this meant the destroying of forests and burning of books (Payutto 1996). What had happened was like cutting the Thai tree and placing the branches of the Western tree over its stump. So it becomes a weird tree having a Thai stump and roots embedded deeply in

society with Western branches visible to the outside world. There is a gap between the stump and the branches.

The results of the application of Western culture to Thai society and organizations it was suggested (Joungtrakul 2002) can be either:

  7.2.1 in the case where both cultures are consistent, problems may not occur since such cultures are in line and are acceptable to both parties;

  7.2.2 in the case of explicit conflict between the two cultures, the alternatives may be sacrifice by either side or compromise by both parties in order to temporarily avoid the conflicts; and

  7.2.3 in the case where each side insists on maintaining their own culture, severe conflicts may occur.

Cultural conflict may occur at any time due to the different nature of cultures and the expression of Thai cultural values especially the practice of "face-saving", "criticism-avoidance", and "kreng-jai" values.

The application of Western culture to Thai society and organizations resulted in three systems within one organization. The first one is the Western and the second reflects Thai cultures. The third is the new integrated system which is acceptable to both parties. Figure 7.2 illustrates the three systems in one organization.

Figure 7.2: Three Systems in One Organization

A = Western System
B = Integrated System
C = Thai System
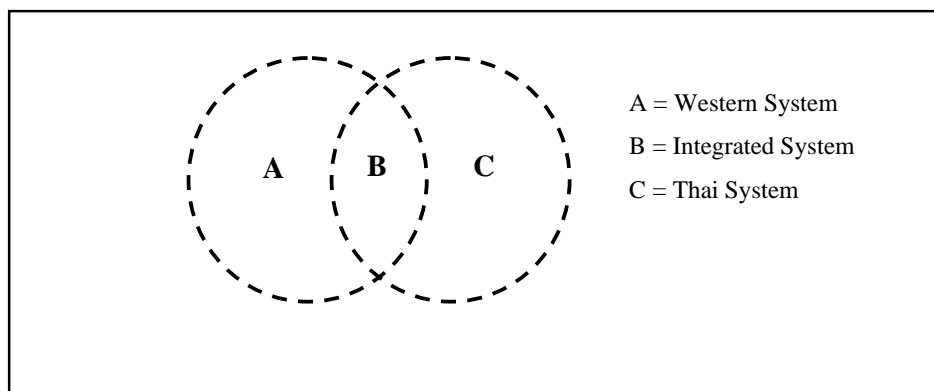
Source: Adapted from Joungtrakul 2002, p.69.

In fact, the third system, the integrated system, as in B above is a desirable system. It can occur in three major ways: first, by the two cultures being consistent with each other; secondly by disregarding one culture and practicing the other culture by mutual agreement; and finally by using industrial relations activities such as collective bargaining.

It was commonly thought for many years that the second and the third ways could be easily achieved. This view could only be held if the culture was first visible and recognizable, and secondly if it was superficial in nature. It was argued above that neither of these two conditions hold true. It is preferable to learn deeply about another culture, and rather than disregard it, appreciate it and embrace it. This is the case too with activities such as collective bargaining. Bargaining in a pleasant atmosphere and with a sincere will to be of service and see the other's point of view (such as is the Thai way) is more acceptable than to bargaining in an "I win - you lose" atmosphere of conflict and confrontation (such as in the Western way). These cultural ideas and methods of analysis can apply in practicing management within business organizations including the application and practice of industrial democracy.

If, in fact, as the data suggests, there is some discontent with the continuation of Western industrial relations arrangements in Thailand, the question to be asked is "Is now the time to reconsider the current arrangements?" Two contributions, one from government and one from the respondents, support the idea that the time is right. In *the Ninth National Economic and Social Development Plan*, there is a commitment to encourage employees to be self-sufficient. In the data, notwithstanding requests for training and development in some areas of industrial relations, employee and employer groups acknowledged that employee participation could be expanded. There is a strong impression of Thailand as a country in transition, especially in the area of industrial democracy. There is a sense of movement and this is coming largely, but not only, from the employee group. Employees are moving towards a sense of ownership, a sense of taking part and also a sense that they need more training and education in order to best take advantage of participative opportunities.

7.3   A Discussion of Specific Issues

The discussion of specific issues includes the following topics:

- 7.3.1   The nature and scope of industrial democracy;
- 7.3.2   legal issues in industrial democracy;
- 7.3.3   participation in shop floor work organization;
- 7.3.4   representative participation at plant level;
- 7.3.5   financial participation; and
- 7.3.6   disclosure of information.

7.4   The Nature and Scope of Industrial Democracy

Industrial democracy is an "umbrella term referring to the sharing of power in the workplace" (ILO 1996, p.12). It may be divided into two categories: representative or indirect; and direct forms of influence (ILO 1979). Participation and influence may be achieved through different levels ranging from employee representation at board level to the disclosure of information at the individual employee level. In Europe especially, almost every country has some type of legislation requiring companies to practice representative participation (Robbins 1998; Mayer & Schweisshelm 2000; Halbach et al. 1994).

In Thailand, industrial democracy practices have also been stipulated in labour protection and labour relations laws (Chandravithun & Vause 1994; Thongdee 2004). In this sense employment protection legislation has become embedded in the Thai system, sometimes mirroring Western systems However, many industrial democracy practices in Thailand involve direct employee participation without trade union involvement. Such ideas are also embodied in Western industrial relations practices. They take the form of either enterprise-based agreements or individual workplace agreements. An account of this transition in the Australian stevedoring (waterfront) industry is in Whiteley and McCabe (2001) and their study described the way that trade union influence was eroded by the employee-employer relationship which was, say the writers, made possible for the first time in history. Interestingly, the respondents in the waterfront study found, as did the Thai respondents, that there was a role for trade unions. A difference was found in how Thai respondents saw industrial democracy as a smaller-scale system of national democracy. One reason

for the difference could be that in the West, democracy is very well developed in political, social and legal infrastructures. The comment that "industrial democracy promotes national level democracy because if industrial democracy is strong, then national democracy will be strong" illustrates the linking of organizational and national democratic practices. Once again and right through this chapter, the point will be made that these notions are thought about by the Thai respondents as being 'Thai-style'.

Industrial democracy involves employee rights and duties. Several types of employee rights were identified. They included legal rights; the right to combine; the right to know; the right to demand; the right to vote; and the right to make suggestions. Employee freedom of expression also emerged and this included the expression of ideas and opinions. Freedom in communication, in particular, that employees should be free to communicate and speak out, were considered to be rights by Thai employees.

There are some different views amongst the stakeholder groups on the nature and scope of industrial democracy. It was commented on that the practice of industrial democracy in Thailand is not so good and there is a need for more development in this field. There is a need to have a clear framework so that employees can know how far they can participate. Limiting the scope of industrial democracy is essential, respondents said, as employees could not participate in everything. It was commented on that there is a need to establish a new industrial democracy framework in Thailand.

An interesting thought occurs here. In chapters one and two, in the Western system, the need for employee rights expressed both by the social reformers and the friendly societies/guilds were almost identical in terms of topic. The responses from Thai respondents, resonate with the very backbone of Western industrial relations. However, the 'how' of achieving these rights, according to the voice of almost all stakeholder groups, could not be more different. Harmonizing the 'what' with an acceptable Thai 'how' becomes an urgent area for the attention of the designers, implementers and recipients of future Thai industrial relations activities.

7.5 Legal Issues in Industrial Democracy

There is legal provision for employee participation in Thailand. Once again there is resonance with Western provision, for example the laws on co-determination in Germany (Halbach et al. 1994). In Thailand, employee participation is mainly prescribed in labour protection laws and labour relations law (Phipatanakul 1979; Chandravithun & Vause 1994; Thongdee 2004). Employee participation and co-determination is not the same thing. It seemed from the respondents that employees needed more education and training before they were ready to become part of some of the decision making processes, especially at Board of Director level.

It was found that stakeholders of the Thai industrial relations system in this research commented that the laws provided good guidelines for practicing employer and employee relationships. The intention of the law is to allow both parties to discuss various issues. Once this is in place, it is possible, through discussion to come up with acceptable solutions. Again, the Thai way of doing things needs to be entwined with legal directives. There is the letter of the law and the spirit of the law. There is also the cultural overlay on the way that laws are communicated to the community.

Some of the comments expressed suggested that the current laws were rather negative. It was expressed that there are a lot of loopholes in the law and both parties use the loopholes for their own advantage. The respondents are implying that as things stand, labour protection law works to create confrontation between employers and employees. This is against the Thai preference for conciliation and politeness. An interesting area to be considered perhaps is the social or societal consequences of law. Respondents, it seemed, did not always comply with the law. Two main reasons were given. One was that there was no provision for enforcement. Examples were given where employers supply paperwork to support non-existent compliance activities. These reported infringements may have been connected to other comments expressed by almost all stakeholder groups. It was commented that several laws enacted in Thailand were based on international standards and practices. The concept of industrial democracy was made law by government officials. At the organizational level there seemed to be problems of legal interpretation. Where, as seems to be the case in Thailand, there are difficulties in the interpretation and implementation of labour laws, there seems to be a pressing need for the legal profession to accompany

laws, including labour laws, with discourses that are familiar to the public they serve. The problem of discourse, particularly in Western literature, has recently been the focus of organizational theorists (Grant et al. 2004). Such theorists have much to offer in organizational theory and industrial relations and in particular regarding the managerial versus folkloric contrasts in discourse types (Gabriel 1997; Gabriel 1998). A strong signal coming from the data is that there may be mismatches in the communication styles used by officials, employers and employees.

7.6 Participation in Shopfloor Work Organization

Historically in the West, managers preserved their 'managerial prerogatives' (Casey 1995; Mathews 1989). These included hiring, firing, placement of workers, decisions about the combination of people and machines and, in particular, ownership of reward systems designs.

Integral to all of these prerogatives was employer decision making. There was no evidence from the data that these prerogatives had been seriously eroded. A decision making method that allowed employee participation in shop floor work organizations in this research refers to employee participation in making business decisions in various operational units within the establishment (DOL 1980). Participation at the shopfloor level in Thailand is mostly made through the vehicle of Quality Control Circles (QCC) (Kosiyanon 1987). This methodology was embraced by employees who seemed to value the method and managers who were prepared to resource it. One endemic aspect of such methods did not emerge in the data (and this could be due to the conversational nature of the interviews). It is the problem of what happens when the easiest and most pressing problems are solved. As the next level of problem is addressed it will logically be less visible and possibly require more resources whilst not seeing immediate results (Napoli, Whiteley & Johansen 2005). This problem is predictable and how it is dealt with will say much about where the power prerogatives lie in the Thai context.

Once again, prerogatives need to be set against competence. In some companies employees at the front line were given full authority to make decisions in teams. However, in other cases this did not happen and employees received orders and instructions from supervisors. It was commented that employee education levels

caused problems to both management and trade unions. It is not clear from the data whether these concerns were always accompanied by education and training provision so that dependence on supervisors could gradually be broken. Additionally, in a learning environment theorists say that (amongst other things) fear of consequences can block learning (Argyris 2004; Argyris 1999; Argyris 1994). The data showed clearly that this was the case in some Thai organizations. Employers did not allow employees to participate in decision making because they were afraid of the negative consequences from employee participation. If employees did not have enough knowledge and experience and made poor decisions problems would occur. Clearly, if this data are any indication, the Thai organizational environment is characterized by a performance/compliance paradigm rather than by a learning/cooperation one. There is a link here between the political and legal arrangements for employee participation and the managerial arrangements in organizations. It seems that at the time of reporting, there is an awareness of the desire for employees to take a larger role in their organizational lives but that this is not necessarily enabled by government, legal entities and employers. The description in chapters one and two of the empowerment movement in the West is relevant here. Organizational writers advocate empowering individuals and teams (Lewin & Regine 1999) and yet, it seems, not all organizations are willing to redistribute power. There were some encouraging examples from the data as respondents endorsed joint consultation and even gain-sharing strategies undertaken in some organizations. A particular target for problems in educating and training employees was in the small-medium sized organization and as this was an outcome rather than an input to the focal points of the study it remains to signal this area for special attention in a future study.

7.7 Representative Participation at Plant Level

Committees are a particularly Western construct. They are a microcosm of the collective voice and they often (not always) carry with them a mandate for action. In this study the notion of representativeness was addressed in the data. In the Thai context, respondents talked about employee participation in making business decisions including by committee. This would include joint consultation and co-determination forms of participation. Joint consultation can be classified into three inter-related types: consultation to assist government or public agencies; consultation

between trade unions and employers; and consultation between management and employees in individual establishment. This resonates with the British system as described in chapter two (Flanders 1968). Historically, in the West, trade union representation was not necessarily a part of the Joint consultation process (Whiteley & McCabe 2001). The authors reported that under the development of the enterprise-based agreement-type employment law, representation may or may not include a trade union on committees established in the company. As discussed earlier, the next (and some would say rare – at least in practice) step from representation is co-determination. This is the design of schemes whereby employees and management may jointly make decisions in organizations. The major forms of co-determination reported by Lashley (Lashley 2001) such as Works Councils and employee directors seemed, according to the data to be a long way off in the minds of employees.

However joint consultation is practiced in Thailand through three types of committees. First the Joint Consultation Committee (JCC) could be established as an employer's own initiative (Siengthai 1988; Phipatanakul 1979). The voluntary employee committee can be established under the provisions of Labour Relations Act of B.E. 2518 (1975) (Phipatanakul 1979). Compulsory welfare committees and safety committees were established under the provisions of labour protection laws (Thongdee 2004). These committees are consultative bodies and the parties only need to consult with each other. Although as argued earlier, many Thai industrial democracy arrangements mirror Western ones and the difference is one of degree. For example, works councils as practiced in Germany or other European countries are stronger and more powerful and reflect the confrontational value even when it is embedded within a consultative framework.

When making sense of the data it is easy to imbue structures with meanings that were transported from another culture. For example in Thailand there were many committee structures. They included welfare committees, safety committees, employee committees, joint consultation committees, suggestion committees, recreation committees, sports committees, canteen committees, transport committees, inspection committees and drug prevention committees. It is clear from the data that at the present time in Thailand some of the committees are name-holders only. This is exciting in terms of Thai development because in spite of some of the problems

described in chapters five and six, the committee device is not so entrenched in Western ways as to resemble an orthodoxy (Morgan 1997). Once any methodology attains orthodoxy, its basic tenets cease to be questioned. It becomes what postmodernist writers (Berquist 1993; Chia 2003; Cooper 1997) call a 'grand-narrative'. This narrative is so embedded in the language and practices of a group that they cease to hold them up to interrogation. Although this study was broad and not wide, it did target a range of key players in the industrial democracy domain. The signals (and this could be confirmed by a larger qualitative study) were that there was still opportunity to imbue the concepts of committees and their various types with the cultural preferences dictated by Thai cultural norms (Mulder 1999).

A focal committee and one that reflects the concern with societal welfare that is a strong government focus, is the welfare committee in organizations. It is prescribed by law and the members of the committee must be elected by all employees in the company. This was seen by respondents as fulfilling its intent which is to be a channel for employee participation in the company. The committee aimed to bring more welfare to employees in terms of current as well as new practices. The committee meeting mainly discusses employee welfare while other company matters can also be discussed. It was commented that in some companies, employee welfare was improved after the election of the welfare committee. In some companies the employee committee takes the responsibility for welfare and it is not clear whether this helps or dilutes the welfare committee function. This finding is reminiscent of the early days of personnel management in the Western setting (Legge 1978; Legge 1988). Welfare in the sense of supporting widows and sick employees was an early feature of personnel management. Barley and Kunda (Barley & Kunda 1992) describe the response to inhuman practices at the turn of the twentieth century as industrial betterment which "administered an employment service for welfare secretaries". Barley and Kunda (1992 p.366) relate industrial betterment rhetoric to the prevailing Christian norms of moral duty (to be responsible for the well-being of wage-earners), moulding workers' characters to be more frugal and diligent and finally, to keep workers healthy enough to help make profits. Note that the driver for industrial betterment and welfare of workers was, as indeed was collective bargaining, a response to poor treatment of workers. In the Thai system the role and notion of welfare is different in nature. Intrinsic to Thai culture, discussed later, is the

notion of helping each other, being kind and, in other words, looking out for each other's welfare. Unlike the later evolution of human resource management in the West, which does not now talk so much about employee welfare (Shafer et al. 2001; Power & Sohal 2000; Bamberger & Mashoulam 2001), there is the opportunity, in the light of respondent data to use welfare as an integrating force to enable employee participation within an industrial democracy framework.

Safety and health at work is a concern also and this is reflected in the committee structure that is compulsory by law. Health and Safety at Work legislation has been at the forefront of legislation in developed countries for the last thirty years. In England, legislative control was passed on Health and Safety at Work, HASAW (Clegg 1992). This has been mirrored in almost every developed country (Guest 1987; Phelps Brown 1959; Lansbury 1996). In the English case, the legal act was accompanied by the introduction of a factory inspectorate (Phelps Brown 1959; Guest 1987). Such combination of law and inspection did not produce the safety results hoped for. Subsequently, it was recognised that the way to reform lay in instilling in the workforce a sense of responsibility for and value of the individual. Universally, a voluntarist approach has been taken, often organized by employees in conjunction with their own representatives and their employers. The nineteen nineties saw much more organizational interest reflecting the change from a punitive to an enabling approach (Gleeson, McPhee & Spatz 1990; Mansdorf 1998; Wehrmeyer 1998). Endemic in most of this literature is the need for employee, supervisory and management training

The data suggested that the door is open for this to happen in Thailand. At present, the (9th plan) focuses on "public participation in the development process" (NESDB, 2002, p.6) and promotion of participation by key stakeholders, especially local people, at the inception of development projects to reduce social conflicts (NESDB, 2002, p.16) and that is exactly the sentiment surrounding current approaches to safety and health at work. Currently, the vehicle is the committee structure and committees can be convened by either trade unions, employers or consultative committee members. It is a short step from the current situation in Thailand where committees can sometimes conduct safety audits to the self-organizing arrangements found in some countries.

The data showed some differing viewpoints on committees. Some thought that committees had no rights to make any decisions. Some reported that election to committees by all employees was there in theory but not in practice. Instead, paperwork was prepared for inspection but the events did not happen in reality. This resonates with the earlier comment about the health and safety at work inspectorates that accompanied the safety regulations in England. It may be the case that inspection is less effective than voluntarism. It seems equally likely according to the literature that inspection needs to happen as a first step. However, the respondents were critical of how inspections could result in dubious practices. By contrast, the joint consultation committee was favoured as it seemed more suitable for Thai organizations. A flexible informal atmosphere would be appropriate in accordance with some of the values described by Komin (1990). It would help people think about their own safety and, in keeping with 'ch uay lua kan', the safety of others.

7.8 Financial Participation

Financial participation in this research refers to employee involvement in financial programmes such as profit sharing or employee shareholding schemes, either as a result of employment agreements or on the initiative of the employer. Financial participation can take many forms such as profit sharing, pension schemes (Schuller 1993) and share ownership (Poole 1988). Employee share ownership (Piriyarangsan 1997) and provident funds (OSC 2005) are the two major methods of employee financial participation in Thailand. The principle seems to be the same as in the West and this may be a growth area for industrial democracy in Thailand.

It seems, like some of the industrial democracy issues discussed earlier, there is an evolutionary sense to financial participation. It was found that stakeholders of the Thai industrial relations system in this research commented that at present employees can become company shareholders and they become 'owners' of the company. In the case of public companies, employees can buy company shares on the stock market and in some companies a lot of employees buy company shares. In some cases, for example where the company was transformed into a public company, employees are allocated shares before they are open to the public. In some cases allocation of company shares is made to employees instead of using profit sharing.

Employees can participate in the form of provident funds where employees contribute their part into the fund along with the company. In some companies the sum in the provident fund is very large. In some companies an employee provident fund is required to allow the buying of company shares. Respondents commented that the provident fund is a very good saving programme for employees. Employees participate in managing the fund by electing their representatives to the fund committee.

Profit sharing is also practiced in Thailand in addition to share ownership and the provident fund. In some companies there is a profit sharing scheme for employees and it is reviewed and paid on a quarterly basis based on the company's quarterly performance. This profit sharing scheme is a programme provided in addition to discretionary rewards such as the employee bonus.

It was found that stakeholders of the Thai industrial relations system in this research commented that in some companies trade unions established employee credit union and trading cooperatives. In many cases the company supported the establishment and operation of employee credit unions. The company helps in deducting salary for repayment of the credit union loan. It was expressed that credit union was very successful in some companies.

There are some different views on employee financial participation expressed by stakeholders. It was expressed that there is, as yet, no employee financial participation and financial decision making. It was commented that employees are not allowed to participate in financial decision making such as bonus. It was commented that the employee share ownership concept is too advanced.

There are some concerns expressed by stakeholder groups related to employee participation in financial decision making. Although in some companies the bonus decision is made jointly between management and trade unions it was also stated that in some companies, employees are not allowed to participate in financial decision making. The policy related to financial decision making is directed from the top management of the company. Trade unions can bargain on the amount to be paid but not the criterion or the method or policy of payment.

This part of the picture is very like other elements of industrial democracy described and discussed earlier. The ideas are in place. They are understood to varying degrees by the workforce. Overall, there is a positive feeling about financial representation and the methods, such as those described above are in line with best practice in developed countries. The need for employees to be educated such that they understand and can take advantage of the opportunities may be acting as a brake on the development of financial participation.

7.9 Disclosure of Information

Disclosure of information in this research refers to communication to employees of company information in the form of social accounting methods and regular reporting on various matters such as safety, health and welfare conditions. These can be either as a result of employment conditions agreements or on the initiative of employers. Disclosure of information can be either voluntary or compulsory. Voluntary disclosure is made by the company's own initiative, for example information provided by the company to employees either verbally or in writing such as briefing and newsletters including the company annual report (Lashley 2001). Disclosure has been made compulsory by law in many European countries for over twenty years (DOL 1980). It can also be determined by collective bargaining and become part of collective agreements (Ochiai 1987). Social accounting methods and regular reporting systems can also be used (DOL 1980). The infrastructure on disclosure of information is perhaps not so well pronounced in Thailand as in other developed countries, however, the picture was quite healthy according to the openness perceived by respondents.

It was found that stakeholders commented that disclosure in some companies is very open and all figures are open to employees and trade unions. Employees can have access to all company information. The company balance sheet is also provided to trade unions and disclosed to all employees. Items of disclosure include profit and loss, profit per share, sales, production plan, execution plan, cost information, quality information, company performance and etc.

In some companies all information is disclosed except employee wages and salary. In some cases only salaried employees are informed of the company's quarterly

performance and profit and loss accounts. In some companies, profit and loss is disclosed to managers and upper levels while in some companies it was disclosed to the supervisory level and upward.

The means of information disclosure included meetings, bulleting boards, websites and intranet. In some companies there is an information sharing workshop conducted for employees to share information to and from employees.

There are some different viewpoints on the disclosure of information. It was expressed that there is no information disclosure to employees. It was commented that business information is confidential and all information was kept confidential especially financial information. It was commented that employers are not willing to disclose information and employers feel that there is no purpose in disclosing information to employees. They fear that if information is disclosed to employees it may leak to competitors.

It was expressed that information disclosure is now in a good trend, as many companies voluntarily disclose their information to employees and members of the public. At the same time, employees can obtain information which is classified as public documents from related government agencies.

7.10 Theory and Best Practice
The following discussion on theory and best practice is presented in:

    7.10.1 The application of Western theory to the Thai industrial relations system;

    7.10.2 The impact of the Thai culture on the implementation of Western theory in the Thai industrial relations system;

    7.10.3 Theory of best practice in industrial democracy; and

    7.10.4 Stakeholders' views on best practice in industrial democracy.

7.11 The Application of Western Theory to the Thai Industrial Relations System
Western management theories have been applied in Thailand both in public and private sectors (Laosirirat & Narksaward 2001; OPDC 1999). Management education and training in Thailand is also based on Western theories and practices

(TMA 2002; PMAT 2002). The concept of industrial democracy was brought into Thailand by concerned government officials. The government officials were keen to translate Western concepts into law enactment. Their idea was informed by Western management theories and international standards and practices. The conventions and recommendations of the International Labour Organization (ILO) and the practices of international and multinational companies operating in Thailand were influential in shaping Officials' views. For example, the concept of collective bargaining and the advent of the employee committee structure were included in the Labour Relations Act of B.E. 2718 (1975). The concept of the welfare committee was included in the Labour Protection Act of 2541 (1998). It was commented by Chandravithun & Vause (1994) that "In some respects, the Thai Labor Relations Act resembles the United States National Labor Relations Act, which was initially promulgated by the Wagner Act of 1935"(Chandravithun & Vause 1994, p.20).

It is important to consider the contrasting cultural bases of Western and Thai industrial relations. The same devices and arrangements would have different meaning as they were applied in their local cultural settings. For example, Hofstede (1984) characterized key cultural dimensions that were to be found across the cultural spectrum. One such dimension was power distance where those who had less power accepted that those who had more should have more. In this case it would be high power distance. Conversely, those who expected a somewhat equal power with others would fall into the lower power distance category. He found that all forms of industrial democracy are more naturally applicable to smaller power distance cultures than larger power distance cultures. His findings indicated that Thailand is a rather high power distance country (Hofstede 1984). This would have some implications for the implementation of industrial democracy (Hofstede 1980) as it was practiced in the West. It seems logical to assume that if democracy were to be embraced in Thailand then the American or Western theories it came from should be adapted to the local Thai culture (Hofstede 1980; Kreitner 1998). Imposing Western values in Western ways would probably not be sustainable. (Komin 1990) asserts that in Thailand an "impersonal, dry-and-cut type of system oriented management style is not as effective as the benevolent paternalistic leadership style" (Komin 1990, p.257) and that some Thai educational institutions which have introduced the one-man-one vote system, have proved to have done more harm than good to

organizational growth (Komin 1990, p.258). She further asserts that management theories from abroad cannot be implemented wholesale and that "culturally 'unfitted' management theories are of limited use and might do more harm than good" (Komin 1990, p.262).

The application of Western management theories are often made wholesale without adaptation or made partially on a piecemeal basis (Joungtrakul 2002). In Thailand, they have mostly been tried in an incomplete cycle of management process. Sensible stages would be, in this order, planning, coordinating, implementing, followup and evaluation. In many organizations the application of Western theory has not been done as a complete change management process. This would entail changes in structure, process, and values which would lead to a change in the behaviour of people. Suttawet (1994) argues the symbolic use of language in the field of labour and industrial relations in Thailand clashes symbolically with Thai tradition and values. For example "Kho riek rong" which refers to the issue of demands collectively made by a group of employees or a trade union to management. He asserts that it is a strong word (Suttawet 1994) as it means that one makes a demand for what he wants instead of making a request from the other party.

In his research on "Industrial Relations Practices and Strategies: A Theoretical Construction for Thailand", Suttawet (1994) proposed four alternatives for reforming the industrial relations system in Thailand. The first alternative is to strengthen tripartite organization which establishes the standard practices of industrial relations at the national and provincial levels. The second alternative is to have industrial relations practices at the industrial and area levels to support the practices of the national and factory levels. The third alternative is to stress the importance of the restructuring of all levels of consultation. The final alternative is to promote collective bargaining in enterprises and production areas (Suttawet 1994; Suttawet 1996). However, he argues that Thailand has lost it own industrial relations identity because foreign concepts especially Western concepts are copied and applied in a wholesale manner (Suttawet 1996). He further argues that it is essential for Thailand to reform the current Thai industrial relations system based on Thai intellectual thought to become an appropriate Thai industrial relations model (Suttawet 1996).

He later proposed the ten principles for the reformation of the Thai industrial relations system (Suttawet 2002b). He proposed that Thai industrial philosophy is needed; Thai industrial relations theories are needed; missions and goals to achieve the form of industrial relations are required; the Thai industrial relations model needs to be developed; holistic approach must be used; sustainable industrial relations institutions of all levels must be achieved; constructive management of industrial relations corresponding to the international labour standards of the International Labour Organization (ILO) is needed; change in traditions of the existing industrial relations and the creation of a new industrial relations culture is a must; development of laws to correspond with the reform of industrial relations; key performance indicators of industrial relations management are to be developed (Suttawet 2002b).

The data from this study supports parts of the model by Suttawet (2002b). These are, for example, the need for flexibility and employee participation through the meeting structure. Where the data did not support Suttawet was in areas such as strengthening collective bargaining, the need for an impartial and intermediary role (such as that which could be provided by personnel management departments). Respondents, however, were clear that they preferred face-to-face interactions, informality and a friendly environment.

A second critical comment is that Suttawet (1996, 2002b) accepts the standards of the International Labour Organization (ILO) as being of use to Thai industrial relations. It is not suggested that the ILO is not an excellent source of industrial relations information and guidelines. However, it is based on generations of Western theory and experimentation and these qualities cannot be transferred to countries such as Thailand.

It was found that stakeholders of the Thai industrial relations system in this research commented that the industrial democracy system brought in from abroad could not be applied wholesale no matter whether it was an Asian or a Western system. Any political system can not sensibly be divorced from its cultural setting. Culture is the one thing that is not transportable to another setting. Particularly with a concept such as industrial democracy, one must take into account the cultural differences of the people involved. Where necessary, adaptations, sometimes major, should be made to

local culture. It was recommended that culture should be integrated into the industrial relations system and the system should respond to and not go against the feeling of the Thais. Industrial democracy in its best form should respond to the needs of Thai people even if this means adjusting international standards. This way the system would be 'Thai industrial democracy'. This should be flexible and take into account the informal ways and adjust to the Thai ways of life.

7.12 The Impact of the Thai Culture on the Implementation of Western Theory in the Thai Industrial Relations System

Culture has been recognized as one of the most important factors affecting the management of organization especially the management of the international business (Alkhafaji 1995; Ferraro 1998). Managing business in Thailand is no exception. Thai culture is greatly different from other cultures in many ways, especially Western culture. Thai culture has been greatly influenced by Buddhism (Sengpracha 2001) and it is sometime knows as "Thai-Buddhism culture" (Dhiravegin 1998, p.13). The middle path is the Thai way of life and the Thais are compromising in nature and try to avoid any explicit confrontation. The concepts of "face-saving", "criticism-avoidance", and "kreng jai" are very important to the Thais and made Thai culture greatly different from other cultures (Komin 1990). "Bunkhun" is another major concept that distinguishes the Thai culture from others and it has strong impact on the relationship between Thai employers and employees (Piriyarangsan 1989).

In contrast Western culture emphasizes winning and losing is explicit rather than implicit. One example of the contrast between the Thai and the Western cultures is that while Western people choose to fight to win or lose, the Thai people choose to compromise in most of their activities. The other example is that Thais are (or used to be) content with having just enough to live on while in the Western countries to be successful means to possess the extras beyond necessities (Srinawk 2001).

Several characteristics of the Thai culture were identified by the stakeholder groups. Thai have their own traditions and customs that tie them to families. They are close to family and are kind to each other. Thais like to treat each other as brothers and sisters. They talk to each other in a nice way. This is to maintain good relationships. Thai have a helping mind and are willing to help others. Thais will help each other.

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They are sympathetic to each other. They do not like taking advantage of others. They normally do not want to express themselves especially when they feel insecure. When faced with problems they will keep quite to themselves and not say too much. Thais obey and accept the power of superiors and put their trust in senior persons.

This is especially so if that person has "Baramee" or prestige (Sethaputra 2004, p.229) - proof is not needed as to whether the prestige (Sethaputra 2004, p.229) is real or not. They hold "Bunkhun" or favour as very important and they will try to find ways to pay back at all costs.

It was found that stakeholders of the Thai industrial relations system in this research commented that the Thai society is not a totally eastern society and it is different from other societies, especially Western society. It was commented that Thais are sympathetic to each other and foreign management does not express such sympathy to employees. In the Western culture, money is a major factor and typically, when higher salaries are offered elsewhere, employees will leave the company. In contrast, Thais like to hold on to their jobs; they do not like to change jobs often. As long as people are happy they will stay working in a company even though they may receive a lower salary than if working in other places. As mentioned by some stakeholders of the Thai industrial relations systems, they are not working for money alone but they are concerned with home and hearth. It is recognized in this discussion chapter that the 'face' of Thai culture may well be changing. There may be more consumerism and a more materialistic concept of life than the one described here. This did not emerge in the data but it is an issue which future researchers would need to take into account.

To support the idea presented earlier, the findings supported the idea that there were examples of some Western ideas being tried out and found to be unsuitable. In some companies a study was conducted before implementing some of the Western management concepts and it was found that they were not suitable for implementation. It was commented on that some companies using an imported system failed in their operations while the companies that used the Thai system were more successful. In some companies, Buddhist philosophy and principles were applied and they were successful. It was expressed that one of the key success

factors of the company is the application of Thai culture and it was mentioned that the strong points of the Thai culture should be used in designing and implementing industrial democracy in Thailand.

7.13 Theory of Best Practice in Industrial Democracy

One objective of this research was to emerge data to inform what might become best practice in industrial democracy as expressed by the stakeholders. Suttawet (2002a) in his research entitled "In search of excellence for Thai Industrial Relations Management Models: A Study of the Best Practices of Industrial Relations" found that ten industrial relations characteristics are shared in common, as a model of practices, by the selected firms and company trade union in Thailand.

These characteristics include; a high recognition of trade unions by the top management of the companies and their effects on lower hierarchical levels; institutionalization of co-existing and co-contributing collective bargaining and consultation schemes; the participation between trade union and management in forms such as joint committees, regular meeting - rather than occasional meetings of workers' representatives, or trade union and management - and the strong opportunities for trade union representatives to participate in decision-making activities; sustainable interaction between trade union and management, and its contribution to the success of the company and the quality of the work lives of the employees; the trade union's positive response in helping management to solve the firms' problems and in encouraging members to devote their energies to the companies' vitality; more flexible industrial relations practices in smaller companies than bigger companies; favouring of both trade union and management in having a flexible relationship based on non-restrictive legal or regulatory boundaries; various methods of communicating between employer, worker and trade union; creation of more constructive relationships of both sides by the referring to the vitality of the company and trade union; and, by embedding the success of the industrial relations practices within the firm for wider social roles of the company and the trade union outside the firm (Suttawet 2002a).

In addition, he found that, particular characteristics of industrial relation practices of some firms also support their excellent industrial relation practices (Suttawet 2002a).

These include: an impartial, but intermediate, role played by the personnel department in coordination between management and the trade union; the extraordinary role of trade union in anti-corruption activities within the firm and the acceptance of the role of the top management in these efforts; and the supplementary function of consultation schemes to the fulfilment of collective bargaining agreement both before and after the collective bargaining process (Suttawet 2002a).

It was found in this research that no best practice of all five forms of industrial democracy studied in this research in any one organization is emerged by stakeholders of the Thai industrial relations system. However, there are some expressions of the best practice of some particular forms of participation such as communication, disclosure of information, and employee representative group. It was commented that there is a need to have Thai industrial democracy and that Thai cultures are integrated in the Thai industrial democracy model.

7.14 Stakeholders' Views on Best Practice in Industrial Democracy

In order to respond to the demand for Thai industrial democracy expressed by stakeholder groups in this research, nine characteristics enhancing the best practice of industrial democracy emerged in this research have been identified. A brief description of them follows.

7.14.1 Constructive employer and employee or trade union relationships

Both formal and informal relationships between employer and employee or trade union are to be used. A formal relationship is used in official work relations and is supported by informal and flexible relationships both on the job and off the job. Both parties will treat each other as a friend and not an enemy.

7.14.2 Determination of forms and process of participation

Forms of participation and rules and regulations prescribing the process of participation are to be determined jointly by employer and employee or trade union. In a unionized company either or both consultation and collective bargaining between the employer and trade union will be used in order to come up with the agreed form and process of participation. In a non-unionized company, consultation with employee representatives through joint consultation committees or other types

of equivalent committee will be used in order to maintain a cooperative atmosphere and relationship.

7.14.3 Forms and practices of participation

Practice of participation will begin from informal and flexible forms and gradually develop to formal forms of participation. Progression can be made gradually from information, communication, consultation, co-determination to the highest level of control.

7.14.4 Upholding common goal and sharing both success and failure

Both parties are to uphold the agreed objectives as common goals and jointly strive for the achievement of such goals. Both parties are to share both success and failure with good understanding and sympathy.

7.14.5 Implementation and change management

Implementation of the results of participation will be handled as change management. It will be done in a comprehensive and complete cycle manner. Jointly management and employee or trade union will engage in the planning, implementing and evaluating of the change to be made. Change will be made comprehensively in all components of structures, process, and values leading to the behaviour of people.

7.14.6 Proactive and promotional government roles

Government will play proactive promotional and change agent roles. Various proactive measures and activities will be used by government agencies such as education and training, constructive inspection and consultation. Traditional roles of regulation and control will be minimized. They will be used in exceptional cases where conflicts or disputes would create a strong negative impact on public interests and order.

7.14.7 Thai culture and Buddhist philosophy and principles

Thai culture and Buddhist philosophy and principles will be the base of the total system. They will be taken into account and integrated into all components of the formulation and practice of industrial democracy.

7.14.8 Loosely framed laws as a frame of reference

Taking into account the nature of the Thai culture and the Thai people, Thais prefer informality and flexibility and they do not like being forced. The Thai model should respond to cultural needs. The laws should be loosely structured to make room for flexibility and the use of bipartite negotiation and bargaining. The laws should be used as a frame of reference in negotiation and bargaining instead of being hard and fast rules.

7.14.9 Learning and practicing together continually

To create a good relationship between the two parties the model should allow both parties to continually learn and practice industrial democracy together. Facing problems together and learning how to resolve the problems would create sympathy towards each other and enhance sound relationships.

7.15 A Proposed Model for Industrial Democracy in Thailand

Based upon the theory and the findings of best practice in Thailand summarised above and the common characteristics which enhance industrial democracy discussed above, an integration of these nine common characteristics was made. These are modelled in Figure 7.3 and Figure 7.4. below:

Figure 7.3: Foundations for the Thai Industrial Democracy Model
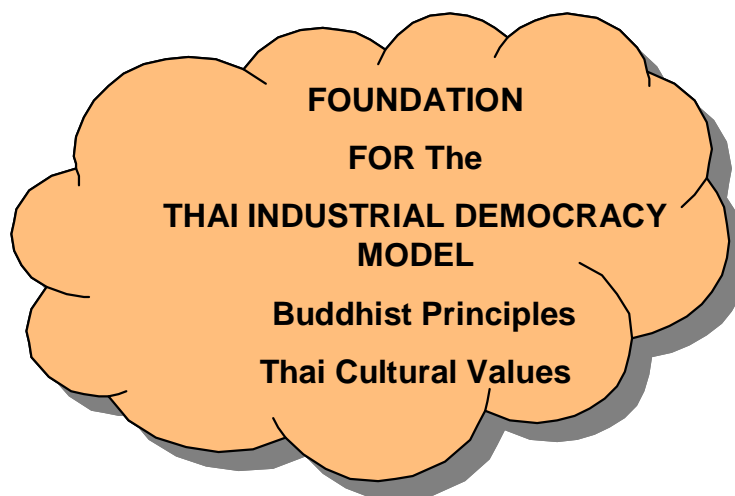
Figure 7.3 presents the Buddhist principles and Thai cultural values as essential foundations of the Thai industrial democracy model.

Figure 7.4: The model of best practice of Thai industrial democracy
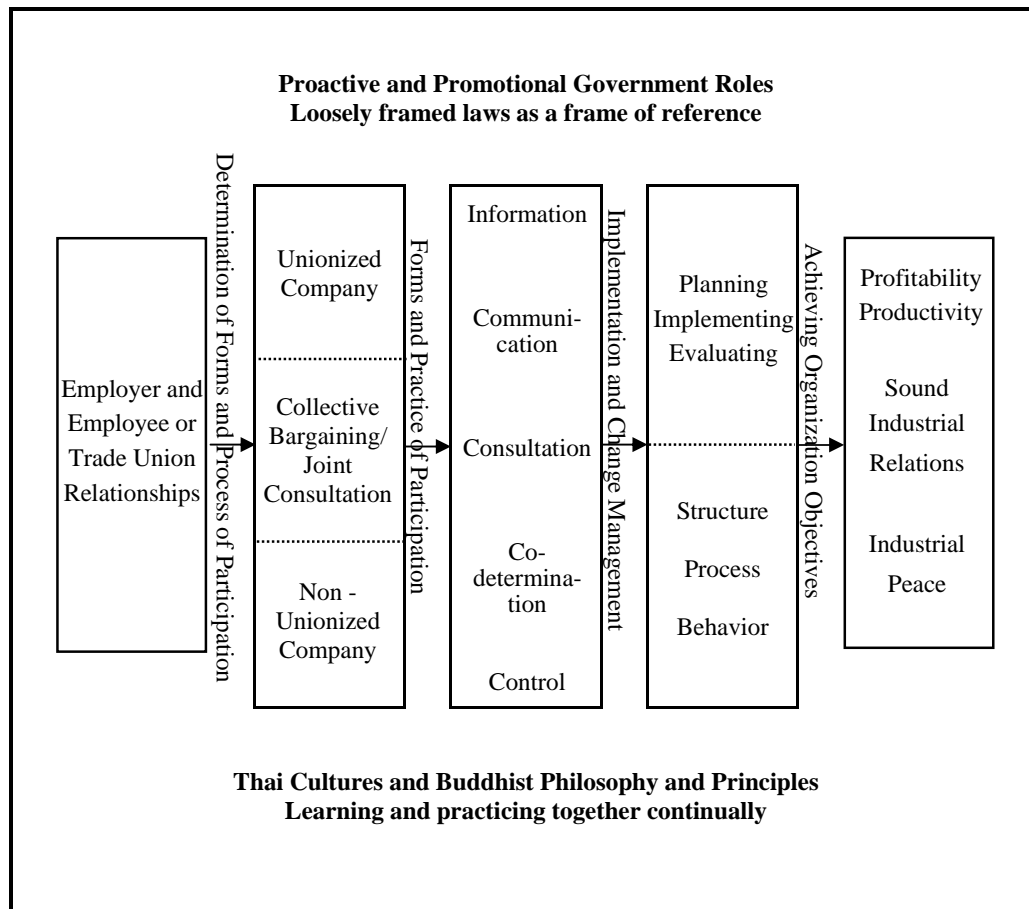
Figure 7.4 presents the model of best practice for Thai industrial democracy. This is considered a tentative model.

The model is based on the findings from the ten stakeholder groups in relation to the five forms of industrial democracy studied in this research: Employee Representation at Board Level; Representative Participation at Plant Level; Participation in Shop Floor Work Organizations; Financial Participation; and Disclosure of Information. However, in response to the voice of the respondents with regard to the best practice of Thai industrial democracy and to reflect the progressive level of participation, the forms of participation in the model have been modified. The modified forms are information; communication; consultation; co-determination; and control as presented in the model.

As presented in Figure 7.4 employer and employee or trade union relationships under this model is to be supported by: proactive and promotional government roles; loosely framed laws as a frame of reference; Thai culture and Buddhist Philosophy and Principles; learning and practicing together continually. Both parties will jointly determine the forms and process of participation. Collective bargaining and or joint consultation will be used for determining the forms and process of participation. This is applicable to either unionized or non-unionized company. The forms of participation to be jointly determined by both parties include: information; communication; consultation; co-determination; and or control. Once an agreement has been reached on the forms of participation, an implementation plan will be jointly developed. The implementation plan will focus on change management which will take into account the changes of structure, process and behavior required. Having put the model into practice it is anticipated that it will result in achieving the organizational objective of profitability, productivity, sound industrial relations and lead to industrial peace.

To support this model of best practice of Thai industrial democracy, the discussion which follows is presented in two parts:

> 7.15.1 Buddhist Philosophy and Principles Integrated in the Thai Industrial Democracy and
>
> 7.15.2 Thai culture integrated into Thai industrial democracy.

7.16 Buddhist Philosophy and Principles Integrated in the Thai Industrial Democracy

Underlying the model in Figure 7.4 above, are eight selected Buddhist principles which are considered to be appropriate for applying in each component of Thai industrial democracy. These are:

7.16.1 The six directions

The guidelines for relationship between employer and employees as prescribed in the fifth direction of the Buddha's six directions should apply in Thai industrial democracy. They can be used as guidelines for an industrial relations system. According to the fifth direction, "a good employer ministers to her servants and

employees in five ways: by assigning work they can manage; by giving them food and money; by supporting them in sickness; by sharing special delicacies; and by granting them leave when appropriate"(Metcalf & Hateley 2001, p.101). At the same time the fifth direction prescribed that "a good employee will serve her employer in five ways: by getting up and starting work before her; by stopping after her; by taking from her employer only what is given; by striving to do her work well; and by upholding her employer's name"(Metcalf & Hateley 2001, p.10).

7.16.2 The divine abiding

Supplementing the guidelines provided in the six directions both parties are to treat each other with the practice of the Buddha's divine abiding. This is the four mental attributes of a being who is sublime and they are: loving kindness; compassion; appreciative gladness; and equanimity (Payutto 1999).

7.16.3 The principles for helpful integration

The Buddha's four principles for helpful integration or qualities that bind people in unity are also to be practiced by both parties. They are: giving; amicable speech; helpful action; and participation (Payutto 1999). Both parties "are to help through contribution of money, material things, or knowledge; to help through speech; to help through physical action; and to help through participation in facing and resolving problems" (Payutto 1999, p.21).

7.16.4 The principles of success

To achieve common goals both parties are to practice the Buddha's four conditions that lead to the success of any undertaking. They are: having a hearth of zeal; doing with effort; committing oneself to the task; and using wise investigation (Payutto 1999). When applying to the real work situations "these four conditions may, in short, be remembered as love of work, tenacity, dedication, and circumspection" (Payutto 1999, p.36).

7.16.5 The ten regal qualities

When acting in the capacity of leader or manager the Buddha's ten regal qualities are to be practiced by the party involved. They are: sharing with the populace; maintaining good conduct; working selflessly; working honestly; deporting oneself

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with gentleness and congeniality; rejecting indulgence through austerity; adhering to reason, not anger; bringing tranquillity through non-violence; overcoming difficulties with patience; and not doing that which strays from righteousness (Payutto 1999).

7.16.6 The qualities of a good or genuine person

Buddha provides seven qualities which can apply to both parties in dealing with each other, performing their duties and conducting their lives. They are: knowing principles, knowing causes; knowing objectives, knowing results; knowing oneself; knowing moderation; knowing occasion; knowing company; and knowing persons (Payutto 1999).

7.16.7 The principles of collective responsibility

Buddha provides seven principles for collective responsibility which help to prevent decline and lead to prosperity and can apply to the formulation and practice of industrial democracy. They are: meeting often and regularly; meeting together, dispersing together, and doing together what is needed to be done together; neither instituting laws and regulations not communally agreed upon simply out of convenience or personal preference, nor denigrating or abolishing things already instituted, upholding the main provisions established as the constitution; honouring and respecting the elders long in experience, giving weight to their words; honouring and respecting the women-folk, protecting them from abuse and ill-treatment; honouring and revering the shrines, holy places and national monuments, which are memorials arousing virtue and centres of community spirit, not neglecting to honour the ceremonies required for those places as dictated by tradition; and organizing rightful protection, support and sanctuary to monks and priests who maintain examples for the people, gladly receiving them and wishing for their comfort (Payutto 1999).

7.16.8 The principles for conducting oneself as a good citizen

The seventeen principles for conducting oneself as a good citizen prescribed by Buddha can apply to both parties as a good corporate citizen. They are: not being promiscuous or preoccupied with sex; not selfishly taking all the tasty morsels for oneself; not wasting time arguing about worthless things; having good conduct and discipline, being established in the five precepts; performing one's duties regularly

and completely; not being heedless, but energetic at all times; being judicious, doing things with wisdom; being polite, not stubborn or arrogant, being open to the opinions of others; being modest, possessing a love of refinement, cleanliness and orderliness; having pleasant speech, being gentle in both deeds and thoughts; being kind and generous to one's friends; sharing with and helping people in general; managing one's duties efficiently and effectively; supporting the learned and virtuous monks; loving truth, esteeming virtue; having read and heard much, thoroughly knowing one's field; and possessing an inquiring mind, seeking ever more knowledge (Payutto 1999).

It should be noted that the Buddhist philosophies and principles are more than 2500 years old (Evans 1999; Metcalf & Hateley 2001) and some examples or metaphors used may not refect the current ever changing situations. However, the principles are still applicable. Some of them may need to be translated into a more modern context (Evans 1999; Metcalf & Hateley 2001) to suit business organization management practice. Some adaptations may be required to suit the current needs of the industrial democracy and industrial relations system.

7.17 Thai Culture Integrated in Thai Industrial Democracy

Underlying the model in Figure 7.4 above, seven selected Thai cultural dimensions are considered to be appropriate to apply to Thai industrial democracy.

These are:

7.17.1 The concept of helping each other

One of the most important concepts in the Thai culture is helping each other. The helping mind is instilled in Thai people and they help other without expecting any return or any compensation. At the same time the person who receives help will feel indebted to the helper and he will remember that and try to repay or return the favour at a later date. This concept will create sound relationships between parties in the industrial democracy context.

7.17.2 The concept of Bunkhun

This concept is the concept of gratitude or repaying of favour with favour (Komin 1990). It is instilled in the Thai people deeply and will be quite difficult to change.

For example some employers claim that to hire labour was to render 'Bunkhun' in the form of money income to employees (Piriyarangsan 1989). There are limitations in applying this concept as it may go beyond proper practice. However, to ignore or to delete it from a model would be difficult and may cause some problems in practice. The removal could do more harm than good. It would help in creating a sound and sustainable relationships and industrial democracy.

7.17.3 The concept of Kreng Jai

This concept is the concept of being "considerate". It is one of the most important and intriguing concepts (Holmes & Tangtongtavy 2000). It is one of the most complex values that is very difficult for foreigners to understand. Komin asserts that this concept underlies a significant portion of everyday interpersonal behavioural patterns of the Thais (Komin 1990). She further explains that:

> Its closest meaning is 'to be considerate, to feel reluctant to impose upon another person, to take another person's feelings (and 'ego') into account, or to take every measure not to cause discomfort or inconvenience for another person'. Kreng jai refers to such attitude predisposing to one's resulting behavior towards someone else. Kreng jai behavior is to be observed by all, superior, equals, and inferiors, including intimate relationships like husband-wife, and close friends, with differences in degree...(Komin 1990, pp.161-162).

Applying this concept will enhance the acceptance of each other by the negotiating parties. This concept is deeply instilled in the Thai people as they were taught that kreng jai is the qualification of a lady or gentleman (Malakul 1999; MOE 2001). However, similar situations could occur as described in the concept of 'Bunkhun' so proper application and administration is also required.

7.17.4 The concept of saving face

This concept is an expression of the top concern for "ego" (Komin 1990). Komin asserts that:

> Whenever there is any problem to be solved that would directly or indirectly involve persons, the first criterion to consider is saving the 'face'- - the 'ego' - - of the persons involved. The Thai would usually find indirect ways to soften a negative message. Most important is to avoid public confrontation, regardless of whether it involves an inferior, an

equal or worse still, a superior. To make a person lose 'face', regardless
of rank, is to be avoided at all cost (Komin 1990, p.160).

This concept is very important and cannot be avoided in the practice if the Thai model of industrial democracy were to be a success. It will create understanding and cooperation of the parties involved in industrial democracy.

7.17.5 The concept of criticism avoidance

This concept reflects that "the Thai are very 'ego' oriented, to the extent that it is very difficult for the Thai to dissociate one's idea and opinion from the 'ego' self. This is why strong criticism to the expressed idea is often automatically taken as criticism to the person holding those ideas" (Komin 1990, p.160). Applying this concept in industrial democracy would enhance the sound and sustainable relationships of the two parties in the system. The concept will help to prevent the explicit conflict and confrontation situations in the organization.

7.17.6 The concept of sympathy

Thais are sympathetic to others and it becomes the nature of the Thais in general. The application of this concept will create cooperative attitudes and collective efforts by the two parties to achieve the common goals.

7.17.7 The concept of compromising

Thais are compromising in nature and it is one of the strengths of Thai people. They practice this concept in their daily lives and the phase of 'meet half-way' is understandable by the Thais. Applying this concept will help both parties to avoid conflict and it will help enhance the relationships of the two parties and the system.

It should be noted that the concepts of Thai culture are mostly similar to Buddhist principles. They should be practiced together and should also be an integral part of the Thai industrial democracy system.

7.18 Implications for the Implementation of a Thai Industrial Democracy Model and Concluding Comments

As expressed by stakeholder groups in this research, an essentially Thai industrial democracy system is needed. The model proposed in this research can be used as a Thai model of industrial democracy. It is stressed here that this is just a beginning

and a way of capturing and expressing some of the comments and suggestions of the respondents. More important is the notion that the time has come to formulate a more culturally comfortable model of industrial democracy in Thailand.

This research was predicated on the idea that the industrial democracy arrangements in Thailand would benefit from a multi-voice study. Traditionally, research into this area is quantitative and is often focused on decision makers and power-holders such as government and trade unions/employers at the national level. The research confirmed the intuitive 'Three Trees Model' which was presented at the start of this chapter.

The question can now be asked, after exploratory interviews with ten stakeholding groups, as to whether it is beneficial to include the recipients of industrial democracy in a study? The conclusion was reached that this group of respondents may hold the key to the future transition of industrial relations in Thailand.

It was also concluded that the time appeared to be right for a transition. First employees seemed to have ideas and opinions about what they would prefer and feel most comfortable with in today's industrial context. Secondly they seem ready to take part in training and learning so as to become valuable participants in industrial relations in their organizations.

A third conclusion is that there may be an underestimation of the power of Thai culture and the consistent request to see it incorporated in systems such as industrial democracy.

7.19 Future Research Agenda

Based on the implications above, this research suggests further research needs to be undertaken to further enhance the current understandings of industrial democracy in Thailand. There are in six possible topics.

First, as this research was focused on the private business sector, an opportunity is opened for more research on industrial democracy practices in government, public enterprises, and non- profit organizations. At present the government sector is being

reformed with the objectives of improving efficiency and effectiveness of public services. Decentralization is a major theme and this creates opportunities for more delegation and empowerment of government officials. Public enterprises are being privatized and this also provides more opportunities for more delegation and empowerment of employees (Sorell & Hendry 1994; Joungtrakul 1987; Hongladarom 1983). At the same time non-profit organizations have emerged to play key roles in the country's economy, for example, as in the case of employee provident funds and employee credit unions. Studies conducted on industrial democracy in these organizations could enhance the current knowledge in this field.

Second, this research was focused on several types of companies in Thailand, so research conducted in a specific type of company would be more insightful. For example, a study of industrial democracy conducted in purely Thai owned companies, public companies, foreign companies, international, and multinational companies operating in Thailand is recommended.

Third, this research was conducted at a macro level collecting data from thirty respondents in ten stakeholder groups of the Thai industrial relations system. An in-depth case study of industrial democracy conducted deep down in a particular organization would enhance the current knowledge of industrial democracy in Thailand.

Fourth, this research was conducted by collecting data from thirty respondents in ten stakeholder groups of the Thai industrial relations system. The study concentrated on stakeholders in general. A comparative study of industrial democracy in various types of organizations would enhance the current knowledge of industrial democracy in Thailand.

Fifth, this research was focused on five particular forms of industrial democracy: employee representation at board level; representative participation at plant level; participation in shop floor work organizations; financial participation; and disclosure of information. A further in-depth study in each particular of these forms would enhance further knowledge of industrial democracy in Thailand.

And finally, aspects of industrial democracy have been practiced in Thailand for quite some time. For example collective bargaining and employee committees were parts of the Labour Relations Act of B.E. 2518 (1975) and welfare committees were part of the Labour Protection Act of B.E. 2541 (1998). These aspects of industrial democracy have been practised since then until now and research to evaluate the result of their implementation would benefit our knowledge of industrial democracy in action.

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Appendix A: Interview Guide (An English Translation)

1   Tell me what you think is the nature of industrial democracy in general?

     What would you include in the scope of industrial democracy in general?

2   Tell me about the benefits of industrial democracy?

     2.1   To employees

     2.2   To unions

     2.3   To company/organization

     2.4   To the country

3   In what forms is that industrial democracy being used in practice in Thailand
     nowadays?

     3.1   Participation in shop floor work organization

     3.2   Representative participation at plant level

     3.3   Disclosure of information

     3.4   Financial participation

     3.5   Employee representation at board level

     3.6   Others

4   What is the best practice of industrial democracy in Thailand?

5   What results are achieved in practicing industrial democracy?

6   What are the problems or obstacles in practicing industrial democracy? Do you
     have any suggestions to correct or overcome these problems or obstacles?

     6.1   Cultural problems: Western V.S. Thai cultures

     6.2   Legal problems

     6.3   Policy problems

     6.4   Practical problems

     6.5   Others

7   How would you feel about industrial democracy? What are the future directions of practicing industrial democracy in Thailand?

8   Do you have any other comments or suggestions that will be beneficial to this research project?

9   To whom should I talk to find out more about industrial democracy in Thailand?