

跨國資料分析： 理論、脈絡與方法

中研院人社中心
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比較研究

- 比較 x 社會研究
- 流行嗎? 社會學、政治學、區域研究常見，甚至是「傳統」
- 台灣為例的研究—很少研究是沒有參考點
- 問題是比較的意識有多強?
- **Implicit comparison**
- 台灣個案—寫作時的比較不明顯
- 例如: 中上階層子女，比較大的機率進頂大?
- 其他國家的中產階級複製
- 台灣不是例外? 當然不是

- 其他的例子:
- 低教育家長的嚴苛管教
- 都市居民比較接受移工
- 青年人更傾向台灣國家自主性(獨立)
- 女生更支持不婚的選擇
- 在這些分析中，如果讀者是台灣的同行，研究者通常不會刻意過度在意國外的情況
- 不一定是inward-looking

Explicit comparison

- 清楚的比較動機，進行跨國的觀察與分析
- 例如：
- 兩國比較
- 台灣vs日本
- 台灣vs美國
- 台灣vs加拿大
- 三國或更多
- 台灣vs日本vs韓國vs中國

- 求同: 期望相同的 $x \rightarrow y$ 的關係
- 台灣與日本相似; 台灣與美國相似
- 求異: 期望相異的 $x \rightarrow y$ 的關係
- 台灣與日本不同; 台灣與美國不同

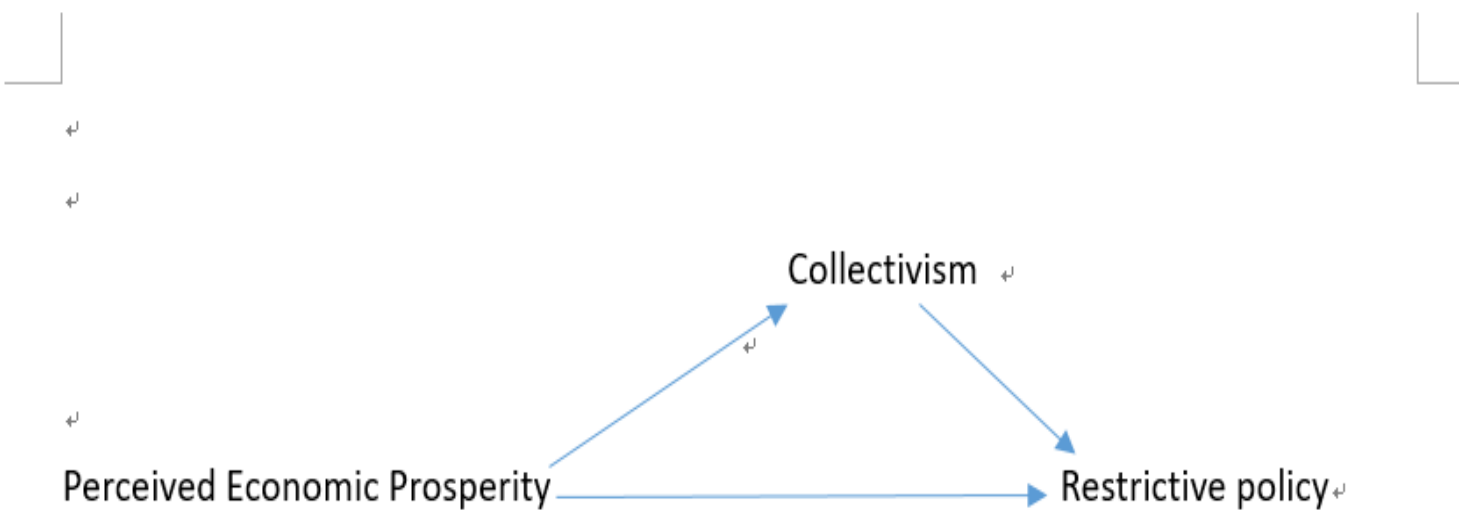


Table 1: Collectivism and Trust in China and Vietnam

	Collectivism		Trust in Government	
	China	Vietnam	China	Vietnam
Age	.005*** (.001)	-.000 (.001)	.007*** (.001)	-.001 (.002)
Gender (0=Female)	.004 (.020)	.064 (.034)	-.043 (.026)	.043 (.040)
Educational Year	-.000 (.003)	-.003 (.006)	-.011*** (.003)	-.012 (.007)
Employment (0=Unemployed)	.040 (.024)	-.042 (.040)	.050 (.031)	-.009 (.047)
Household Income (0=Low Level)				
Middle level	-.073* (.030)	.046 (.054)	-.072 (.039)	-.109 (.062)
High level	-.145*** (.032)	-.034 (.047)	-.131** (.042)	-.114* (.055)
Global Exposure	.013 (.009)	.025 (.015)	-.038** (.012)	.079*** (.017)
Perceived Economic Prosperity	.195*** (.016)	.079* (.033)	.151*** (.021)	.159*** (.038)
Constant	1.034*** (.068)	2.275*** (.156)	.807*** (.088)	1.869*** (.181)
Observations	2640	895	2640	895
Adjusted R-squared	.091	.008	.074	.045

Note: standard errors in parentheses, *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Table 2: Import Restrictivism in China and Vietnam

	Foreign good hurts		Limit foreign imports	
	China	Vietnam	China	Vietnam
Age	.023*** (.003)	-.002 (.005)	.024*** (.003)	.003 (.005)
Gender (0=Female)	-.307*** (.082)	-.260 (.134)	-.156 (.081)	-.036 (.132)
Educational Year	-.023* (.011)	-.101*** (.023)	-.044*** (.010)	-.082*** (.022)
Employment (0=Unemployed)	.013 (.098)	.096 (.158)	.195* (.096)	.239 (.155)
Household Income (0=Low Level)				
Middle level	-.137 (.123)	.257 (.216)	-.158 (.121)	.228 (.211)
High level	-.214 (.133)	.043 (.194)	-.208 (.131)	-.034 (.187)
Global Exposure	-.124*** (.037)	.189** (.059)	-.085* (.036)	.131* (.058)
Perceived the Country's Economy	-.183** (.068)	.333** (.129)	-.114 (.067)	.189 (.128)
Collectivism	.300*** (.086)	.322* (.129)	.308*** (.083)	.178 (.127)
Trust in Government	.329*** (.065)	.229* (.115)	.473*** (.064)	.385*** (.114)
Observations	2525	851	2640	895
Pseudo R-squared	.039	.032	.053	.028

Note: standard errors in parentheses, *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

- 台灣的相似性->現代化理論; convergence theory
- 台灣的特異性->台灣是所謂的「傳統社會」嗎?

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Working Overtime in East Asia: Convergence or Divergence?

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ABSTRACT

Working long hours has become a routinised part of life in East Asia. The different patterns of overtime across this region are understudied, however. This study represents a first systematic attempt to analyse overtime and its determinants in Japan, South Korea, Taiwan and China by testing hypotheses that specify the distinctive influences of employment status and job contracts on work hours. Class exploitation, post-industrialism and flexibility theories are mobilised to identify distinctive but supplementary factors in long working hours. Using data from a recent four-country survey, a Tobit regression analysis of full-time workers' hours reveals that employers and self-employed people work longer hours than hired workers across this region. Despite this convergence, there is a contrast across occupations. In Japan, overtime is positively associated with occupational prestige, while a reverse pattern operates in China, where low-skilled workers work more overtime. Contract workers in the private sector in South Korea and China also have longer overtime when compared to public sector employees. In sum, this study highlights more divergence than convergence of working conditions within East Asia.

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KEYWORDS

Social class; overtime;
working conditions;
transition economy;
post-industrialism; social
structure

Working long hours has increasingly become a routinised part of work life virtually

Table 2. Overtime in four East Asian countries (%).

	Total working hours ^a	Fair time or less ^b	1–10	11–20	21–30	31–40	41 or more
Japan	47.8 (10.7)	39.4	38.1	14.8	2.9	3.1	1.7
South Korea	53.1 (14.3)	26.4	34.1	19.3	7.7	5.9	6.6
Taiwan	50.4 (14.1)	38.1	33.8	13.7	7.3	1.7	5.4
Taiwan ^c	—	35.1	36.4	14.3	5.3	3.5	5.4
China	55.3 (14.5)	26.9	21.9	23.1	18.0	4.4	5.7

Note: ^aCountry mean (s.d.); ^bStandard work time is 40 hours per week in Japan, South Korea and China; 42 hours in Taiwan. The figures starting from this column are in percentages; ^cPercentages of overtime based on 40 hours.

Most workers tend to work longer weekly, as those below standard hours comprise 40% or less across four countries. Moving to the right on this table, for the purpose of cross-country comparison, we arrange overtimers into five different groupings on the

Table 3. Overtime in Japan: Tobit estimates.

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Male	7.28*** (0.72)	7.24*** (0.72)	7.97*** (0.76)	5.98*** (0.75)	6.94*** (0.81)
Age	0.50* (0.20)	0.53** (0.20)	0.47* (0.20)	0.51* (0.20)	0.50* (0.20)
Age squared (/100)	-0.52* (0.24)	-0.61** (0.23)	-0.49* (0.23)	-0.52* (0.23)	-0.55* (0.23)
Education (Junior high or lower=0)					
Senior high school	-2.71* (1.33)	-2.17 (1.31)	-3.48** (1.33)	-3.33* (1.34)	-3.47** (1.34)
Junior college	-0.79 (1.57)	-0.12 (1.55)	-1.96 (1.59)	-1.35 (1.58)	-1.80 (1.60)
University or above	-1.32 (1.43)	-0.74 (1.41)	-3.18* (1.51)	-1.71 (1.45)	-3.08* (1.52)
Hourly wage	-0.28*** (0.03)	-0.26*** (0.03)	-0.28*** (0.03)	-0.28*** (0.03)	-0.27*** (0.03)
Relative income standing	1.26** (0.43)	0.91* (0.42)	0.96* (0.43)	1.15** (0.43)	0.74 (0.44)
Employment status (Employee=0)					
Employer		5.26*** (1.16)			4.17*** (1.22)
Self-employed		4.25** (1.35)			1.55 (1.42)
Working for family		5.88** (2.06)			3.22 (2.11)
Occupation (Unskilled=0)					
Senior official/ manager			6.98** (2.13)		3.68 (2.19)
Professional			7.41*** (1.87)		6.34*** (1.89)
Semi-professional			6.36*** (1.66)		4.99** (1.69)
Clerical			5.28*** (1.56)		3.78* (1.58)
Agricultural worker			11.03*** (2.31)		8.46*** (2.40)
Skilled technician			3.71* (1.55)		2.11 (1.57)
Sector-contract (Public job=0)					
Private-permanent				2.97*** (0.85)	2.48** (0.89)
Private-temporary				-2.75* (1.40)	-1.83 (1.40)
Intercept	-4.61	-4.85	-7.35	-5.13	-7.10
Model χ^2	141.5	174	173.1	171.9	212.1

Table 5. Overtime in Taiwan: Tobit estimates.

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Male	2.53*** (0.75)	2.30** (0.71)	3.35*** (0.78)	2.51*** (0.74)	2.86*** (0.74)
Age	-0.09 (0.24)	-0.22 (0.22)	-0.02 (0.23)	-0.09 (0.23)	-0.20 (0.22)
Age squared (/100)	0.27 (0.29)	0.32 (0.27)	0.18 (0.29)	0.27 (0.29)	0.30 (0.27)
Education(Junior high or lower=0)					
Senior high school	0.23 (1.07)	1.35 (1.02)	-0.46 (1.07)	0.04 (1.07)	0.59 (1.04)
Junior college	-1.09 (1.25)	0.84 (1.20)	-1.83 (1.33)	-1.54 (1.26)	-.21 (1.29)
University or above	-2.69* (1.23)	0.18 (1.20)	-2.68 (1.37)	-2.69* (1.27)	-0.45 (1.34)
Hourly wage	-0.62*** (0.08)	-0.64*** (0.08)	-0.61*** (0.08)	-0.63*** (0.08)	-0.67*** (0.08)
Relative income standing	3.55*** (0.62)	2.97*** (0.59)	3.18*** (0.61)	3.41*** (0.61)	2.63*** (0.59)
Employment status (Employee=0)					
Employer		10.77*** (1.21)			10.31*** (1.25)
Self-employed		9.64*** (1.15)			9.36*** (1.23)
Working for family		3.20* (1.55)			2.69 (1.60)
Occupation (Unskilled=0)					
Senior official/ manager			5.68** (2.15)		4.56* (2.10)
Professional			1.04 (2.13)		-0.03 (2.07)
Semi-professional			2.85 (1.83)		0.73 (1.79)
Clerical			6.66*** (1.66)		3.33* (1.64)
Agricultural worker			2.36 (2.57)		-3.92 (2.56)
Skilled technician			1.80 (1.70)		0.41 (1.66)
Sector-contract (Public job=0)					
Private-permanent				2.36* (1.15)	-0.35 (1.14)
Private-temporary				-2.55 (1.66)	-1.71 (1.61)
Intercept	1.64 (1.15)	3.90 (3.35)	-2.62 (1.55)	0.59 (1.33)	4.09 (2.63)

無法辨識的網路
網際網路存取

mct1

下午 04:36

純異文化研究

- 不做比較，只做外國的研究
- 一種跨國研究？
- 經驗研究作為例子：迦納家庭交換與經濟安全
- 操作化與估計
- 解釋發現
- 與當地社會文化的連結，先了解文化的脈絡

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Familial Reciprocity and Subjective Well-being in Ghana

The authors investigated variations in reciprocity and the impact of reciprocity on well-being in a West African society. They hypothesized that household size and income diversity encourage reciprocity, which in turn enhances subjective well-being. In empirical testing of these hypotheses the authors used the data of the Core Welfare Indicators Questionnaire of Ghana, a national sample of household heads (N males = 33,949, N females = 13,900) collected in 2003. A regression analysis showed that remittance facilitates balanced or credited reciprocity, whereas size-related measures (marital status and generational relationships) produce mixed results. Reciprocity clearly strengthens perceived economic security and level of happiness among Ghanaians. This research suggests that extensive reciprocity among kin, rather than household configurations, should be stressed in efforts to understand the structure of familial relationships and its consequences for well-being.

Although some scholars suggest that African

kin in need because the social welfare system in their regions is limited (Caldwell, 1966, 1996), this interpretation of reciprocity, focused only on its supplementary role relative to the public welfare system, is inappropriately narrow. As Lévi-Strauss (1969) argued, reciprocity has long constituted a fundamental social structure of African societies rather than an improvised response to weakened state services. For African people in exchange relationships, offering resources gives one a right to receive, and receiving makes one obliged to offer resources in return. The mutual benefits from such give-and-take interactions build connections, trust, and a community sanctioned by an explicit norm of reciprocity. Extensive exchanges in kin relationships establish a firm belief that help is always on the way, and therefore they facilitate a feeling of security against risks brought about by the rhythm of abundance and shortage. Mutual exchange, according to Lévi-Strauss, significantly “effects the transition from hostility to alliance, from anxiety to confidence, and from fear to friendship” (p. 68).





Table 1. *Basic Descriptive Statistics* (N = 47,849)

Variable	Male (%)	Female (%)	$\chi^2/t(df)$
Age	44.6 (15.2) ^a	48.4 (17.0) ^a	23.2 (23,679)***
Education			
None	38.3	42.4	1,354.0 (4)***
Elementary school	7.3	8.3	
Junior high school	36.0	33.6	
Senior high school	8.5	7.0	
Some college	9.9	8.7	
Material possessions (e.g., refrigerator, TV)	1.5 (1.5) ^a	1.1 (1.4) ^a	27.1 (27,596)***
Geographic isolation: Minutes to nearest bus stop	22.0 (21.7) ^a	14.8 (15.2) ^a	41.3 (36,570)***
Marital status			
Not married	9.7	6.5	15,416.5 (5)***
Loose/informal union	8.5	9.4	
Monogamous	61.9	22.9	
Polygynous	12.8	4.5	
Divorced/separated	5.1	25.5	
Widowed	2.1	31.2	

Widowed	2.1	31.2	
Family types			
Live alone	17.6	20.8	846.1 (4)***
Conjugal	4.7	4.1	
Two generations w/spouse	43.2	30.3	
Two generations, no spouse	12.1	18.5	
Family plus relatives	22.3	26.3	
Family human capital			
Ratio of members with junior high education or more	.14 (.20) ^a	.17 (.23) ^a	13.5 (23,469)**
Family financial capital			
Ratio of in-house income contributors	.12 (.15) ^a	.05 (.13) ^a	52.3 (30,915)***
Ratio of absent income contributors	.5 (.11) ^a	.02 (.08) ^a	26.4 (33,305)***
Reciprocity			
Balanced	31.2	32.3	1,664.0 (3)***
Credited	32.3	20.5	
Indebted	10.4	23.2	
Self-reliant	26.1	23.9	
Self-rated ability of surviving crisis			
Very or somewhat secure	22.8	20.5	53.0 (4)***
Confidence in surviving crisis			
More confident	27.5	25.2	54.5 (2)***

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Food Security and Perceived Well-being among Household Heads in Ghana

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Abstract Access to food as a critical factor in determining individuals' well-being in low income countries is of grave importance both in theory and public policy. Therefore this study, designed to enhance our understanding of food (in)security's impact on quality of life, presents a micro-level analysis of factors associated with food provision, food satisfaction, and happiness in Ghana. Our empirical analysis first





Table 2 Food problem and food provision in Ghana (%)

	Age 50 or less		χ^2/t	Age 51 and over		χ^2/t
	Male	Female		Male	Female	
Problem in food needs						
Never	36.2	33.8	36.8***	35.4	29.5	60.5***
Seldom	14.7	13.8		13.2	13.4	
Sometimes	38.9	40.1		39.6	41.4	
Often	7.6	9.1		8.8	11.5	
Always	2.6	3.2		3.1	4.3	
Head as main food contributor						
Yes	92.4	90.3	31.6***	90.4	89.2	4.2*
No	7.6	9.7		9.6	10.8	

Table 3 Regression estimation of food problem among household heads in Ghana: ordered logistic estimates

	Age 50 or less		Age 51 or over	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Food Provision				
Head-food contributor	-.044	-.009	-.127	.021
Land used (acre)	-.026***	-.020*	-.063***	-.047***
Livestock owned	-.033***	-.024*	-.054***	-.029*
Mean food spending	-.045***	-.012	-.039**	-.029
Reciprocity				
Regular give-and-take	-.088**	-.277***	-.157***	-.288***
Remittances	.009	.219	.198	-.149
Public job	-.068	-.573***	-.061	-.427
Education (none = 0)				
Primary	-.118*	-.129	.003	-.142
Junior	-.247***	-.402***	-.335***	-.241*

reduces SWB among men, but this association is weak among women. The employers (business owners) as a whole are less likely to feel poor owing to their secure

¹² The issue of livestock needs further specification. Where people own sheep, goats and fowls, these are likely to be their personal property. However, in the case of cows, these are supposed to be family, collectively owned assets. In the northern regions of Ghana especially, these are never sold unless the family is in dire need of money. Cows are generally used to organize funerals for important people in the family, to contract marriage, or as sacrifice to the gods and ancestors in times of life crises. For these reasons, it deserves being circumspect somewhat in relating the quantum of livestock to well-being. Future research should better distinguish impacts of certain “quasi-sacred” livestock from regular others.

想像的演化與操作化

- 台灣的分析-自己的社會
- 台灣的跨國比較(台灣vs韓國)
- 台灣的跨多國比較(台灣vs韓國vs泰國vs印尼)
- 異國的研究
- 視台灣為一個異國(異文化)的研究

- 回到一個常被reviewer問的老問題：
- 為什麼這份研究要以「台灣」為主題？ 沒有更好的社會／資料了嗎？
- 要說「沒有了」
- 只要你能提出有說服力的回應
- Well begun is half done!
- (如果自己不能說服自己，那就...)

謝謝指教！