

The study of gender discrimination in situation of Mongolia and Taiwan

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Abstract— This research concerns the role of individuals (e.g., colleagues or managers) in workplace gender discrimination, with a special focus on the discriminatory evaluation of workplace altruism. Using questionnaire data, we compare levels of discriminatory performance evaluation in a developing country (Mongolia) and a developed country (Taiwan). The questionnaire, obtained from Heilman and Chen (2005), measures respondent's perceptions of altruistic citizenship behavior in the workplace, carried out by a hypothetical employee who may be either male or female. Respondents' differential evaluation of work performance, depending on whether the actor is male or female, is an indication of individual gender bias, and a possible explanation as to why the gender discrimination exists at the company level. The questionnaire data lead to two conclusions. First, gender discrimination among Taiwanese respondents is lower than among Mongolians. Second, even if Mongolian HRM policies were the same as in Taiwan, discrimination would be worse in Mongolia, where the vast majority of corporate decision-makers are men.

Key Words — Gender discrimination, performance evaluation.

I. INTRODUCTION

The development of the country is related to gender equality. Mongolian women struggle with unequal job opportunities, compensation, and household duties. To mitigate this problem, we need to understand the causes of inequality. In recent years, people are talking more about gender equality. Gender equality means not discriminating between women and men. It means all citizens have the right to participate in society on an equal basis, regardless of their biological sex (Syd, 2005). Thus, biological differences are not grounds for discrimination.

On the other hand, gender is a social construct evolved from cultural factors. For this reason, gender differences affect the social status of individuals. Gender determines the social responsibilities assigned to men and women. Within a given society, these responsibilities may depend on demographic characteristics such as level of education, income, age, national origin, and religion, among other factors (Little, 2012). A common stereotype is that men are leaders: they are strong and natural decision-makers; women, by contrast, are weak in the social, political, and economic spheres, but play a more important role in the family. These traditional notions have persisted since ancient times in Asian countries (Begley, 2004). In Mongolia, with its patriarchal values, and they still persist today. Female workers in Mongolia are rarely nominated for high-level positions. This may reflect the thinking of individual decision-makers, who are bound by cultural traditions and outmoded ways of thinking. According to Amina (2014), "The definition of gender is based on the

interaction between for men and women, and is influenced by political, social and economic factors." There is some explanation of gender and sex. Its separate two paragraphs, first one is biological sex, the second one is gender. The sex refers to physical or physiological differences between males and females. It is including both primary sex characteristics and such as height and muscularity. Gender is a term that refers to social or cultural distinctions associated with being male and female (OpenStax-CNX, 2013). This research focuses on gender discrimination in the workplace, and what HR managers should do to decrease it and ensure equal evaluation of employees' altruistic behavior. The first step towards managing workplace discrimination is to understand it. To this end, this study will do the following. First, it will identify basic factors that underlie gender discrimination in Mongolia and Taiwan. Second, it will compare the levels of discrimination in both countries. Third, it will examine variables that limit the progress of women in Mongolia. The analysis will be based on survey data obtained by another from university students in Mongolia and Taiwan.

There are two hypotheses:

H1A: There is individual discrimination in Mongolia

H1B: There is individual discrimination in Taiwan

H2: Discrimination in Mongolia is worse than in Taiwan

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

This section starts with some basic definitions. It defines gender equality in Mongolia and Taiwan, the impact of

gender discrimination in the workplace, and the role of HR managers are controlling discrimination. The definitions are followed by a discussion of altruistic behavior among male and female employees, and an overview of the current situation in Mongolia.

2.1 Gender versus Sex

Gender is often confused with sex: it defines the roles and relations between women and men. Whereas gender is social construct (Cherry, 2015), biological sex is naturally determined at a person's birth, and is unchanging. Male and female biological characteristics do not change with time; furthermore, they do not differ from one culture to another. Thus, the biological sex of an individual has no economic or social impact. Gender, on the other hand, is a social construct derived from biological sex (Bryson, 1999). Thus, the notion of gender depends upon the cultural context and societal norms.

2.2 Gender and Status within the Workplace: A Theoretical Perspective

A paper by Ridgeway (1991) offers a theoretical explanation of the relationship between gender and workplace status. It examines how structural assumptions could cause a nominal characteristic (e.g., male gender) to be associated with higher status within a society. Ridgeway's model not only establishes a connection between the structural conditions and status differential, but also describes how this connection might work. The structural conditions are as follows:

1. There is an unequal distribution of resources within the population.
2. Individuals discriminate on the basis of resource ownership. They associate with others who have similar wealth.
3. The population is equally divided into two nominal categories, which we will call "M" and "F".
4. Members of the first nominal category, M, are more likely to be "richer" than those in the second category, "F."

There will be four types of interactions between members of the two categories. There are four types of individuals: MR (rich males), FR (rich females), MP (poor males), and FP (poor females). Since individuals gravitate towards others with similar wealth, the most common interactions are between rich males and rich females (MR-FR) and between poor males and poor females (MP-FP). However, there will also be some "doubly dissimilar interactions," most commonly between rich males and poor females (MR-FP), but also between poor males and rich females (MP-FR). Expectation Theory states that when the male and female individuals in this interaction share a collective goal, the result will be a hierarchy in which the relatively well-off

group (M) has higher influence and status than the other group (F). This may have a profound influence on how members of the M group are evaluated within the workplace.

2.3 Gender Inequality and Economic Development

Gender equality is both a cause and an outcome of country-level economic advancement. Gender equality promotes education of girls, literacy among women, female labor force participation, reproductive health programs, and political rights policies (2014). According to the World Bank Development Report (2014) women's participation in the labor market impacts the country's economic and social development and women's property rights. Gender equality is essential to economic modernization and promotes economic growth and poverty reduction in future generations. Also it improves productivity and creates more democratic and efficient institutions.

As the global economy becomes more integrated, the productivity effects associated with greater gender equality are likely to be increasingly important to East Asia and Pacific countries. The gender inequality index (GII) may offer some insights into the relationship between gender equality and economic advancement. The GII has interpreted as the loss in human development due to inequality between female and male achievements in GII dimensions. Furthermore, no country with perfect gender equality, all countries suffer some loss in achievements in key aspects of human development when gender inequality is taken into account. This is what the GII aims to capture (Harper, 2015). The GII has three dimensions reproductive health, empowerment and the labor market. The health dimension assesses maternal mortality and adolescent fertility, the empowerment dimension is measured by the share of parliamentary seats held by each sex and by secondary higher education attainment level, and the labor dimension is measured by women's participation in workplace (Amie Gaye, 2010).

Results of the My WORLD survey reveal a complex relationship between GII and demand for gender equality. Investing in gender equality is one of the surest paths to poverty reduction, inclusive growth and prosperity. Gender is also a key dimension of vulnerability to poverty. For financing to be effective in reducing poverty and delivering sustainable development, it needs to benefit women and men equally and contribute to empowering women and building equitable societies. This needs to be specifically addressed by placing a high priority on gender equality in official development assistance and ensuring that national budgets allocate sufficient resources towards achieving gender equality. (Financing gender equality and women's rights in

the implementation of the Sustainable Development Goals, 2015) Mongolia is medium gender equality development country, GII 0.320 , and Taiwan is a low-GII country with an index of 0.055 (Samman, 2014). In according to the GII studies, the demand for equality is lowest for countries with mid-level GIIs, and highest for countries with low GII. Thus, demand for equality among Mongolians may be lower than in Taiwan.

2.3.1 Gender Inequality and Discrimination in Mongolia

The Mongolian lifestyle was traditionally nomadic (Sarlagtay, 2002). All livestock were nationally owned, and the government compensated families for their herding and care of animals. The paychecks went to the head of the household, generally a man. Therefore, women had far less opportunity than men to engage in paid labor. In the resulting culture, Mongolian women deferred to the authority of their husbands. After 1924 Mongolia has been establishing a social society that time women position radically changed. It gave them increased access to education and health care and equal rights within the law, which increases in female participation in decision making and public life (Purejav L. , 2012). Mongolia has made important strides towards achieving gender equality. On the 2nd of February 2011 Mongolia implemented the Law on Gender Equality (Boldbaatar, 2014). In addition, were not supposed to do certain jobs for many women due to some labor, adopted in 1999 from the previous social period of years. (For example: some factor of machinist, mining sector, and construction etc). One-third of Mongolian women are engaged in unpaid family within the employment is high compared to the average in East Asia, there is a significant gender inequality compared to other on access to economic opportunity zone countries (Khan, 2013). Women's participation in paid employment is lower by 12.8% than men's, while women's unemployment rate is higher by 1.9% than men's (Tumendelger, 2014).

However, discrimination is still persists, and is an obstacle to parity between women and men in the workplace.

Women have had a higher unemployment rate than men (overall, 6 percent higher) and lower levels of wages (women received, on average, 75 percent of the wage paid to men for the same job) (Ailtguin, 2010). In Mongolia, there is high occupational segmentation by gender in the workforce. Moreover, women's participation is slightly less than that of men. In recent years, women have been more vulnerable to firings and layoffs than men and have had fewer job opportunities in the private sector (Munkhnasaa Narmandakh, 2008). In recent years, Mongolia's male-dominated mining sector has undergone rapid expansion, contributing to both occupational segmentation and the gap between male and female labor participation. A third of

women are employed as unpaid family workers (Naran Munkhbat, 2014).

The position of women in the labor market has deteriorated. Recently, Mongolia ranked 33rd out of 136 countries, according to the World Economic Forum, a decrease relative to recent decades. In Mongolia, gender discrimination is observed as being on the increase. Of particular importance to this study is women's lack of professional achievement on the job. More girls than boys have been enrolling in Mongolia's high schools, a difference that becomes more pronounced at the university level. However women surpass men in education, they are falling behind in the professional arena (Sinanoglu, 2014). Mongolian women are underrepresented in management positions.

The issue of maternity leave is problematic for female employees in Mongolia. It affects both salary and performance appraisals. When female workers return to work following maternity leave, their compensation may be unequal with that of with male employees who hold the same positions. Furthermore, female workers are promoted more slowly. As a result, female employees may hold lower positions and receive lower salaries than their male colleagues who were hired with the same job titles. This pattern affects women not only in top management, but also throughout the workforce (Ryder, 2014).

2.3.2 Gender equality and discrimination in Taiwan

Taiwan is more gender equality than Mongolia. In Taiwan, women account for 50.02 percent of the population. And female labor participation rate is only 49.20%, compared to the male labor participation (March 2002). And education sector for female student increased lastly which becomes large problem in Taiwan (Jacob, 2008). But Taiwan unemployment rate was at 3.74 percent (Trade, 2015). Women's participation in the labor force percent is about 51, men's percent is 67 in labor force. Furthermore, employment discrimination is in Taiwan compare to the male labor participation rate of 67.33% (Chiao, Employment Discrimination in Taiwan, 2011). In recent years, gender discrimination has been shrinking in the workplace in Taiwan (Sheng, 2014). Taiwanese women earned on average 81.7 percent as much as men, versus 79.9 percent in the USA, 67.8 percent in Japan, and 51.6 percent in Mongolia (Huang, 2010). Furthermore, the Ministry of labor posted 44.1 percent of women in the workforce and salary was less than men last 25 years. (Huang, 2015). Its compare to Mongolian women's wage is lower than Taiwan. Taiwanese HRM is starting to grow since 1960 till 1990. During this time, there are many foreign owner enterprises in Taiwan which has individual

based performance evolution and reward system and it influence HRM practice (Chris Rowley, 2008).

2.4 Definition of Discrimination

Gender discrimination is defined as discrimination against a person or group on the grounds of sex or gender identity. In other hand, describing that gender discrimination in workplace due to the unfair actions of the employer, discrimination between male and female workers, hiring discrimination, and favoritism related to job promotion, and bias in wage setting for different type of job work (Trond Petersen, 2006). And gender-based discrimination is observed being on the increase. Because of women are doing unpaid household job besides her own paid job. In nowadays the labor force is almost 52 percent male and 48 percent female (Parcheta, 2013). Women and men are represented almost equal in the workplace. But, the most reason of gender discrimination problem for women in the workplace is discrimination in the area of child rearing, and care of family. Parenthood affects male and female employees differently. Female worker has children away from the workplace is still a problem. Also, female managers experienced greater sex discrimination overall than male managers. However male workers less hours spent on paid work activities, female workers outcome is same evaluated (Ellen A. Ensher, 2001). Also, discrimination among women lower feeling of power and prestige on the job. Gender discrimination is related to employees' attitudes and behavior. Furthermore, discrimination is divided two sections such as individual discrimination and structural discrimination (Pincus, 1994). This section is more focus on individual discrimination and workplace discrimination.

2.4.1 Workplace discrimination

How is gender equality in Mongolia and Taiwan, what is gender discrimination in the workplace? Gender equality is directly related to the country's economic growth and population development. Workplace discrimination occurs when any individual who is in a protected classification received adverse employment or hiring treatment as a member of that group. Workplace discrimination is forbidden by law for such characteristics as gender, race, age, religion, sexual orientation, and in employment decisions. Furthermore, gender discrimination is existing in the world and in the workplace. There are three major obstacles to workplace equality. One is unequal access to employment. This means that there is a lack of parity in hiring, firing, and promotions. In Mongolia's educational sector, women outnumber men in rank-and-file positions; however they are underrepresented in high level management. According to the Mongolian Office of National Statistics, in 2006 women constitute 51.6 percent of the workforce. Most clerks, service

workers, and technicians are women. However, they earn fewer promotions and appointments to managerial positions. This is particularly true of high-level management. Most enterprises have male CEOs, but there are few women in high-level managerial positions in the business sector. The second obstacle to workplace equality is unequal compensation. This happens when female and male workers hold identical job titles (or perform the same responsibilities), but the male workers earn higher salaries (Milgrom, 2006). This type of discrimination is prevalent throughout the world. In lower level positions in the educational sector, female employees in Mongolia outnumber males, but male workers earn higher average salaries. Men in managerial positions across all sectors of the Mongolian economy receive 22.8 percent more in term of salary than women in similar positions (Purevjav, 2011). The third obstacle is that in both Mongolia and Taiwan, female and male employees are evaluated by different standards. One reason why women may not get promoted to high-level management positions is that stereotypes in the workplace pose "serious challenges to women's career advancement." (Jose, 2015). Another is self-interest on the part of employer. There is a common definition that women must reach high level position more than men. For example, if two candidates, a male and an equally qualified female, compete for the same position, the company may choose the male, because of the risk of a future request for maternity leave.

2.4.2 Individual Discrimination

Individual discrimination is defined as "behavior of individual members of specific groups that is intended to have a differential or harmful effect on members of other specific groups" (Pincus, 1994). In certain instances, individual discrimination in the workplace may be unintentional. In other cases, it may constitute a blatant violation of laws, for example when a female worker is dismissed from her job because of pregnancy. HRM should be concerned about individual discrimination in the workplace for the following reasons. First, individual discrimination may be based on unreasonable or outdated ideas that work to the detriment of the organization. When these ideas are widely held, they may be embraced in the organization's policies. Examples of such stereotypes are that women "belong" to men (e.g., their husbands); that the income they earn is "optional" and a mere supplement that of their husbands; or that women are not dynamic or skilled in problem-solving. Gender stereotypes such as these should play no role in personnel decisions. Second, there may be important qualitative differences between male and female managers. These differences often create gender stereotypes portraying female's leadership skills and abilities in a negative light, thus making it hard for women to find success

in management position. For example, if company is not able to remove the obstacle female leaders from success, there will not only be an increase of female leaders in management positions in the workplace. But companies will also see added benefits that come along with the different leadership styles and skills.

Altruistic behavior in the workplace

Altruism is helping behavior. Helping behavior is employees engage in voluntarily to help others at work. Also, helping is depending on human's current mood, who are in a good mood are more likely to help. Researcher like Hielmen and Chan (2005) pointed out to female gender stereotype prescription, which dictate that women be nurturing and socially oriented. This behavior is more observing female employee. But men receive higher overall performance rating for performing more helping behavior (not women). For example, if male worker helps another worker who is evaluated good credits, not female worker. Helping behavior is an inborn tendency or whether it must be whoever helps without receiving any benefit in return. Such behavior includes helping another employee for finishing any kind of job, duties, and providing helpful advice or suggestions etc. Helping behavior is rewarding in some ways if someone can help it will return help in the future. Helping behavior is difference reaction of people because of culture. Culture refers to a range of friendly social and emotional traits. For Mongolia, however, patriarchal ethics is the most influencing factor in altruistic behavior. This was existed any country from ancient time and now this is not some high-ranking officers remained on the job. Over the last decades employee behavior has changed to increase tremendously because of organizational culture (Dianna L. Stone, 2008).

2.5 Human resource management

Why do human resources have a significant impact on the performance of the organization? The organizational development depends on Human Resource Management (HRM). In the HRM department, a major focus of HR managers is ensuring equal treatment for equal behavior in the workplace, regardless of employee gender. HR managers should be careful when they are recruitment new candidates and to avoid any gender discrimination because it has direct relationship on employees. Discrimination may be difficult or impossible to observe, therefore HRM personnel may have a hard time controlling it. It is the responsibility of HRM Departments to enforce legal and ethical standards regarding gender equality in the workplace. Because some discrimination is happens secret. Sometimes situations occur that can make working in certain environment downright uncomfortable and unbearable. This part focuses on differences in gender discrimination between Mongolia and

Taiwan, what it means, and how exactly HR managers can respond to gender discrimination in the two environments. Although, HRM policy is same in every country but evaluation, discrimination system is different. As explained below, the focus will be university students' perceptions of altruistic behavior among male and female professors. Even though, human resource management policies are same as these two Asian countries but different organizations policy and different discrimination because of culture. There are various explanations for why women experience gender discrimination in the workplace. Women lack self-confidence in the workplace and need to improve themselves. Furthermore, although women have made great advances toward overall equality, they are still underrepresented at the executive level, and discriminatory compensation remains a problem. Gender discrimination is a long-term problem, and it is the responsibility of HR managers to control it. This research explained two Mongolian university's HRM function. HR managers are women and man. They respond were different. For example, for male manager opinion was in Mongolia doesn't have gender discrimination, all HRM function is persisting normally. But female manager's opinion is opposite of male manager.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This research employs a questionnaire developed by Heilman and Chen (2005) to compare gender discrimination in two Asian countries, Mongolia and Taiwan. The respondents are 300 Mongolian university students and 300 Taiwanese university students, equally divided between males and females. The questionnaire was administered in paper and pencil format. The data were employed to assess differences between Mongolia and Taiwan in terms of gender discrimination.

3.1 Data Analysis

In Heilman's study, there were two experimental conditions: teacher gender (male/female) and altruism (altruistic/not altruistic). In our study, there is one additional experimental condition: respondent nationality. There were four dependent measures, all composite measures based on data from the questionnaire: one based on the three performance evaluation items (Section 1 of the questionnaire); one on the four organization rewards items (Section 2 of the questionnaire); one on the four competence items in the attributes section; and one based on the three interpersonal civility items in the attributes section. Cronbach's alpha is used to assess the internal consistency of each composite dependent variable. Factor analysis is used to evaluate the psychometric distinctness of the four variables. Before analysis can take place, the data must be preprocessed

in two steps. First, outliers must be removed. This can be done in a straightforward manner using SPSS. The second step in preprocessing the data is to normalize the responses by computing z-scores. The response data are characterized by three categorical variables: NATIONALITY (0 = Taiwanese; 1 = Mongolian), FEMALE_RESPONDENT (0 = MALE; 1 = FEMALE), and FEMALE_EMPLOYEE (0 = MALE; 1 = FEMALE). For each variable, there are all together eight (=2×2×2) different populations, each characterized by its own distribution. Two-way ANOVA is used to assess gender discrimination in each of the two national environments. Three-way ANOVA is used to assess the impact of respondent nationality on each of the dependent measures.

IV. RESULTS

There were all together 600 respondents, including 300 from Taiwan and 300 from Mongolia. This section covers analysis of the data. Section 4.1 covers the reliability and validity of the survey. Section 4.2 describes the steps taken to preprocess the data before analysis, including removal of outliers and normalization of the data (computation of z-scores). Section 4.3 presents descriptive statistics. Section 4.4 covers separate analyses of the Taiwanese and Mongolian subsamples. Section 4.5 presents multivariate ANOVA (MANOVA) analysis.

4.1 Reliability and Validity of the Survey

4.1.1 Factor Analysis

We perform factor analyses to determine whether the four variables employed in the survey (PERFORMANCE, REWARDS, COMPETENCE, and INTERPERSONAL) are psychometrically distinct. Factor analysis is implemented twice. The output of the first iteration is shown in Table 4-1. There are two factors. Factor membership is indicated by the dominant factor loadings, which are underlined in the table. The output demonstrates that INTERPERSONAL is distinct from the other three variables. The first factor consists of the 11 items in PERFORMANCE, REWARDS, and COMPETENCE. The second factor includes the three INTERPERSONAL items. Factor 1 may be thought of as an index of professional ability, while Factor 2 is an indicator of personal character. The Table 4-1 output shows that the INTERPERSONAL items I1, I2, and I3 are distinct from the other questionnaire items.

In Table 4-1, the output does not distinguish between the variables PERFORMANCE, REWARDS, and INTERPERSONAL, which are lumped together as members of Factor 1. A second factor analysis is therefore performed to determine whether these variables are psychometrically distinct from one another. In the first attempt, the number of

factors was optimized based on the method of eigenvalues, as in Table 4-1. In the resulting output, the 11 items all belonged to a single factor. The analysis was therefore repeated, with the number of factors deliberately set to 3.16 The output is shown in Table 4-2 below, again with the dominant factor loadings underlined to indicate item membership in the three factors. Here, it is clear that Factors 1, 2, and 3 are identified with the variables REWARDS, PERFORMANCE, and COMPETENCE.

Table 4-1 First iteration of factor analysis: Rotated component matrix

	<u>Component</u>	
	1	2
<i>P1</i>	<u>.738</u>	.129
<i>P2</i>	<u>.760</u>	.128
<i>P3</i>	<u>.729</u>	.154
<i>R1</i>	<u>.785</u>	.166
<i>R2</i>	<u>.764</u>	.159
<i>R3</i>	<u>.694</u>	.160
<i>R4</i>	<u>.723</u>	.184
<i>C1</i>	<u>.754</u>	.226
<i>C2</i>	<u>.745</u>	.241
<i>C3</i>	<u>.708</u>	.248
<i>C4</i>	<u>.586</u>	.123
<i>I1R</i>	.147	<u>.856</u>
<i>I2R</i>	.241	<u>.845</u>
<i>I3R</i>	.187	<u>.773</u>

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

b. I1R, I2R, and I3R were generated through reverse scaling of I1, I2, and I3.

Table 4-2 Second Iteration of Factor Analysis: Rotated Component Matrixa

	<u>Component</u>		
	1	2	3
<i>P1</i>	.316	<u>.754</u>	.202
<i>P2</i>	.306	<u>.760</u>	.249
<i>P3</i>	.268	<u>.709</u>	.313
<i>R1</i>	<u>.687</u>	.440	.211
<i>R2</i>	<u>.732</u>	.415	.143
<i>R3</i>	<u>.775</u>	.212	.192
<i>R4</i>	<u>.707</u>	.232	.321
<i>C1</i>	.431	.415	<u>.540</u>
<i>C2</i>	.388	.434	<u>.561</u>
<i>C3</i>	.449	.230	<u>.659</u>
<i>C4</i>	.079	.200	<u>.856</u>

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

4.1.2 Cronbach's Alpha

The Cronbach's alpha is a measure of agreement between the items in a construct. In this study, there were four variables that were supposed to form the construct of the dependent variable, represented by the variables PERFORMANCE, REWARDS, COMPETENCE, and INTERPERSONAL. One can see from Table 4-3 that the Cronbach's Alpha for all four variables was over 0.8, which is a good score. The Cronbach's alpha for PERFORMANCE was 0.801; for REWARDS, 0.850; for COMPETENCE; 0.826 and for INTERPERSONAL, 0.805.

4.2 Preprocessing of the Data

4.2.1 Outlier Analysis

Outliers can distort the results of the statistical analysis. Therefore, outlier analysis was performed to remove extreme values from the sample.

Computation of the z-scores

Before performance the analysis, we converted the variable values to z-scores for purposes of comparison. The control respondents were used to generate means and standard deviation. The z-scores for each respondent were derived from control participants with the same nationality and respondent gender. Table 4-3 shows the distributional parameters for the four respondent subpopulations. Each cell in the table shows the mean value and standard deviation (in parentheses), obtained from the relevant sector of the control responses. There were all together 200 control respondents, with 100 in the Taiwanese subsample and 100 in the Mongolian subsample. Each subsample was evenly divided between male and female respondents. Some subgroups contain fewer than 50 respondents because of elimination of outliers.

Table 4-3 Distributional Parameters for the Four Respondent Subpopulations

	Taiwanese Respondents		Mongolian Respondents	
	MALE (N = 48)	FEMALE (N = 49)	MALE (N = 50)	FEMALE (N = 49)
PERFORMANCE	5.566 (0.0243)	5.507 (0.973)	5.790 (0.727)	5.707 (0.863)
REWARDS	5.544 (1.004)	5.570 (0.748)	5.430 (0.772)	5.690 (0.928)
COMPETENCE	5.565 (1.053)	5.740 (0.830)	5.760 (0.812)	6.810 (0.746)
INTERPERSONAL*	4.682 (1.138)	4.986 (1.091)	5.228 (1.117)	5.880 (0.707)

MALE: A male respondent. FEMALE*: A female respondent. During z-score computation, all variables were scaled so that higher values corresponded to a favorable evaluation, lower values to unfavorable ones.

4.3 Descriptive Statistics

4.3.1 Summary Data

Table 4-4 summarizes the output of the questionnaire and compares the data from the Mongolian and Taiwanese respondents. The t-test output of the normalized data shows that the values of all four Likert constructs differed across nationality.

Table 4-4 T-test Comparison of the Taiwanese and Mongolian Samples

	Unscaled Variables			Sig.
	μ_T	μ_M	$\mu_T - \mu_M$	
PERFORMANCE	2.67 5	2.40 0	0.27*** 5	
REWARDS	2.70 6	2.58 6	0.12 0	
COMPETENCE	2.56 5	2.33 7	0.22** 8	
INTERPERSONAL	3.46 9	2.64 9	0.82*** 0	

μ_T : The average among Taiwanese respondents

μ_M : The average among Mongolian respondents

Single asterisk (*): 0.05 < p < 0.10; double asterisk (**): 0.01 < p < 0.05; triple asterisk (***): p < 0.01 Table 4-4 presents Spearman and Pearson correlation data. The maximum correlation values are under 7.5, indicating that multicollinearity was not a problem.

Table 4-5 Correlation Matrix

	1	2	3
PERFORMANCE	1.000	0.754*	0.689*
REWARDS	0.750*	1.000	0.728*
COMPETENCE	0.721*	0.717*	1.000
INTERPERSONAL	0.350*	0.357*	0.442*

The upper right triangle contains Pearson correlations; the lower left, Spearman correlations.

An asterisk (*) denotes significance at the p < 0.01 level.

Scaled values were used in all correlations.

4.4 Subsample Analysis

In this section, we test hypotheses 1 and 2 by repeating Heilman’s analysis with the Taiwan and Mongolian subsamples. Section 4.4.1 covers the Taiwanese subsample and Section 4.4.2 covers the Mongolian subsample.

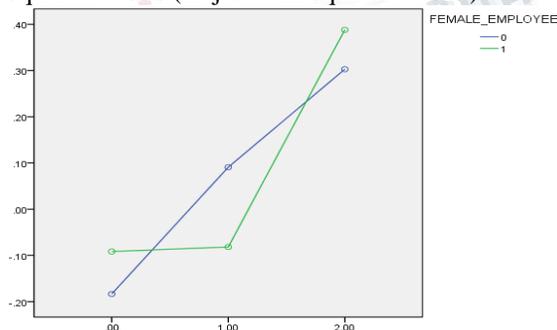
4.4.1 Analysis of the Taiwan Subsample

Below tables show the output of two-way ANOVAs among the Taiwanese respondents. As in (Heilman & Chen, 2005), we use the Likert constructs as dependent variables and ALTRUISM and FEMALE_EMPLOYEE as independent variables. Employee altruism is significant in the INTERPERSONAL ANOVA and marginally significant in the REWARDS ANOVA. However, employee gender is insignificant in all four ANOVAs. The results do not uphold Hypothesis 1a, of gender discrimination among Taiwanese respondents.

Table 4-6 Two-Way ANOVA for PERFORMANCE (Taiwanese Respondents)

Dependent Variable: PERFORMANCE					
Source	Type III Sum of Sqs	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	12.849 ^a	5	2.570	2.711	.021
Intercept	1.426	1	1.426	1.505	.221
FEMALE_EMPLOYEE	.000	1	.000	.000	.990
ALTRUISM	11.674	2	5.837	6.158	.002
FEMALE_EMPLOYEE * ALTRUISM	1.068	2	.534	.564	.570
Error	264.433	279	.948		
Total	278.432	285			
Corrected Total	277.282	284			

a. R Squared = .046 (Adjusted R Squared = .029)



4.4.2 Analysis of the Mongolian Subsample

Below tables show analyses of the Mongolian subsample. Here, altruism is significant in all four ANOVAs, and employee gender is significant in all but the last one, INTERPERSONAL. Post-hoc regressions are presented after each ANOVA with ALTRUISM, FEMALE_EMPLOYEE,

and ALTRUISM × FEMALE_EMPLOYEE as independent variables. In each regression, the FEMALE_EMPLOYEE coefficient is positive, but the coefficient on the ALTRUISM × FEMALE_EMPLOYEE interaction is negative. The results indicate that in performance evaluation, Mongolians may give female employees a gender-related premium. However, consistent with the findings in (Heilman & Chen, 2005), Mongolians give female employees less credit for workplace altruism. In summary, the Mongolian results provide partial support for Hypothesis 2a.

Table 4-7 The Determinants of PERFORMANCE, Mongolian Respondents

Source	Type III Sum of Sqs	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	66.560 ^a	5	13.312	10.445	.000
Intercept	.901	1	.901	.707	.401
FEMALE_EMPLOYEE	.889	1	.889	.698	.404
ALTRUISM	57.816	2	28.908	22.682	.000
FEMALE_EMPLOYEE * ALTRUISM	6.579	2	3.289	2.581	.077
Error	356.851	280	1.274		
Total	424.387	286			
Corrected Total	423.411	285			

a. R Squared = .157 (Adjusted R Squared = .142)

The table states that the differences between the levels of ALTRUISM (from non-altruistic to control, control to altruistic, and non-altruistic to altruistic) are all significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 4-7 Estimated Marginal Means of PERFORMANCE, in terms of Gender

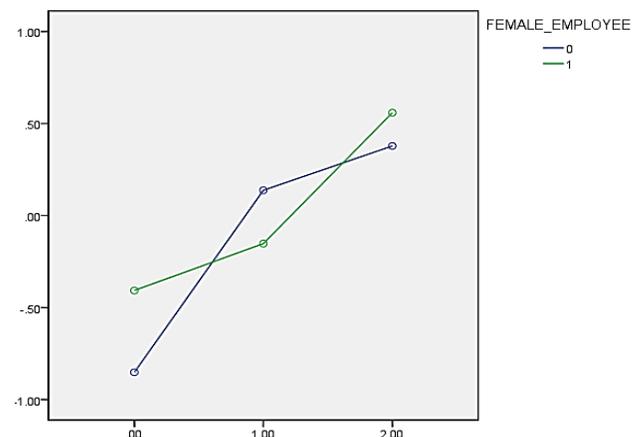


Table 4-8 The Determinants of REWARDS, Mongolian Respondents

Panel A: Two-way ANOVA
Dependent Variable: *REWARDS*

Source	Type III Sum of Sqs	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	76.444 ^a	5	15.289	9.048	.000
Intercept	4.477	1	4.477	2.650	.105
<i>FEMALE_EMPLOYEE</i>	.158	1	.158	.093	.760
<i>ALTRUISM</i>	75.842	2	37.921	22.442	.000
<i>FEMALE_EMPLOYEE * ALTRUISM</i>	.158	2	.079	.047	.954
Error	473.117	280	1.690		
Total	554.222	286			
Corrected Total	549.561	285			

a. R Squared = .139 (Adjusted R Squared = .124)
The output of the Tukey HSD Test, displayed in Table ??, shows that the difference between levels of *ALTRUISM* are all significant, either at the $p = 0.05$ or $p = 0.10$ level.

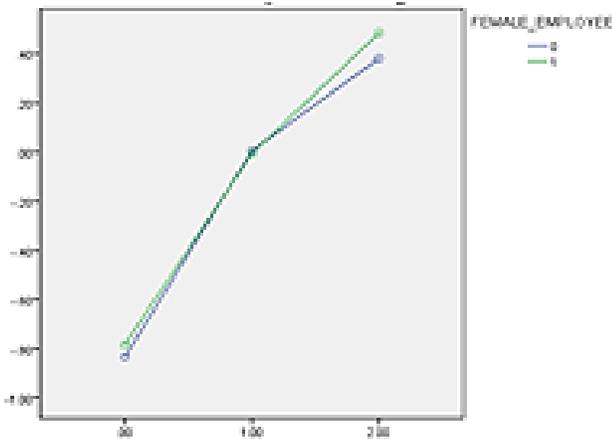


Table 4-9 Determinants of *COMPETANCE*, Mongolian Respondents

Panel A: Two-way ANOVA
Dependent Variable: *COMPETENCE*

Source	Type III Sum of Sqs	df	Mean Square	F
Corrected Model	92.352 ^a	5	18.470	15.643
Intercept	.102	1	.102	.086
<i>FEMALE_EMPLOYEE</i>	.072	1	.072	.061
<i>ALTRUISM</i>	78.884	2	39.442	33.406
<i>FEMALE_EMPLOYEE * ALTRUISM</i>	11.991	2	5.995	5.078
Error	330.598	280	1.181	
Total	423.059	286		
Corrected Total	422.950	285		

a. R Squared = .218 (Adjusted R Squared = .204)

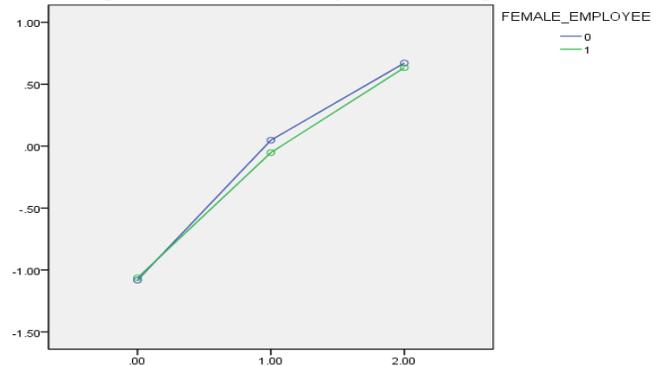
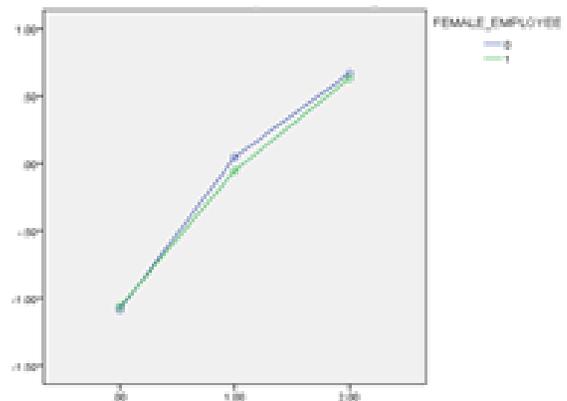


Table 4-10 The Determinants of *INTERPERSONAL*, Mongolian Respondents

a. R Squared = .271 (Adjusted R Squared = .258)

Panel A: Two-way ANOVA
Dependent Variable: *INTERPERSONAL*

Source	Type III Sum of Sqs	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	145.362 ^a	5	29.072	20.794	.000
Intercept	5.672	1	5.672	4.057	.045
<i>FEMALE_EMPLOYEE</i>	.112	1	.112	.080	.778
<i>ALTRUISM</i>	144.816	2	72.408	51.790	.000
<i>FEMALE_EMPLOYEE * ALTRUISM</i>	.168	2	.084	.060	.942
Error	391.470	280	1.398		
Total	542.722	286			
Corrected Total	536.831	285			



a. Dependent Variable: *COMPETENCE*, R Squared = .137 (Adjusted R Squared = .129)

Predictors: (Constant), FEMALE_RESPONDENT, ALTRUISMxMONGOLIAN, FEMALE_EMPLOYEE, ALTRUISM3, FEMALExMONGOLIAN

V. CONCLUSION

In this research, we have shown that altruistic behavior and we particularly interested in the effects of altruism on the reward and performance evaluation. And compared between Mongolian and Taiwanese individual altruism and human resource management' policy. Our research results is not support our hyporesearch, indicating a differential reaction to women and men when they have, or have not, performed altruistic citizenship behaviors in a work setting. Heilmans' result is shown in women to be judged more negatively than men whatever they did with respect to helping behavior: When they helped, they were not awarded the high regard bestowed upon men, and when they did not help, only they, not men, paid the price in terms of performance evaluations and reward recommendations. Our results are unfortunately not consistent with Heilman's. In Mongolian result females are consistently lower than for males. The female employee in the workplace narrative was consistently rated higher in terms of PERFORMANCE, COMPETENCE, and INTERPERSONAL. This difference was small but significant, and it was present regardless of the employee's altruistic behavior. However, when the female employee was not altruistic, she suffered a large penalty in recommended rewards. The male employee received no such penalty. This finding illustrates the notion that "Talk is cheap." The respondents were happy to say nice things about the female employee. But when it was time to assign concrete rewards such as money and promotion, they were more generous towards the male employee.

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