GENDER DIFFERENCE AND FACTORS AFFECTING TOWARDS THE CAREER PROGRESS OF STATE UNIVERSITY LECTURERS

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ABSTRACT

Title of Dissertation	Gender Difference and Factors Affecting towards the Career Progress of State University Lecturers
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The objective of this research was to 1) study the career progress of state universities lecturers, both male and female, in term of administrative position and academic position 2) compare the career progress of them, both male and female, in term of the objective career progress and the subjective career progress and 3) analyze the factors impacting their career progress, both male and female.

The research methodology composed of 1) documentary research from annual report of the office of higher education commission and different state universities annual report 2) survey research using three – stage stratified sampling from 8 universities. The 400 samples composed of 200 males and 200 females from 4 universities in Bangkok and peripheral area, and 4 universities in provinces. The questionnaire was used for gathering data from the samples and percentage, arithmetic mean, standard deviation and multiple regression were used for analyzing the data. And 3) in - depth interview was used for gathering data from the samples, consisting of 30 professors, 15 males and 15 females, and 30 lecturers, also 15 males and 15 females, by semi – structural interview form and additionally through observation by the researcher.

The result revealed that the total numbers of state universities lecturers in the past were more males than females and there are more females than males at present. Furthermore the members of social sciences and humanities are more females than males, members of sciences and technologies, and health sciences are more males

than females. The professor position, both level 10 and 11, are males than females. Firstly, most of this position are health sciences members, secondly, they are sciences and technologies, and the last are social sciences and humanities members.

Moreover, it was revealed that 52.75% of universities members hold a highest master's degree, most of them were females and 46.50% hold a highest doctoral degree, most of them were males. In addition, 58.00% of the males hold a highest degree from foreign countries, and 43.75% of females were lectureships in universities at the start of their working.

It was found that factors impacting the different career progress between males and females at statistical significant at 0.05 level composed of gender identities, for males clearly that were self – confidence, enthusiasm, decision – making, and make an adjustment, and for females, clearly that were endeavor, exhaustiveness, dedication and coordination. Furthermore, gender attitude was another factor towards career progress, especially the administrative position, males were more accepted than females as well as males got a chance to promote, to be supported, and to be expected than females. Besides, females still had more household tasks responsibilities than males.

In term of in – depth interview revealed that the factor affecting on career progress of professors level 11 were composed of 1) individual factors such as expectation of life, intention and endeavor, working awareness, and responsibilities 2) organizational factors such as policy, planning, promotion process, financial and materials support, including organization climate and organizational culture. As for lecturers level 7, that were still in the same position after more than 10 years, were composed of their individual attitude concerning promotion process of academic, lack of motivation, time management, too much routine work, too heave of a teaching load in many subjects, student supervision, consulting on student activities, and other committee duties in administrative position. In conclusion, it was able to summarize that the trend in the future, males expect to progress to higher positions more than females do.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Statement and Background of the Research

The progress is what everybody of all occupations desires. Different professions have different indicators and path of progress, including different opportunities and factors leading to the progress. Particularly, male/female or gender differences has been widely interested – either at national and international level – as it has become a topic discussed in seminars and academic conferences on gender inequality because of its global relation to human rights principle and human development. Such movement has arisen because women throughout the world still do not have opportunities and social status as equal as males' in many aspects. This is an important issue needed to be solved in order to have gender equality in society, which is essential to enhance the country's capability to create economic and social progress, eliminate the poverty and raise the people's quality of life (National Women Cooperation and Promotion Committee, 1997: 1). It means the promotion of equality in development for everyone, so that the people are the center for coherent development in every aspect.

Gender equality means opportunities open to women to study or to work equally as men. If doing the same work or holding the same position as males, females must have equal incomes, rights, and social welfare, including political role, decision-making power, and opportunities to be promoted from working performances as males do. The gender equality has become a topic discussed in academic curriculum for the first time during the International Conference on Population and Development –ICPD at Cairo, Egypt in 1994 (2537 B.E.), known as

ICPD Cairo 94. And ever since, the gender equality has been formally promoted; development plans and projects have been created to reduce gender differences. Particularly, a number of developing countries have proposed new laws and improved the old ones in order to boost female status, including strategies in different aspects for female development, such as promotion of fertility service for HIV prevention, measurement to stop violence against females, including the promotion of their roles in politic, education, better chance of progress in job position according to the work lines, elimination of every kind of unfair discrimination treatment against females(National Women Cooperation and Promotion Committee, 1997 : 10 – 12).

Gender equality has been promoted with interest and put into practice seriously in order to help females improve their quality of life and increase their opportunities in societies. Since their number accounts for half of the world population, females are therefore indispensable human resources for development. The United Nation Fund and Population Agencies (UNFPA), the agency responsible for the promotion of gender equality, has implemented the resolution of the 36th conference of the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) by imposing the 11th July of every year as "World Population Day", especially on the 11th July 1990 (2533 B.E.) when the speculated number of world population would rise to five billions, in order to stimulate countries to realize and be interested in population problems in every aspect, including using the resolution as guideline to plan and to find a solution for population problems. The year 2005 (2548 B.E.) was consequently declared the year of gender equality promotion in order to eliminate gender differences, both in social and economic aspect, as well as to enhance females' opportunities, participation in decision-making, and more progress in their working life, which are basic rights of gender equality.

Lecturers of state universities, a type of civil servant belonging to the Office of the Higher Education Commission, or the former Ministry of Higher Education Affair, are personnel employed and assigned to be responsible for teaching students, conducting research and providing academic service. They are under the office of the Higher Education Commission who supervises work quality assessment, sets up the position structure, as well as criteria to determine lecturers' progress according to the work path as restricted by regulations of the University Council. (Government

Gazette, 2004 : 6 – 7). These state university lecturers are subsequently different from other civil servants belonging to other state organizations state or even other university civil servants belonging to other work lines. For lecturers or Line A, the Academic Rank Classification (ARC) is criteria principally used to determine academic positions, which affect lecturers' career progress, salaries, compensations, and other higher beneficial rights corresponding to their ranks. Criteria used for consideration are the duration of work, level of educational qualification, knowledge and ability, personal and special expertise in the fields of academic position. Academic position holders are classified into 4 ranks; lecturer, assistant professor, associate professor, and professor, each of which has criteria of progress level by means of position and level of salary as follows:

Table 1.1 Level of Salary and Academics Position

Academic position	Level of salary
1. Lecturer	- Level 3-7 and 8 (special case)
2. Assistant professor	- Level 6-8 and 9 (special case)
3. Associate professor	- Level 7-9 and 10 (special case)
4. Professor	- Level 9-10 and 11 (expert case)

Source : Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2004: 11 – 12.

The table shows that the progress of state university lecturers depends on criteria determined by academic positions, not administrative positions like other line of civil servants. When considering the criteria, gender differences are not factors obstructing or preventing opportunities to career progress. However, when considering the number of lecturers – 24,352 persons – of 24 state universities that belonged to the former Ministry of Higher Education Affairs in 2547 B.E., of which 12,096 were males (49.87%) and 12,157 females (50.13%), there were 347 lecturers holding professorship positions; of which 235 were males (67.72%) and 112 females (32.28%). Furthermore, among these professors, there were 51 professors of level 11,

and 47 of them (92.16%), were males and only 4 females (7.84%) (Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2005: 158). It shows that female lecturers held the highest academic positions far less than their male counterparts despite their higher number in total population.

Academic positions of university lecturers are important indicators demonstrating academic quality and standard for the quality insurance system and university classification, either at national or international level. Therefore, every university has a policy to encourage lecturers to create work to achieve academic positions, because apart from being their personal progress, the achievement is in turn also beneficial to academic development and to raise the level of academic status of that university as well. Besides, according to situations at present and in the near future, every university has to adapt to new structural system, with more academic competition. Meanwhile, a number of senior lecturers with high academic positions have been retiring, leading to critical shortage of intellectual manpower. As a result, the promotion to have new generation of lecturers entering into academic posts is needed, so that the replacement for the outgoing generation keeps the lecturer proportion suitable for both university and personnel development coordinately.

When considering the number of lecturers of state university, female lecturers slightly outnumbered their male counterparts, that is 50.13% and 49.87% respectively, but only 32.28% of female lecturers were level-10 professorship holders, and only 7.84% of them ranked level-11 professorship. A big difference from those of the male professorship is explicit at both levels, even though both genders, according to criteria, have equal opportunities. In addition, it was also found that female lecturers holding academic positions of assistant professor and associate professor more than male lecturers (Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2005:1), but moved to higher academic positions in less number than their male counterparts, who in contrast moved to higher positions more than them in proportion. Therefore, this is an interesting topic for conducting research in order to know which and how factors cause such differences.

Besides, females are still restricted to cultural and social roles on looking after members of the family and being responsible for house affairs as in the old days, even though many of them also work outside, resulting in their limited time to improve

themselves and to seek progress in their careers (Hersch and Strattion, 1977: 289). Moreover, the culture of each organization also plays an important role in accepting females' ability to hold key positions of organizations less than their males counterpart do, especially administrative position (Tipawadee Meksawan, 1994: 32). Furthermore, a large number of women still think that administration is men's job, so they are not interested in administrative posts, resulting in less opportunities and support to move to administrative position than the males (Miller, Kerr and Reid, 1999: 218). Even though administrative positions are also partially indicator of career progress, but so far there have been very few females holding the highest administrative position of a university, or rector; there have been only 5 female rectors from all 24 universities (Office of Civil Service Commission, 2002: 19), and in 2004 B.E., there were only two of them (Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2005: 14).

There is still another reason from working characters or working behaviors that affects career progress. According to a report (Harper, 1997: 158), it was found that factors influencing working quality of life consisted of personal factors and organizational factors. Personal factors consisted of age, marital status, level of education, work experience, position and work in responsibility. While organizational factors consisted of policy, target, regulation, facilities, interrelation among personnel, and organizational structure – collectively called atmosphere in organization – which played important role in creating individual's working behaviors or working characters. As any working personnel in any organization has to deal with rules, organization's directions, superiors, and colleagues; therefore, an individual's work outcome, behaviors, perception or understanding of the environment, satisfaction in and pride of work are consequently the results of atmosphere in organization. Brown & Moberg, (1980 : 667) have suggested that if any change or development in organization is needed, what executives or developers of organizations must primarily consider is the atmosphere in organization, because it boosts individuals' satisfaction and enhances their quality of working life, as well as enabling the personnel to have working patterns that result in the organization's efficiency. Then both personnel and organization achieve their intended goal simultaneously (Hellriegel and Slocum,

1989: 430). The atmosphere in organization is then substantial to working life and the progress of university lecturers as well.

According to the reasons mentioned above, the researcher is subsequently interested in studying the differences between males and females, and working characters, which have effect on career progress of lecturers of state universities, so that the to-be-acquired information will be useful for planning, making or imposing policies or regulations to encourage equally lecturers' progress in career, either males or females, to develop suitably human resources in accordance to adjustment as future universities under state supervision, with equality between males and female, together with academic quality development to reach international standard according to the objective of universities' development, and be able to enter into international classification system accordingly.

1.2 Objectives of the Research

1.2.1 To study state university lecturers' progress in career, both males and females, either in administrative or academic work line.

1.2.2 To conduct, subjectively and objectively, comparative study on state university lecturers' progress in career, both males and females.

1.2.3 To analyze data in order to find out factors affecting the career progress of state university lecturers, both males and females.

1.3 Scope of the Research

1.3.1 The target population of this research is lecturers of 24 state universities, which belong to the former Ministry of University affairs, or at present, the Office of the Higher Education Commission, but excluding other educational institutions which have been transferred into its supervision recently, because they have different institutional structure and management.

1.3.2 The study on career progress is related to lecturers' positions either in academic or administrative work line which is categorized into: 1) progress in academic curriculum, meaning holding academic positions, such as assistant

professor, associate professor, professor; 2) progress in administrative line, meaning holding positions or used to holding positions in different levels of universities. The study in this part covers an overview throughout the country.

1.4 Anticipated Benefits from the Research

1.4.1 To be information demonstrating working life and career progress of university lecturers, who are grouped according to gender, age, educational attainment, academic position, discipline.

1.4.2 To be information for administrators, people involved in policy-making and planning as considerations to promote state university lecturers to enter into academic positions.

1.4.3 To be information for university lecturers and those entering into this career as work guideline to achieve progress in career.

1.4.4 To be information for those interested in studying gender differences and work characteristics in other aspect in the future.

CHAPTER 2

CONCEPTS, THEORIES, RELATED RESEARCH, AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THE RESEARCH

The research has found concepts, theories, and related research, as follows:

2.1 Gender Differences

Gender differences signify the manhood and womanhood characteristics imposed by social roles according to individuals' duty and responsibility for permanent work, both at home and at workplace, their assigned jobs or involvement to social groups. It is different from term "sex", which means individuals' naturally inborn physical characteristics. In contrast, gender differences are imposed by social institutions, which encompass individuals' work, practices in the family, social opportunities, employment, education, as well as opinion, attitudes (Anderson and Collins, 1995: 67) As a result, genders are different due to each society's cultural structure and rules, values, and belief (Wood, 1997: 25), whereas sex is personal biological characteristics unrelated to social and cultural factors (Wood, 1997: 23)

Partially gender differences are imposed by using physical characteristics or sex as relevant to individuals' personal characteristics, work, and social opportunity, which cause the differences in gender roles, such as the separation of toys or belongings between boys and girls, unisex schools, as well as professional occupations in many fields which are distinctively separated by sex (Staggenburg, 1998: 2-3) Consequently, gender differences have been established in social institutions, organizations, and agencies, including the differences in males' and females' roles on responsibilities for the family, household tasks, and social responsibilities, as well as attitudes, opinion, and behaviors in each society and culture (Forisha, 1978: 399) Therefore, cultural factors are determinant of social

standards which have effects on individuals' gender and professional careers in society.

2.2 Gender Roles in Family and Society

Gender differences concerning roles on family and society are aspects apparently seen in nearly all societies. At present, an increasing number of females work outside the home and have more social roles than in the past, but housework tasks which have been females' from the past –taking care of the home and members of the family –are still unchanged. Even though for some women, these roles in their families have been reduced by hiring domestic servants, or due to many formal nurseries available, others still have these roles in the family despite not doing some tasks by themselves. Such practice is a cause impacting women working outside the home lose their time and opportunities to develop themselves at certain level. According to a study, females have the following 7 important roles in family and society (Oppong and Abu, 1985 : 8 – 25)

2.2.1 Parental role. The female still has her roles in looking after children, especially young children. It is both her direct natural and social duty to raise, take care, teach, give preliminary knowledge, as well as transfer thoughts, attitudes, belief, etiquette, tradition, social norms to their children. Besides, she also has to take care of family's health, nutrition, and expenditure so that these will be beneficial to all members of the family –whether husband, children, siblings, relatives, etc.

2.2.2 Occupational role. The female still has her roles in work, whether a dutiful work or housework, family's work or family's occupation such as in agricultural society or home industry society. The woman takes part in production activities and brings income for the family, as well as the work in relevance to her social role, i.e. working outside which is a new role in modern society, which has become more important in earning income for the family, being a part in developing the society, including the country as a whole, in which women play consistently increasingly roles.

2.2.3 Conjugal / Spouses Role. The woman is a part in creating a complete family, with her definite position in the family –a wife for the dutiful sexual role,

taking care of the correctness of the household expenses, as well as playing her role in supporting ideas, decision-making, encouragement, giving consultation and advice as her responsibility for the family, children, and household task as she deserves.

2.2.4 Domestic/Housewife role. The woman has important roles in taking care of the conditions of household belongings, facilities, etc. by rearranging, decorating, keeping them in good condition ready to be used. This role also embodies maternal behaviors, wifehood, kinship, and individuality in taking care of members of the family, and family's affairs, whether they are income, goods or service, which the family is the direct producing unit.

2.2.5 Kinship role. The woman has kinship roles in the family according her birth orders, such as being an older or younger sister, niece, maternal/paternal younger/older aunt, maternal/paternal grand-mother, and each status bears its particular responsibilities depending on each society's imposition. Playing any role relevant to one's status depends on the age; for example, the eldest sister has to help do housework and take care of younger brother(s)/sister(s), or the grand-mother helps take care of the tidiness in household and raise grand-children, etc.

2.2.6 Community role. The woman is a member of the society where she lives, and is supposed to play social roles to help the community and society according each society's traditional and cultural context, such as performing religious ceremonies, taking part in community's product improvement, participating in political activities, being volunteer, joining groups performing community's activities during annual festivals, etc.

2.2.7 Individual role. The female has her legal independency, being able to choose and decide the ways of life, to work, express, use leisure time, and behave within legal, traditional, cultural framework of the society. An individual's role varies from one society to another in terms of expression, decision-making, living-pattern selection, including restrictions and opportunities to play the role the woman deserves according to social rules and norms.

2.3 Gender Differences and Social Inequality

Two important issues widely considered since the outset of the discussion about females' status in society which demonstrate the distinctive gender differences specifically in occupation are income and work position. Sex determines these two differences. Particularly, the low-level jobs of the unskilled workers, females are not socially treated as equally as their male counterparts, such as income. It is found that characteristically, most work women do does not need physical force, and is carried out inside buildings, with more comfort and security than men's work. As a result, the woman's pay is lower than men's (England and Farkao, 1986: 166)

Furthermore, there are also other considerations to set women's wages lower than men's even if it is the same kind of work that needs physical labor. But the reason provided is that a woman can physically work less than a man, and that her income is only additional earning for the family, while the family's main income earners is man's –the head of the family –so it is not necessarily pay women the same wages as men's (Nieva and Gutek, 1981: 105) This issue illustrates an inequality that exists in working life of males and females.

In regard to job position, though females have had high education and are considered professional workers, there are still gender differences in taking high position in many state organizations. For example, in the USA there are females holding administrative posts in universities only 16% (Angelo, 1991: 24), while in Thailand there are only 5 females holding the posts of university rector from 24 universities, making 20.83% , and 29 vice-rectors from 24 universities, accounting for 23.31% (Office of Civil Service Commission, 2003: 22) Even though opportunities and ratios have increased, their number is, however, still less than males'. And in other civil servant work lines, it is found that the number of holders of position level 10 and 11 is distinctively different: for example; among ordinary civil servants level-10, there are 77 females (13.83%), and only 3 females holding level 11 (10.34%); for ordinary parliamentary civil servants level 10, there are 2 females (33.33%), and 1 female holding level 11 (50.00%); and among Bangkok's level-10 civil servants, there are 23 females (8.00%), and 1 female (50.00%) at level 11, etc (Office of Civil Service Commission, 2003: 9, 11 and 17) The statistics shows that in general females

holding high positions in state organizations are still relatively in small proportion compared to males'.

2.4 Gender Differences and Working in Organization

Each organization or work unit consists of workers of different positions, either permanent workers, who work full time, or those working periodically. An organization is then consisted of members or personnel who are different in terms of personal factors, such as gender, age, marital status, educational level, etc. There are concepts for the development of career progress, and related to gender differences as follows:

2.4.1 Elements in Working and Gender Differences. According to a study on gender roles and gender differences in working, it has been found that there are 4 factors related to the differences in income and career progress in work path as follows (Acker, 1992: 252-254) First, the work structure is divided according to sex, resulting in the differences in setting work characteristics, wage or salary, line of command, progress and support. Second, the internal organization management, it determines the positions in the organization in relation to the progress, fame, and income. Holders of different posts are provided with different pay, welfare and beneficial rights. Third, the categorization of work in relevance to gender physical characteristics, as well as work characteristics that need time, knowledge, and expertise leads to the differences in compensation, and progress opportunity. And fourth, it is personal feeling or perception involving the assignment which brings different incomes, or career progress. Attitude about sex determines the one to take that job; if thinking that it will be done successfully by man, or it is perceived as more suitable to a man, the woman is not considered to take the job as a consequence, etc.

Such gender differences are an aspect of organizational culture which is generalized into femininity and masculinity theories which signify the opposite. Hofstede (1991: 59) has defined that femininity is an aspect that explains gender role characteristics in organization. It explains the relationships between the administrator's decision pattern and the chief of staff, colleagues, and the perception of organization's target, including specific characteristics of positions and

occupations. For example, jobs needing workers with feminine characteristics are like public relation, reception, cooperation, and work that need subtlety, etc., the organization may consider the better career progress, income, or beneficial rights to the worker bearing feminine characteristics rather than to the one with masculine characteristics. So femininity is represented by those with subtlety, reconciliation, calmness, gentleness, who place more importance on detail and tidiness. In organizations prevailed with femininity culture, administrators usually resolve problems by means of negotiation, mediation, flexibility, and the determination on compensation is based on opinions, feelings, and organizational culture.

On the other hand, masculinity is an aspect explaining individuals' characteristics according to their decision making and consideration in relevance to principle, reasons rather than to feelings. They are highly self-confident, patient, and emphasizing tangible success, enthusiast in working and competition. Organizational climate is prevailed with order, regulations, strictness, outcome emphasis, and occasional absolute judgment. Organizations of masculinity culture usually have orders and disciplines, and consideration for compensation is based on principle and reasons, according to the responsibility and anticipated targets. The administrators are confident and making bold decisions by relying on rules more than on opinions or feelings.

Masculinity and femininity culture in organizations result in different working atmosphere in organizations. Each type of culture is suitable to certain types of structure, work characteristics, and administration depending on each organization's type, pattern and objectives of each organization, and it makes the personnel adjust their working method to be in line with work system in order to achieve the ultimate target –the progress and the success of the work.

2.4.2 Gender differences as organizational resources. Personnel of either gender of an organization are organization's equally important resources according to their positions and responsibilities of the work line. Therefore, administrators should give the importance to the development, encouragement, and facilitation of each of its personnel's working to the utmost according to his/her responsibility, so that everyone is satisfied with and proud of the work. That will result in organizational efficient development, justice in the body, and the equal progress in personnel's career.

Actually, the essence of organizational development should also include its human resource, by giving gender equality beginning from setting appropriate target, policy, plan and direction of the development. Acker (1992: 254) suggests that administrators or decision-makers should understand gender differences, both physical and characteristic, in order to direct a well-balanced developmental process in all aspects of encouragement and support, whether in terms of further education, training courses, skill or experience enhancement courses, and progress opportunity in work line.

2.4.3 Gender differences and organizational climate. They concern individuals' perception of work which consists of physical environment, policy, goal, administrative and management system, colleagues, superiors. All these involve individuals' working and create certain sensation, satisfaction, organizational attachment that result in their intention to work for the career progress and organizational success simultaneously. Lewin (1981: 37-47) is the first person conducting the study on organizational climate since 1930. He tried to link individuals' behaviors with their environment in order to explain that the relationships between individuals in organization are consequences of 2 components; personal characteristics and organizational environment which are interrelated, and have great effect on work and organizational development.

Later on, there are some people studying this issue and suggest that organizational climate is the first thing imposed by administrators, which affects their relationships to organization's personnel (Mcgregor, 1960: 81) Then Litwin and Stringer (1968: 111-112) studied about motivation and organizational climate and have found that organizational climate has an effect on motivating personnel to work to reach the achievement, and also creates organizational attachment. Similarly, Killian (1968: 202-203) has found that organizational climate creates motivation, satisfaction, and the success of organization; and organizational climate results from mutual understanding and good attitudes in organization, reflected in the acceptance of the success and effectiveness of the organization. Besides, Prichard and Karasick (1993: 90) have found that organizational climate is related to the sub-units' work outcomes, and individual's satisfaction with work.

Consequently, organizational climate has influence on individuals' working behaviors or working characteristics in organizations. Even though it is created by the chiefs or executives, it can still be adjusted to create satisfaction, be relevant to the needs of organization's personnel and to improve working atmosphere to be always suitable to situations in order to increase the work efficiency (Haimann and others, 1978: 417) Moreover, Steers and Porter (1979: 346) have emphasized on organizational climate that it is an important separator for organizational study, and that the analysis of organization's personnel's working behaviors, and of the efficiency and effectiveness of an organization cannot be complete if the environment of the organization, collectively called organizational climate, is neglected, because it plays an essential role in creating directly organization's personnel's attitudes and working behaviors. Likewise, Brown and Moberg's research (1980: 420) has found that organizational climate not only sets its personnel's patterns of expectations about the organizations' components, but also sets their positive attitudes and satisfaction to keep on working with the organization. So if any improvement, change or development in an organization is needed, the first thing to be considered is the organizational climate, because it impacts the organization's personnel and its efficiency.

Regarding factors influencing organizational climate, Knowles (1974: 239) has divided into 5 groups: 1) Policy framework for human resources development. It is the organization's objective to develop its personnel directly, which is set as a clear policy. 2) Management philosophy. It is the organizational administrative system under the management concept which places importance on organization's personnel to have opportunities to develop themselves in order to finally develop the organization. 3) Organizational structure. The setting of an organization's administrative pattern can encourage or support its personnel to develop themselves, to be interested in learning and enthusiast in seeking the career progress, or can be, in contrast, an obstacle of the career progress in work line. 4. Financial policy. The organization's budget allocated for personnel development indicates obviously the importance of personnel development by means of financial support, which results in personnel' awareness of their own value and the importance of self-development. 5) Reward system. It is some kinds of reward by means of raising salary or position, or

any other forms of benefits in order to motivate the personnel to increase their knowledge or experiences or to develop themselves to have more progress.

In the same year, James and Jones (1974: 1098-1099) studied the components influencing the organizational climate, and have, similarly, divided into 5 components as follows: 1) Organizational context. It comprises philosophy of administration, goals or objectives of the organization, and administrative behaviors of the administrators. If the desirable climate can be created in the organization, the organization's personnel will collectively work to reach desired goal of the organization. 2) Organizational structure. The power, role, duty, and responsibility of the personnel are clearly specified according to work path, so the workers understand and recognize their work line with definite direction. 3) Organizational process. It is the planning and working pattern, communication, operational outcome report, which influences the working atmosphere in organization, and is capable to simultaneously transform policy into practices and create the relationships between personnel in organizations. 4) Physical environment. It is the environment, both in the workplace and outside; for example, geographical characteristics, location and size of the organization, decoration is in positive, reliable condition, with the cleanliness, convenience, danger-free, the organization's personnel will work with high-spirited feeling. 5) Organizational value system and norms. They are behaviors expressed to accept or resist one or many issues, whether formally or informally, which affect the different behaviors of members of the organization, and result in their work outcomes as well.

Organizational climate plays an important role in encouraging workers' commitment to work, love, organizational attachment, and satisfaction with work, which are workers' subjective progress. According to a research, it has been found that organizational climate concerning policy, objective, and support of the organization make the personnel feel motivated and encouraged to work with their full capacity, with intention to be successful as targeted, and that gender differences do not have effect on the achievement of their work (Phillips and others. 1996, 54) Furthermore, organizational structure and its physical environment also play an important role in enhancing the workers to achieve the career progress as well (Nabi, 2001: 457) Colleagues and organizational working process, in addition, affect the

advancement in work as well (Rowley, 1996: 14; Wood and Lindorff, 2001: 154; Okpara, 2005: 179) Therefore, organizational climate is what every organization must recognize its importance and has to create in order to help its personnel to work with full capacity for the benefit of its progress and success.

2.5 Sex and Gender Difference Thought

2.5.1 Sex and Gender Thought

The term “sex” refers to biological characteristics that signifies the inborn differences between male and female, signifying either sex is built different from the other by having its unique physical characteristics; for example, female characteristics are menstruation, pregnancy, breast, breast milk, etc, and on the other hand, beard and moustache, hair on the shank, or strong muscles are male characteristics, etc. these appearances are common explicit traits of each sex respectively (Lorber and Farrell, 1991: 7)

Whereas gender differences or gender roles have many definitions, such as gender status, gender condition, gender relativity, or masculinity and femininity. These definitions are related to social and cultural context as social or cultural conditions impose males and females conduct or have different characters and behavioral traits. These characteristics may vary according to the changing social situations and conditions. In analyzing gender roles, it does not deal with the roles or qualifications of a specific individual, but the roles, characters, responsibilities, restrictions, or needs of males and females anywhere and in any social context (Unesco, 2000: 47-48)

Gender identity is the perception, acceptance, belief, or the state of being convinced that femininity or masculinity is imposed to roles, attitudes, ways of life, and relationships with others in society in relevance to gender characteristics or specifications. However, all these are not individuals’ inborn characteristics, but imposed by social and cultural system, which accept certain conduct or characteristics practiced by one gender, but not accepting if the same conduct or characteristics practiced by another. This attitude originates from:

1) Androcentrism. It is the belief holding the male's ability or experience as social norms and principle concept to classify the qualifications of people in society, meanwhile taking the female's ability and experience as inferior to the male. Consequently, the public accept men's ability as superior to women's, resulting in women's inferiority to men accordingly.

2) Gender polarization. It means the use of concepts or belief that there are differences between the two genders, or inequality between them from birth as principles in formulating social and cultural rules and order. Thus, genders are pre-set to be different, and becoming reasons to explain social issues and human's behaviors as stemming from these gender differences, and also used to impose the differences and inequality of men's and women's social roles, behaviors, clothing, emotional expressions, and activities in life.

3) Biological essentialism is the use of the belief encouraging, supporting the recognition that males' and females' physical differences are built by nature. So as men are physically built stronger than women, they must be naturally superior to women in society.

These three beliefs have been transferred systematically via social, traditional, cultural, educational, and socialization institutions so that men and women have become different and unequal. Such beliefs have become social attitudes and social values, which individuals recognize or convincingly follow, and use them to build their identity or specific characteristics of the specific gender according to these beliefs and keep on practicing accordingly.

2.5.2 Gender Roles and Analysis

Gender roles mean doing one's duty or behaving in accordance with what prescribed by the society, which varies from one society to another. Gender roles can change depending on the society whether it sees suitable for any gender at any certain time. Besides, gender roles are also related to individuals' accessibility to, applicability of, and controllability upon resources, because different genders have different rights, power, and responsibilities and are expected from society differently. In addition, gender roles imposed by any society also affect directly and substantially

male's and female's status in that society, which cause the differences between genders in societies (Passorn Limanond, 1999 : 1)

Gender analysis means considering the differences between males and females in terms of activities or specific roles, conditions, needs of opportunity, accessibility to service and resources, including the impact of the development on men and women in society. Besides, it is also used as an instrument to study the linkage to social, economic, and environmental context. The analysis is to display preliminary information concerning gender differences, and is one of the first in importance to identify precisely the data of each gender for comparison in order to be used in the planning to create the equality between males and females (Unesco, 2000: 47) The issues of the analysis can be categorized as follows:

1) Gender relations mean interactive behaviors between the two genders in family and society, which are inequitable power relationships between them, together with involving factors capable to changes the relationships and may affect changes in the existing roles. They are; social factors, such as occupational shift, economic structure adjustment, the relocation or the change of workplace; political factors, such as the change of government, formulation of a new policy, improvement of regulations or adjustment in new laws; and demographic factor, such as migration, the expansion of urban communities, change of age range, etc.(Methinee Pongvej, 2001; 8)

2) Gender equality is a concept to develop human resource based on the belief that the mankind, both male and female, has already his/her own natural ability, and that everyone should be provided with equal rights and opportunity to develop his/her own capability, with the ability to choose or making decision by himself/herself without being restricted by regulations or by the will unfairly created in society. Furthermore, the consideration about gender inequality also concern behaviors, desires, and need for necessities of life, as well as the self-development to uplift his/her own potentiality to be more valuable, meaningful, prestigious, deserved to be a human-being as much as others, regardless being born male or female (Unesco, 2000; 48)

3) Gender equity is a concept to create the justice between the genders. The formulation of regulations, together with their implementations to people in

society must be carried out fairly, equitably, without discrimination or different treatment. Such justice can be considered from rights, benefits, opportunity granted as to an individual without discrimination against sex (Unesco, 2000: 48) If men and women are treated fairly despite sex differences, it means that they are allowed to take part in social and national development to the full extent, and at the same time it is a examination of the social system that causes injustice to any gender in order to be used as information to find measurement to resolve or compensate fairly the disadvantages inflicted on any gender (Methinee Pongvej, 2001: 10)

4) Gender mainstreaming is a process to find an approach by which bringing both males and females to participate in the planning of legal factual framework, policy making, and project planning in every location and every level. It is a strategy allowing men and women to participate in and experience different dimensions involving the control, management, and assessment of political, economic, and social outcome, which help males and females receive the equal, well-balanced benefits, without much difference, that leads to the final goal –gender equality in the society (Unesco, 2000: 49)

5) Gender dimension is an analytical perspective of different aspects of the study on gender roles for comprehensive justice, equality, beneficial rights, and opportunities in different dimension, such as social, developmental, legal, educational, economic, political, administrative, etc. Each dimensional view point places importance on each gender difference aspect, and is to be consideration leading to mainstream development (Unesco, 2000: 82)

2.5.3 Gender Differences Thought

Gender differences can be considered from many angles; the scientific point of view may be interested in the natural origin of male and female, while in social sciences, there are concepts of or interest in the roles performed according to individuals' social status, etc. There are many concepts of the study on gender differences as follows:

1. Biological Thought and Gender Difference.

This concept considers natural differences, the most basic concept about the origin of the inborn physical differences, as natural creation, and that the human-beings follow the natural and racial rules. Human-beings are different from other animals because they are capable to adjust themselves to the environment, as well as improving the environment useful to themselves. More importantly, human-being's most special quality compared to other animals is that their brain is the biggest in proportion of their body than any other animals'. Therefore, their brain has more capacity to memorize and to think about the linkage of different matters. Consequently, gender differences according to this concept are relevant to biological and natural theory, that is males and female are naturally different due to their different biological characteristics, such as the brain volume, muscle or hormone types in each gender.

The obvious biological gender differences are that human bodies are created differently; for example, women's capability of childbearing, giving birth to baby, breast-feeding, whereas men are incapable to do all these. These characteristics are the basis of concepts about gender differences, which are related, in turn, to ways of life in society, as well as becoming the rationalization of organizing the society with gender differences. The concept is based on scientific facts explaining the gender differences as originating from hormone influences, which have effect on the newly born babies and are determinants of male or female physical characteristic, without explaining of which gender the hormones are better, or cause one gender superior to another. Despite physical differences between the two genders, but they are equal in terms of brain. Women may possibly be more patient than men due to their estrogen hormone, of which the men lack. But men may have stronger body because of their different muscular cells, the bigger bone structure, which is natural creation. Given the stronger muscles and bones than women, men's social roles and activities are then recognized and valued as superior to women's (Pranee vongthet, 2001: 7-8)

2. Psychological Thought and Gender Differences

This concept uses psychological principle to study gender differences. It uses this theory to explain behaviors of members of each gender by

means of observation of their behaviors or expressions, which are different but can be measured or examined. The determinant or cause leading to the differences in members of each gender's behaviors is gene and the environment or the society. Since their birth, human beings are greatly influenced by the environment, both on their behaviors or expressions. Most gender differences are also results of environment influences, the bringing-up process and socialization in addition to physical and genetic differences (Brannon, 2005: 101)

Psychologists explain that children tend to place much importance on characteristics indicating sexual trait. For example, the children younger than 6-7 years old bear already in their mind precise notions about which toys, belongings, clothes, or other things are suitable to females and which ones suitable for males, because they perceive that sex is their specific characteristic and the precise separation between sex is necessary. But when getting older and understanding that sex is a bodily physical trait unchangeable in accordance with behaviors; for example, no matter whether having haircut short or leaving it long, or wearing any clothing style, they still remain males or females according to their physique. Human beings begin to learn their own sex status since their childhood from socialization. Psychologically, the learning process can be explained in 2 approaches (Brannon, 2005: 160):

1) Social learning. Children learn sex roles by observing others around them, such as parents, adult relatives, and peers. Whether the children adopt or imitate the roles directly as seen depends on how the stereotypes have effect or influence on him. For instance, if imitating, what they will get in return, such as desirable objects, compliments, praises or satisfaction, both to the children and stereotypes, etc.

2) Realization and development. Children adopt behaviors and values on selective basis of similarity, that is what resembles to themselves and what are different. Each child makes decision and distinguishes by himself/herself rather than by others' reinforcement, and the child also chooses to adopt only the reinforcement corresponding to his/her own perception and gender.

Psychologists are interested in gender differences in different aspects, such as the differences in intellectual ability between boys and girls. It has been found

that boys are more skillful or do better in subjects concerning theory, principle, concept, such as mathematics, science, philosophy etc. than girl, while girls are more skillful or do better in subjects concerning subjects with subtle content, such as languages, literature, social matters, etc. than boys. Such differences in competence or achievement result from their different disposition, will, and liking rather than from their inborn ability. And their interest can alter. As a result, gender differences depend on individuals' overall interest related to each gender's disposition.

3. Psychoanalysis Thought and Gender Difference

Psychoanalysis theory explains the causes of behaviors, which is different from psychological aspect that studies by means of observing and describing apparent behaviors. But psychoanalysis concept and theory, initiated by Sigmund Freud, explain behaviors by using rational principle (Brannon, 2005: 170), believing that mental phenomena are not accidental, but the consequences of continual development occurring throughout individuals' life since their birth until growing up. Freud's thought and theory help understand human's mind, as well as the importance of sex. Since Freud's theory and liberalism theory based on the same concept, the development of psychoanalysis is consequently interested by feminists, who are curious about the differences and the relationships between men and women, and place importance on sex abuse and social conditions that lead to social changes, and the unequal, unbalanced gender roles. Freud' thought is then used as an approach to explain why men's and women's behaviors are not treated equally and why the society has prejudice toward women.

Freud's psychoanalysis concept does not agree with the belief that gender differences are determined by nature, but believe that gender roles stem from the split or division imposed by the society. As a result, everyone has to accept male or female status, and such status is neither necessarily relevant to biological or physical characteristics of an individual nor satisfying the person. In addition, to use solely the bodily physical factor to identify a male or a female is an issue many psychoanalysts disagree, and has become a subject of debate involving gender roles continually.

According to Freud, gender division begins when infants start to have experience and have desire in sexual pleasure owing to the relationship with their mothers. Mother's love and attachment are then their first goal in life. On the other hand, the father's role represents authority and the leadership in the family, and participation in social roles. Thus, the father's image is the one using authority, having the rights to make decision and to give punishment. Girls begin to learn and shift their goal of love from mother to father and determine their identity by using their mother as model, and hold their father as protector or reliable person. Whereas, boys set their identity by using their father as stereotype and seeking gentleness from their mother, together with trying to replace their father' roles subsequently.

The second gender division begins when the children go into exterior society and are imposed with roles and duties according to their social status and positions. Thus, they are under the domination of cultural rules. This division process takes place when children begin to master the language, which is a mechanism teaching them to realize their social status, and the difference in the relationships between genders in society. However, this concept is much criticized as unfair to women owing to using the notion about male's ability superior to woman as determinant in the division between the two genders, which results in the inferiority of women's status in society. Among the successive psychoanalysts, there are both those who agree and disagree with Freud. Some argue that this concept is to establish a psychological theory to support the males by creating social conditions and rules as norms, obliging the women to always adjust themselves and accept the rules depending on men's demand, instead of adapting themselves to natural rules.

4. Anthropological Thought and Gender Difference

This thought originates from social phenomena showing that people in different societies and cultures are different both physically and socially, thus resulting in the differences in their ways of life, living patterns and rules. Anthropologists are interested in studying gender differences which vary from one culture and society to another depending on nationality, religion, race, domicile, occupation and tradition. This gender role study involves the study on behavior, will,

and expectation in life according to each society's view as appropriate to men or women in society (Glover and Kaplan, 2005: 37)

Margaret Mead, an anthropologist pioneering the study on New Guinean's tradition, has found evidences proving that gender roles are not static. The men's superiority to women in society does not arise naturally and is not universal. Gender roles of each sex in each society have not been imposed directly or statically as biological conditions, but, in every society alike, imposed by cultural reasons that use biological differences as the basis for formulating gender roles (Glover and Kaplan, 2005: 73)

The transfer of gender roles or gender differences is part of social learning and socialization occurring between members of society. Anthropologists focus their interest in the differences in childrearing and teaching, from which males and females receive different roles as prescribed by the society. Besides, each society's social, economic, and political environment also influence the family's socialization. Meanwhile the gender roles each individual receives from learning in the family also help support the stability of the social, economic and political system. Families have to transfer gender roles to their members because they are assigned by the society to teach young ones as members of the society, the parents consequently perform their responsibility and play important role in accomplishing their duty.

In anthropologist view point, gender roles are society's rules set according to cultural system in order to comply with the conditions of ways of life. So in order to have better understanding of gender roles, it is necessary to study the people's relationships which affect each other, both among people in the same society and among those from different societies, including the inheritance and relationships among the kinship members. According to the anthropological studies, it is found that in society, gender roles are set in line with number of family's members. In extended families, gender roles are greatly different, while in nuclear families, these roles are less different or hardly different, because members of nuclear families help each others more than those of extended families (Butler, 1990: 80)

2.5.4 Gender Role and Gender Relations

Gender role is created in accordance to social and cultural system. The role imposed has direct effect on the status, behaviors, and conduct of men and women in society, as well as on gender relations –the consequence of the gender role imposition. And there is also the control of behavior and conduct to be relevant to individuals' sex as prescribed by social norms and values. Because after the society's imposition of roles, duties and responsibilities to men and women, the pattern of gender roles and relations in society become more precise as a result. For example, some societies expect men as leaders and women followers, whereas some societies it may be the opposite, or there are no rule in some societies. Such relations depend on what each society expects from gender role imposition, or what duty each gender renders to the society. Actually, it is found in nearly all societies, females are imposed with inferior roles and status to men (Glover and Kaplan, 2005: 64) as these following considerations:

1. **Factors determining the inequality of gender role**

The gender role inequality results from these factors:

1.1 Natural and biological factors are considerations based on the natural differences of bodily physique or biology as factors determining gender roles. For example, the male's physical structure is designed with bigger bones and stronger muscles than those of women, while female's body is weaker than male's but bears some characteristics not existing in male's body, such as menstruation, pregnancy, baby delivery, and breast milk for raising children etc. The physical differences imposed by nature influence the society to allocate, divide roles and set the responsibilities to men and women differently, which generally accepted as suitable to each sex's physique. And the society expects each gender to follow the behavioral patterns created by members of the society. For example, the pattern concerning etiquette, work, responsibility, or the pattern expecting men to take the roles and activities outside the home, such as in the government, administration, religious ceremonies due to their flexibility and more strength. In contrast, as having weaker physique, the woman is consequently expected to look after the family, cooking, childrearing, and household tasks (Tobias, 1996: 58)

In some societies, women's physical factor is used as determinant of their social role and duty, which causes gender inequality; for instance, the prohibition against women from performing or taking part in certain religious activities, against married women from doing or behaving with superiority to their husband etc. Due to the woman's menstruation, this physical weak point is used by the society to strengthen the belief that women cannot work as hard as men owing to their weaker physique (Young, 1987: 34), which results in imposing social roles with inequality.

1.2 Family structure is a factor causing the work division between genders, resulting in the inequality of gender status in the family. This inequality spreads to the society as well. For example, a nuclear family or small family which has small number of family members, probably due to the beginning of the family, divides the work and responsibility among its members according to gender, using physical characteristics as determinant. The tasks female members usually assigned responsible are cooking, household cleaning, taking care of the home tidiness, including looking after the children or ailing elderly relatives etc. On the other hand, plant watering, taking care of the areas around the house, fixing tools or equipment in the house are usually assigned to male members. In nuclear family, however, the responsibility might not be clear due to the small number of people incapable to cope with the work, so they may take responsibility or duty for one another. In contrast extended family or big family, due to its numerous members and different age ranges living in the same house, this characteristic allow to have the clear responsibility division, and it is apparent that household tasks are more women's responsibilities than men's in almost all families (Tong, 1998: 84)

1.3 Cultural factor and social standard are determinant of the roles of each sex which impose on children since their childhood. Boys and girls are taught or socialized to have different disposition. Children as new members of the family are not allowed to choose, but obliged to accept the will and roles imposed by the society, to comply with rules of such status and pattern, which, in every society, based on natural and biological characteristics. Nonetheless, gender roles prescribed by societies vary from one society to another due to the differences of values and culture, and they are also subject to change according to values, ages and time. Some societies also believe that the man's body embodies both male and female element in the same

person, so men's world is widely open, and provided with much freedom. On the other hand, the woman's body embodies solely female element, consequently, women' world is a closed one and provided with more restrictions than men's. Such belief results in the differences in the men's and women's long-practiced culture and tradition in society, which also reflects in the differences of ways of life patterns (Lorber and Farrell, 1991: 123) They are as follows:

1.3.1 The difference in socialization is the pattern of transferring male or female characteristics to child members of the family via child rearing process, as well as transferring social rules to the children drilled with such belief. For example, male position is to be the leader, and female position is to be follower, or the belief about virginity that women must keep it before marriage is the reason to keep females in restricted areas and they have to obey strictly. In contrast, men are not supposed to keep his virginity, the society allow them to have freedom to live a free life. They can stay outside the home more than women, seeking for the state of leadership, and independency without limit.

1.3.2 The differences in areas to play the roles. Women have restricted areas to express, or live a life in narrower areas than men. Especially, in ancient society or agricultural society, women's roles were restricted to kinship and family system. They had to be responsible to household tasks, while men had larger areas outside the home. They had responsibilities in activities in communal, village, religious, political, and economic institute, and fully took part in social institutes' activities, apart from those of the family.

1.3.3 Role differences. Men and women in society are imposed with different and opposite roles. Their roles, conduct, activities, and responsibilities are divided. Women's roles or responsibilities are often conditioned dependent on men. For example, a man's main role is to earn money for the family, to be family's leader, even though he has also other roles as being a father, husband, son who has to deal with all members of the family, but these roles can be considered as minor. But a woman's main roles are to look after the well-being, the tidiness of the family and its members. She plays her role as a mother, wife, daughter who has to take care directly of her children, husband, parents, as well as relatives. Even if she takes part in working to earn income for the family, the society still expects her to perform her

motherhood and wifehood at the same time. So the women are imposed by many roles and responsibilities at the same time.

2. Power Relations between Men and Women

As apparent in nearly all societies, gender relations are not prescribed with equality. It can be said that men have monopolized power in societies, causing women inferior in the same society. Power relationship between genders has its root in many social factors as follows (Tobias, 1996: 89)

2.1 Women's status after married. After their marriages, women's status in many societies is relegated or their rights reduced, because 75% of women are expected to move to live with their husbands' families. Only 10% of males move to live with the women's. The remaining number builds their new families of nuclear family type, living together only the husband and the wife, and they have been increasingly number. So most women have to adapt themselves to the new environment, submitted to the power and conditions of their husbands' families, and take more responsibilities as assigned from their husbands' families. A large number of women have to live far from their relatives, sometimes lacking close friends or reliable persons, lacking of bargaining power in case of having conflicts against their husbands' families.

2.2 Patrilineage and Polygamy. According to anthropological findings about family line, it is found that most societies at present follow patrilineal system more than matrilineal by 5 times. And in polygamous societies, it is found that societies allow men to have more than one wife as ordinary phenomena than allowing women to do so. Only a few number of societies that allow women to have more than one spouse, while a larger number do not accept such conduct, and condemn women's doing so as violating the rules, and as causing severe damages, and their living in the societies is any longer tolerated.

2.3 Men as the leaders with decision power. This social phenomenon demonstrates obviously the gender inequality. Both in public and private sector in countries worldwide, the executives or top administrators holding high positions like group leaders, tribal chiefs, heads of work units, committee presidents, or leaders of countries etc. of associations, tribal groups, organizations, agencies, are mainly men

than women. So governing and decision power are more in men's hands than women's.

2.4 Men have high value in religious beliefs. As leaders of all religions and of all related institutions are men, some religious rules or restrictions show gender differences as a result. Some religions have prohibitions against women from performing ceremonies or being ordained. Some religions believe that woman can blemish the religions or make the religions tainted, so they should not be involved in ceremonies or religious activities. Since such belief continues to be practiced, consequently, the women do not have equal status in performing religious affairs as men. But such practices do not have sufficiently reliable explanations, except being beliefs transferred from generation to generation.

2.5 Difference in division of work. From the prescription of work for each gender, women are usually assigned to job inferior to men's, being supportive or additional jobs to those of men. As a result, they have less decision or commanding power than men do. They have to work as ordered or according to the structure in which they are classified mostly as subordinate. Even though women have to use great effort or ability to work not less men, and might be even more in some cases, they are expected to be assigned to less important or inferior jobs compared. In addition, women have to take responsibility in household tasks –assigned by society as their duty, but housework –the women's direct responsibility –does not have economic value. In some societies, after having married, women are expected to stop working outside the home in order to take care solely of their husbands, children, and home, while the men –destined as wage-earners for the families –are economically important, praised as family leaders. It is like this nearly in all societies throughout the world.

When considering the laws, tradition, culture and races, it indicates obviously that men are assigned to have power, to be the leaders, and hold better status than women which resulting in gender inequality. It is not only the consequence of natural differences, but also the distribution of social roles which enables men more powerful in managing or doing things than women, both in the families and in societies.

3. Social Values about Masculinity and Femininity

Each society has its own values practiced through time. Values are important factors that influence the raising and socializing children to carry gender differences, which result in males' and females' different patterns of behaviors and conduct. Various values held in societies across the world are paradoxical or double standard, which cause gender inequality; for instance, the value accepting men as suitable leaders or administrators, while women are suitable to be housewives or men's followers etc. As a result, women are not treated fairly and equally when dealing with work. Moreover, this value also affects some of women's behaviors or conduct, such as decision power use, self-confidence, courage in making decision, including opinion expression that might contradict or not in line with public opinions. These behaviors are generally recognized in society as men's rather than women's. If any man dare not express such behaviors, they are often considered as lacking of manhood, and on the contrary, if any women are boldly do such deeds, they are considered as having inappropriate conduct, lacking of womanhood or not being a proper lady etc. (Methinee Pongvej, 2001 : 54) As a result, women are under more control than men.

It can be said that values causing gender inequality are based on the belief that men are superior to women, or on paternal role that holds men as family leaders, who work to feed the families and control the families, while considering maternal role as followers, service persons to look after the family's neatness, and respond the needs of family's members. It shows that those values are the basis of the creation of power relations which results in gender inequality in society.

2.6 Patriarchy Thought

The characteristics of males' and females' interactive behaviors in society are power relationship, recognizing males as more powerful than females, which include the creation of important roles, prejudices, and the recognition about gender. This relationship originates from the analysis of family system linking to the 4 powers as follows (Wood, 1997: 94): House ownership, Property ownership, State leadership, and Religious leadership. According to Marxist studies, for example, F. Engels' "The

Origin of the Family" in 1884 describes the family system as related to the ownerships of properties, pointing out the patriarchal social perspective, which has developed from ancient communal society, in which males' and females' rights were not different, whether in terms of work or ways of life, then arrived the living-together-family, together with the private property possession. In his book Engels refers to the term "family" as "famulus", meaning domestic slave, and familia meaning many slaves under the one-man master's control. It is the expression used by the Romans used to call the then new social system. A man was the chief of the family, consisting of wives and children, including a number of slaves under his control. And according to the Roman laws, the chief deserved the rights over their lives and all their properties.

So at first families originates from agricultural society, in which everyone in the family lived an egalitarian life, everybody in the family worked together, and heads of the families supervised the work and placed importance on the allocation things necessary for each member of the families, both males and females. Later on the middle-eastern civilization has influenced in place of the former system, bringing the new system implementing the private ownership of the land, the properties were then divided and fell in the possession of a small number of powerful people, who used the majority of people working for them. Consequently, social class emerged (Connell, 1987: 52) such as king, priest, bureaucrats who governed people in general. During the Greek and Roman civilization, the aristocrats used power to suppress the governed; the rich provided with much property controlled the have-not. Thus they destroyed the egalitarian and equality system of working together of the sustainable ways of living for the aristocrats' power; that is the father in family system, the administrator in the government, which was called "patria protrestas" in the Roman laws. It means all power is in father' hands, and is the origin of the term "patriarchy" or the system in which man is the master, and has been used continually.

Apart from having power in governing, later on men were also mandated by religious influence to be masters in medieval society -the successive era to agricultural society. Female roles were reduced and slowly eliminated coincidently with the development of technology and tools in new mode of production. Animals were used to replace physical manpower. Males had more roles as religious leaders

who transferred concepts, beliefs as God's representatives. Kings were virtual gods. Bureaucrats were kings' servicemen. Men or husbands were bureaucrats' servicemen. Therefore, the women or wives' tasks were to service men or husbands, compared as a way to serve the God (Connell, 1987: 88) Finally, such belief has resulted in women's inferiority to men

Another consideration making males masters is explained in the book "The Mothers" that the patriarchal principle issues laws legitimating the fathers' passing their possessions to their sons, and to consider principally the paternal line of blood, neglecting the maternal line. Girls live with their parents until their marriage age. When they get married, the parents give their daughters some possessions, and their husbands took care of them instead. Much of female's status is relegated by this system; they have limited rights, losing their liberty, power and their possessions, restricted to live at home, doing the tasks of looking after their husbands, children and their husbands' kinship. Men control all the system, including women's personal rights, which make women obviously inferior (Lorber and Susan, 1991: 44)

It can be said that patriarchy is the rule of the father, which is used to explain family characteristics taking the father or the man as the main line, leader, or head of the family. Later this definition has been widened to cover 3 following characteristics: male domination, male's superiority in power relationship, and characteristics signifying gender system. In this system females are disadvantaged in many aspects compared males, for example, the emphasis on the work assigned, violence, sex abuse, both at family and social level. The gender division places importance on sons more than in daughters, because they are blood descendants of the family. The division of work in the family gives the housework burden to mother and daughters more than to sons. Sons also have more educational opportunities than daughters do. Sons or males control and govern members of the family, females do not have the rights to possess property, their submission to man's judgment on women's fertility and its control, and women do not have the right to decide whether to have baby (Stoller, 1968: 98), etc.

The implementation of patriarchy makes females inferior to males. They are brought up to behave in accordance to culture and tradition more strictly than males, and it partially causes the women's lack of self confidence, determination and

commitment in working to achieve high positions, as well as lack of courage to make decision by themselves and have to rely on males whether father or husband, and are really willing to follow males' opinions. They willingly accept to work or do some activities in supportive or subordinate roles to males. Such practices are the consequences of the beliefs passing through generations, entirely based on the concept of patriarchy that gives the male the governing and leadership power (Methinee Pongvej, 2001: 66) Even nowadays, this concept still exists and continues to be taught or socialized to females, but probably with some changes over time.

2.7 Gender Equality Thought

Equality is fundamental principle of human's dignity. The equality of males and females depends on social condition, which is important factor facilitating the use of human rights equally as everyone deserves. Both genders can work fully side by side for the benefits of the economic, social, and political development. So gender perspective based on equality is an important mechanism to work to reach the goal, by using human as center of development in every aspect, without restriction due to sex.

Gender equality means the acceptance and recognition of the importance of gender differences in terms of rights, opportunities, and advantages, which leads the attempt to find ways to adjust rules, including social structure to have power equality between genders in order to develop subsequently valuable and well balanced human resources. The general and universal criteria of the principle definition of equality are to deal with things of the same essence equally, and to deal with things of different essences differently according to the characteristics of that matter. The important issue is that, it is necessary to make comparison to find out what has the same essence, and what has different essences. The comparison must lead to a conclusion whether there are equal or unequal practices toward those matters either of the same or of different essences (Kietchai Pongsapanich, 2002: 3-4)

Regarding the equality, it is considered as basic principle of human dignity, which must be protected so that individuals can refer to their protected rights by law equally. Therefore, the discrimination based on sex, nationality, religion, place of birth etc. is considered against the principle of equality, as well as against the

principle of human dignity. And the equality is also the principle to control and examine the government's activities to prevent it from abusing its power. The government's uses of power to deal with the people that positively or negatively impact any group of them or on either gender must be explainable. If the reasons explained are not sensible, it must be possible to equally examine and make a complaint by all ages and genders without restrictions.

Concept about gender equality in Thai society is partially conceived as the outcome of an international conference which leads to its implementation in the plan for women's progress as the Beijing protocol statement "Gender equality is a human right matter, a condition to have social justice, and a fundamental condition necessary to have equality, development, and peace. The change of cooperative pattern based on gender equality is important condition for sustainable man-centered development" (National Committee of Women Coordination and Promotion, Office of the Prime Minister, 2000: 11) In fact, equality does not mean that males and females must be equal or similar in every aspect, because the two genders are different due to physical characteristics and daily living. The main issue is not about physical differences but about the creation or the imposition of social rules and conditions that must not negatively affect ways of living of both males and females. In addition it must neither cause the discrimination nor help create the power or injustice between males and females in society.

2.8 Gender Dimensions and Development Thought

Since 1980, there has been strong movement to build gender equality. It is the important topic in many international conferences, but the tangible practice of equality has not yet been realized. Gender discriminations still exist in many countries and regions in pattern not so much different. A World Bank's report states that there is no region, especially in developing countries, where males and females are equal in terms of legal, social, economic rights. For example, married women have to use their husbands' family names; the married women's possessions and legal acts must be approved or allowed by their husband; the women's holding high positions is still far less than men's; statistics of opportunities of women in developing countries

accessing to social services, such as education, public health service, occupations are still much less than men's (World Bank, 2008: 1)

Furthermore, there is also another dimension of gender inequality concerning the accessibility to state welfare, social and economic opportunities, political rights and power, of which inequalities women are most affected (World Bank, 2008: 1) Therefore, the main objective of development must focus on gender equality, by encouraging both genders to have equal important roles, and to become the development center. Gender equality will helps develop the country's manpower, and to enhance and increase, in turn, the capability to develop the country, because the country can benefit fully from its human resources as a result. The gender reinforcement plays therefore an important role in developmental strategy that intends to help everybody, males and females, improve their quality of life.

A survey conducted by the World Bank has found that economic development is the beginning of the creation of gender equality in the long run. However, only economic growth can not help to achieve the desirable goal. Many things need to be done, that is the two genders' fundamental equality of rights and opportunities must be laid by reforming rules, regulations, restrictions, and legal organizations to represent equality and justice, especially family laws, violence prevention, land possession rights, wage, and the rights to make decision by themselves, etc. In addition, there should be an improvement to have a fair welfare and services, together with social and political participation in order to reduce gender inequality in terms of education, work recruitment, public health service, and nutrition, including encouraging both genders' ability for self-development to have career progress in higher work positions, and the work recruitment must be treated equally among both genders. The operational plan must be carried out as follows:

1. Definition of the essence of concept related to gender dimension. The concept about genders and gender equality were considered in the United Nations' process of setting the development principle. According to experiences in the past, it was found that females' different social status and roles from men's resulted in the failure in different aspects of development, because they did not participate in those developments. As a consequence, the developmental approach has been readjusted by using the concept related to gender mainstreaming more seriously and widely after the

fourth international conference on women at Beijing, the People's Republic of China in 1995 B.E.(United Nations, 2000: 300-301) The resolution concept of the conference concerning women development is as follows:

1.1 Women in Development (WID) This concept initiated by the Women Committee of Washington D.C., the United States proposes to bring women to take part in economic system as part of the family's and the country's economic development, with the emphasis on occupational equality to have the same income and progress among men and women. It also includes the development of strategies and operational plans that focus on the reduction of women's disadvantages in work and on the elimination of all kinds of discrimination toward women in order to be linked to modernization which was the concept about international development during 1950-1970. That period emphasized on development and modernization along with industrialization in order to improve the living standard of people in developing countries, and women were part of the family's rising income, who worked outside the home to increase national income which means direct economic development.

Bringing women into the development process is to enhance their potentials and gives them the value of being human, including using their hidden ability to be more useful. In the past women were far less developed and in some fields they were not recruited or had progress according to their work line. Particularly, in administrative and governmental field, women had less chance than men. In the industries, women were given the job inferior to men's and with lower pay. The jobs given were sometimes hazardous to health, and factories did not have special health insurance or welfare system for them, despite working in dangerous condition, etc. They were not welcome or given the same opportunities to work equally as men because women had less educational opportunities. So the development concept that hands the women the chance to develop themselves, to have higher education, and to be part of development system will help them acquire more knowledge and self-development, which will enable them a better chance to have career progress in the future.

Besides, it recognizes the existing social structure rather than to examine why women have been given less benefits from the development than men. Instead it focuses on supporting the issues taking women as part of development process, by

pushing the policy supporting the women's equal participation and equal opportunities as men's concerning education, employment, social welfare, and the acceptance of women's personal skills in different aspect of development at the same time. It also places importance on work that creates income and economic value, which will be the factor increasing the women's importance. Actually, this concept encourages the women's earning, so it has to develop them by giving them opportunities to have skill training concerning technology, and new knowledge, as well as opportunities to study in higher level, and to increase their welfare in addition to training courses about mother's and child's health, house caring, skill development etc.

To operate according to "Women in Development" concept has, however, some weak points, for example, the initiators and the practitioners at the beginning were inexperienced. Most of them were volunteers, having only short-period training courses which were not enough. Many countries lacked educational system relating to its possibility, as well as its consistent operation in order to develop the women's skills. Some rules or regulations were not yet readjusted to be in line with the women's incoming new roles and responsibilities. During the first period of the operation, hypotheses were set just to let women have their own income or more income in order to help the families. Actually, it was an economic response without developing other ability. In addition, the operators, project administrators, personnel authorized to approve the projects and expense allocations were still men. As a result, the understanding about women in development was neither sufficient nor responsive directly to the goal.

1.2 Women and Development (WAD) This concept emerged in late of 1970's by changing the former concept to the concept of separating the women from the development. Initially, it began from the long-held stand point taking women as part of development, but not successful. Because after their participation was incorporated into the development, the women could not be really linked to the development management. They were accepted only as males' assistants. Their income –an economically valued outcome from work –was considered as additional income for the family, and men were still considered as families' main wage-earners and heads of the families. So the work that brought the main income was more

important than the subordinate one, without considering the women's difficulties to manage their time to do the two types of work. Meanwhile, it was considered that even household tasks and the work the women did were beneficial, they were not yet the main economic value for the families. In addition, the work the women carried on in the families, such as childrearing, housework, looking after the elderly or the sick ones were considered their tasks by nature, and did not create the main incomes for the families.

The concept of "Woman and Development" then focuses on the relations between women and the development process rather than on strategies bringing women into development process. But the women themselves must also be developed so that they will have more knowledge and ability, that lead to the change from the old concept perceiving women as having less knowledge and ability to be part of economic and social development as important as men, and that the work women carry both at home and outside the home are also essential in social, manpower and ultimately national development. Therefore, women are also indispensable force in every aspect of development.

1.3 Gender and Development (GAD) This concept originated in 1980's, based on socialist feminism in association with modernism that created the social structure consisting of males and females working equally, or sometime women worked more than men, but the recognition or the values still praised or believed more in men's ability. Such values placed a great pressure on women, so the "Gender and Development" concept focuses on the study on gender relations in society, gender role performance according to society's prescription, together with placing importance on considering the reasons causing women given subordinate or inferior roles to men in many aspects. The perspective of this concept gives importance on holistic thoughts, without thinking that women are merely individuals different from men due to natural management, but gives importance on women as social components as men are, accepting men's participation as supporters to create the equality and justice in society, without emphasizing or favoring one gender and neglecting another. This concept also recognizes the importance of women who devote to the achievement of work, both at home and outside the home. Despite the work does not bring income or economic value, but it still needs labor, time, and

effort, including personal ability to have it done successfully, which means women's spending labor, time, opportunities without being paid, but inevitably important for people in society and the society as a whole.

This concept does not agree with the division of work into housework and work outside the home, alias, public work and private work. Generally, when considering work, the focus is on the value of the return or income rather than labor or time. So despite household tasks are essential to life and society, they are classified low-rank value compared to that of the work outside the home. The feminists and advocates of this concept then try to resist such belief and explain the importance of the housework as not inferior to that outside the home. They are also interested in women bearing subordinate status to men, exploited, deprived of their privacy more than men in order to analyze the basis of gender relations in society in order to propose the state intervention as it is responsible to manage and provide social service to all members of society. As being members of the society as well, women should have such rights and welfare from the state too. Besides, this gender concept also thinks that women are rather leaders in changing than assistants in the development, and it is necessary that women participate in politics and administration to create more social equality. And eventually, the changes will occur effectively to reduce gender differences and distribute gender roles in society more properly (Young, 1987: 24)

It can be said that the "Gender and Development" concept is different and distinct from any other. It not only considers economic, social, political structure at present which affects the development, but also retraces the origin, causes, and outcomes of gender equality in the past in order to find ways to resolve those problems systematically. In addition, it not only intervenes or finds strategies to incorporate women into developmental involvement, but also studies on social structure and instates which cause the injustice or gender inequality to both males and females, then finding an approach to create the development for both males and females, giving importance on the roles and responsibility of both genders form a well-proportioned perspective, with the emphasis on equality for everybody, and the development of each individual according to his/her potential in order to reach the ultimate goal, that is the sustainable development of the society.

2.9 Career Progress

Career progress or career achievement –an essential part of everybody's working life –consists of two parts: 1) Objective Career Progress (OCP); there are tangible, such as promotion to a higher position, better income, wage, compensation, including the more beneficial rights, welfare, and other compensation attached to the new position or level; 2) Subjective Career Progress (SCP); it originates from each individual's perception and feeling, which are satisfaction with work, satisfaction with workplace, pride in work, pride in workplace, pride in the position appointed, including social prestige, acceptance from colleagues, and the better chance in life. All these lead to individuals' more attachment to their organizations, more commitment to work for their own achievement and organization's in the future (Carrell, Norbert and Robert, 2000: 295) without thinking to change the jobs or change the workplaces, owing to the feeling of having already progress in the work (Nabi, 2001; 457)

So the career progress means work achievement, happiness with work, feeling of being valuable, capability, rewards from work –whether in form of income, position, prestige and good status (London and Stumpf, 1982: 4-5), which inspire an individual's pride, satisfaction with work and workplace, and the better chance in life from the promotion to a higher position with more income, compensation, benefits than before.

Factors affecting an individual's career progress or achievement in work consist of 2 important components (London and Stumpf, 1982; 6-10)

1. Individual factors: they are each individual's personal characteristics that partly affect his/her achievement in work. Such characteristics are educational background, work experience, personality, interest, commitment to work, expectation and goal of working, as well as each person's work planning. All these are essential in driving an individual to set his/her goal of working, to assess his/her own potentiality, to commit him/herself to work in order to reach his/her desirable goal of work.

2. Organizational factors: they are important factors in promoting and supporting or even obstructing the career progress. It is because they involve the organization's goal and policy to encourage the workers, and direct the path of their

career progress, which result in individuals' opportunities to be promoted to higher positions, to improve themselves, to have further training courses or education to be qualified and eligible to rise to higher levels according to organizational structure. Colleagues and work facilities, which inspire individuals' satisfaction with and attachment to organization, stimulate greatly their desire to work, creating behavioral pattern or characteristics in working to reach the achievement.

The measurement of career progress of different occupations varies according to organizations' rules, restrictions, or conditions of employment. In general, the career progress can be measured from individual's being promoted to a higher position, beginning from his/her first start and continuing to rise accordingly throughout his/her working life (Naff, 1994: 508) which can be obviously and directly observed. Besides, the progress can be considered from the level of individual's income, the promotion to a higher position, the change of position, the change of work, and the transfer to a new position (Konrad and Cannings, 1997: 1305) On the other hand, the career progress in some occupations may be measured only from the promotion to new position according to each person's work path in accordance with operational structure, or solely from permanent income or salary (Naff, 1994: 560)

Regarding Thai state university lecturers' career progress, apart from holding administrative positions, academic status are also another dimension of career progress. Because these academic positions have specific pattern of title-holding order, duration of holding the status, compensations for such status, the raise of salary level, reception of royal decorations, which are different according to academic status orders. The advantages also include some special opportunities or some particular status. For example; to be a lecturer representative in the Council of the University Committee, the lecturer must be at least Associate Professor; the lecturer eligible to supervise the university's curriculum or the work on graduate thesis, if being master's degree graduate, he/she has to be Professor or Associate Professor, and if having a doctoral degree, he/she should be an Assistant Professorship holder (Office of the University Affairs, 2003: 27-28) Therefore, academic positions have an effect on university lecturers' work and affect their progress as well.

Apart from positions and income – the index of career progress –which are obviously objective career progress, opportunities to have self-improvement, such as

further studies in higher level, having training courses to increase one's capability during working life, are also other approaches to create career progress. All these have effect on the promotion to a higher position owing to the acquisition of more knowledge, and lead to a higher salary in accordance to the new higher status (Konrad and Cannings, 1997: 1309) So self-development is also another approach to create career progress.

Even though to hold a university's administrative position, there is no formal rules imposing that university administrative position holders of any level, whether the head of the department, the dean, the rector, as well as the deputy or assistant of any level, must have already been holding academic positions, but in practice many of those holding administrative positions of many universities also hold academic titles (Office of the University Affairs, 2003: 80) Therefore, in other words, holding an academic status is part of the acceptance and opportunity that enables a lecturer to take the role considered as the organizational leader, because holding a academic status signifies the person's knowledge potentiality, which is another index indicating his/her success or career progress. Thus, when rising to a administrative position of a university –the symbol of academic organization –a lecturer with academic title is more accepted than those without such position. Even though, an academic title cannot directly guarantee an individual's capability and achievement in administration, most universities, however, still prefer to accept those with academic positions to take administrative posts. As a consequence, it can be said that the academic position also takes part in supporting the career progress of university lecturers.

2.10 Career Progress Thought

The career progress or the advancement in work path is personnel administration's activity aiming at stimulating individuals to plan or have the method to accomplish the work objectively to enable the organization to reach its goal, and at the same time the workers also have opportunities to improve their abilities. Therefore, work or career development is a human resource management process that increases the workers' potentiality and stimulates them to use their full capability for

the work achievement, enabling the organization's effective continuation, which results in both organization's and workers' desirable success.

To reach the career achievement, the efficient worker must have characteristics enabling the success in work, that is, achievement orientation, analysis, assessment, awareness, change management, facility utilization skills, decision making, self exploration, goal setting, information collection, human relations, networking, oral communication, conflict resolution, life planning, self development, self management, strategic thinking, written communication skill. These characteristics will help the worker to work with precise direction and with more preparedness (Ferris, Buckley and Fedor, 2002: 374 – 376)

Furthermore, there are also others factors related to work success that enable the workers to have career progress. It is found that the workers' fundamental differences are their unequal development, so in order to improve the workers' progress in their professional path, the organization needs to have many approaches or operational methods suitable for every worker instead of restricting or directing into one direction, so that everybody moves forward together. In addition, the professional work path or progress direction set by the organization must based on possible framework, with concepts and operations based on reality, not imaginative roles, and is ready to facilitate real practices in the organization (Schien, 1975: 11- 14)

It can be said that the progress development in professional work path arises from each person and the direction imposed by organizational structure. Both factors are of equal importance in encouraging the workers' progress. When considering the organization's personnel, they can be divided into 5 groups, whose behaviors or expectations also affect the work and progress in work line as follows (Schien, 1975: 17-22)

1. Managerial competence. This group of people will try to improve their managerial competence; such as, their knowledge/understanding about regulations, their ability to adjust themselves to colleagues and superiors, their ability of critical thinking and emotional self-control, their study and learning about changes, their understanding of each individual's and each type of people's behaviors, their interest in administrative structure, the planning, the organizational management, and the organizational personnel management.

2. Technical competence. This group of people are interested in their own actual work at present. Meanwhile, they also try to study to increase their knowledge about technical ability in order to develop their work skill, or to do their jobs better and better with up-to-date technique, as well as to develop themselves continually in order to move up as specialists or experts in their routine work, and always do better. This group of people can be otherwise called “functional competence people” due to their competence in work and self-development from work.

3. Security need. This group of people are interested in organizational regulations that have affect on their long working life in organization. They look for their security in work and are interested in behaviors, attitudes, and personal characteristics of administrators as well as those of their colleagues, the administrators’ rising to the administrative jobs and positions. These people follow all movement and changes occurring in organization that involve their work security. They can change their behaviors, and some can even change their mind in order to be able to stay working in the organization.

4. People with creativity. This group of people is eligible to present their ideas, opinions, methods, or information useful for the planning, improvement, and development of the organization. Some of them have advanced and novel ideas such that they are unacceptable for people in the organization; some are alienated, unable to work with colleagues with different opinions; some like to create novelties in their work despite being unaccepted by other people in the organization. These people are highly self-confident and believe firmly in their ideas. Organizations that want challenges, development, and constant changes usually benefit from these people’s work.

5. Autonomy people. This group of people is very independent, hardly flexible, and disagreeing changes in organization. They dislike regulations or rules with much detail, bored of problems in the organization, disagreeing nearly all management methods of administrators, disliking disorders or sub-groups in organization and mutual assistances between sub-groups or among individuals based on personal relations, disliking the struggle for power and the rising to administrative positions of executives. These people work well in the fields they are responsible for and relevant to their skill. They do not expect any administrative position, and tend to

resign early in order to do their independent jobs that correspond to their particular skills.

There are also other factors influencing organizational members' progress in career or work as follows (Cascio, 2003: 28)

1. Personal status: it means the present position, concrete work, acceptance from members of the organization, and visible capability.

2. Feeling about the organization: it means the satisfaction with the present position, scope of the responsibility and power, opinion about the organization, feeling of security in work, attitude toward administrators.

3. Satisfaction with work: it means the liking of the present work, opportunity to be promoted to higher position or level, good facilities and environment suitable for work.

4. The superior's administration: it means the administrator's characteristics, administrative behaviors, assignment distribution, consideration on benefits, relationship between superiors and workers.

5. Internal communication in organization: it means the communication, or the sending of news or other messages between members of the same organization is clear, easy, and convenient, in time without distortion, especially matters about changes that affect directly members of the organization. Good systematic communication enhances the understanding, good feeling, unity, love, as well as attachment to the organization.

6. Participation: it means participation in proposing new ideas, goal, work approach, information, or decision. The feeling of being informed about the organization's tasks in general leads to the feeling of being part of or incorporated into the organization.

In other words, career progress can possibly mean the building of standard criteria to be used as approach for workers to be promoted to higher positions. The criteria used as regulations are knowledge, ability, educational attainment, behavior, special skill, personal readiness, suitability to the expected position. The working duration in the old position is also an accumulation of experience and the preparedness for the worker to achieve career progress properly (Byars, 2004: 47) Moreover, in developing the organization, the administrators can also use information

about employee interests as supplement to formulate the career progress of each employee since each person has his particular skill and ability, but all people have common interest in career progress. So people dealing with personnel management should think carefully to find out which methods are able to respond most employees' needs; how the employees' feelings or perception about the management, about the organization's support, and about moral encouragement for its employees really are; how the work system, organizational structure, as well as administrators' behaviors have effect on employee's satisfaction with organization, their love, attachment to the organization, and how the organization is able to respond their needs (Cascio, 2003: 58) All these considerations will help develop the organization to achieve its goal completely.

Consequently, ways to create career progress to employees are fundamental for organizational development too. Administrators, superiors, personnel managers, and workers must take part in setting ways of career progress in the organization, of which stages of operation are as follows (Robbins, 1988: 74)

1. First analyze the employees' needs, interest to find out their interest, knowledge, skills.

2. Analyze the organization's duty and responsibilities to find out the extent of its capability to respond its employees.

3. Analyze work characteristics to set the positions in organization, what responsibility each position should have and to what extent; how many academic and administrative position should there be.

4. Formulate the structure of each position in relevance to the tasks and responsibilities of the organization; the number of each position that should be, and the ways to reach the goal of each position, in order to prevent confusion or interference between different work paths.

5. Manage to do the planning and the structure of career progress in each work path, of which the organization must declare to employees how to reach it.

2.11 Career Progress Techniques

To have career progress, it must begin with the organizational structure or work plan that have standard criteria, that enable the employees to work precisely; the consideration is transparent and fair for everyone, and possible to examine every stage of the operation. To have career progress, it can be done through many methods as follows (Office of the Civil Service Commission, 2005: 37)

1. The development of personnel potentiality means the enhancement of personnel's ability and positive change to be later the basis of consideration for career progress in work line. These methods are, for example; further studies, supplementary training courses, inspection tour, participation in conferences or seminars of working personnel, or new teaching courses, assignment to work on behalf of somebody, rotation of position holders, membership of working group with experts, assignment to special tasks, including the search for knowledge by the personnel themselves from papers or widespread innovations in order to apply it to improve their work outcomes.

2. The setting of academic positions in order to encourage personnel with ability and expertise to stay with the organization, and encourage the use of knowledge to their full extent, which will allow the personnel to achieve career advancement according to their work line and create benefits to the organization at the same time.

3. Assessment of work outcome is a method to find out the level of each personnel weakness and strength, so that the result can be used to create the career progress for each person directly.

4. Career advice is a method to guide working personnel to know and realize the ways to create the progress for themselves, beginning from the organization that must make planning for career development to cover all positions, so that everyone knows how he/she can rise to a higher position, how to prepare him/herself- how to operate accordingly. There should be formal conference, training courses or explanation to declare all procedures to all members.

5. Have position charts made, showing clearly the progress of each professional work path, displaying the movement or promotion of each position from

the start to the highest position of each work path. These charts must be displayed or informed to everyone.

2.12 Type and Form of Career Progress

Career progress can be divided into 2 types: Objective career progress and Subjective career progress. Each type has its pattern to indicate the career progress as follows:

1. Objective career progress is the progress causing changes obviously tangible. This type of progress occurs at unequal period of time; probably every year, every 6 months, or every 3 month, depending on each organization's regulation such as:

1.1 Position promotion means a person is appointed to a higher position. What generally follows is the more responsibilities and more compensations. The person's status has been raised to a higher level, such as more important position, empowered to sign papers or to make decision, and with better and more welfare and benefits, which are another career progress (Robbins, 1988: 70)

1.2 The transfer/move of personnel means the personnel's movement of position and location of work. The person might be moved to a new workplace or moved to a new position in a new workplace, which are better, or has more opportunity for progress. For the Thai bureaucracy, the transfer means the appointment of a civil servant who belongs to one organization to take a new position in another organization, or in the same organization but different unit. And the move means the appointment of a civil servant belonging to one organization to a position the same level as the old one in the same organization (Office of the Civil Service Commission, 2005: 6) The civil servant to be transferred has qualifications as required by the new unit, thus the new job is relevant and suitable to his/her knowledge and ability than the old position. Therefore, the transfer or the move is another method for career progress.

1.3 Salary promotion means that an individual is considered to receive a new and higher level of salary that occurs once a year, of which there are both ordinary salary promotion and special-case salary promotion. In principle, it is

considered as to reward civil servants who work well for the country, making the state mechanism move forward systematically. Salary promotion at each step is another career progress of civil servants, because each step of salary signifies another level that is related to income, welfare, beneficial rights, which are different from one level to another (Office of the Civil Service Commission, 2005: 12) So holders of different positions have different beneficial rights.

2. Subjective career progress is the progress originated from the perception or feeling that the person is successful in the assigned job, then is willing and intent to do his/her best to achieve the goal. The pattern of the subjective career progress is as follows (Casio, 2003: 78)

2.1 Satisfaction with work means being able to work relevant to the individual's liking, skill, knowledge, and capacity, so the person intends to work with his/her full ability, being proud of the work and willing to reach the achievement from the job without thinking to change the work.

2.2 Satisfaction with workplace means working in an organization that is well situated; good ambience for work; well-equipped with facilities for the work; the organization is well and orderly managed; convenience for traveling; the communication is not an obstacle; properly lighted and well-ventilated; the environment is well-taken care of, beautifully and properly decorated, as aresult, the workers' prestige, admiration and pride are highly raised, such that they do not think to change the workplace.

2.3 Satisfaction with income and compensation means receiving income at appropriate level in proportion to the work, responsibility, and economic situation at the moment, so the workers are happy with work and live a proper life.

2.4 Satisfaction with welfare means being given support in addition to permanent income, enabling a better life and living, which boosts their morale and high-spirited in work, and the feeling of security make them work without anxiety.

From the concepts mentioned above, it can be concluded that career progress is the result of both personal and organizational factors, together with the intention to work, goal of life, satisfaction with work, work characteristics, workplace, policy and administration, salary and welfare, security in work, prestige and dignity of position

and responsibility, relationships of fellow workers of the same organization, opportunities to be promoted and supported, as well as the feeling of being valuable person for work, being accepted by superiors and colleagues, so that the worker can work happily.

2.13 Career Progress and Human Resource Development

The human resource development is meant to use an individual's potentiality for work to the full extent, and to increase his/her capability for the benefit of both the person and the organization equitably. The development of human –the resource of an organization – not only leads to both human and organization development, it also leads to individuals' development of his/her work, increasing the number of capable people, which means encourages their career progress. To promote individuals to develop themselves can be done by different ways; such as further studies, training courses for new knowledge, inspection touring to exchange work experience, which can be used to improve how to work more effectively, resulting in career progress.

Thought and Component of Human Resource Development Theory

Human Resource Development Theory is an integration of 3 principle theories in order to explain phenomena related to human resource development, as well as to explain the principle of work and the promotion for the career progress of members of organization. Swanson. (2001: 93) calls it a "three-legged stool theory", which makes the science and practical approaches of human resource development clearer and more stable. Those three theories consist of 1) Economic Theory, 2) Social Theory or System Theory, and 3) Psychological Theory. Each theory has its sub-theories used to explain human development resource as follows:

1. Economic theory brings economic principles on the management of limited human resource to respond the diverse human needs. Therefore, it is necessary to study human behaviors related to resource needs, the capability to manage and control the proper use of resources. Important sub-theories used to explain human resource development are as follows (Swanson, 2001: 94):

1.1 Scarce Resource Theory

In general, the definition of limited resource and the state of resource scarcity are similar. However, in economics, these two states are different. That is, natural resources or imported resources for production, whether money, raw materials, time, or others are all limited in themselves, but may not be scarce if they are not needed. But if a resource is needed but limitedly available, such as time which is available only 24 hours per day, while a human being wants to use it for different activities, he/she has to allocate the time for the highest benefit. Despite the work time regulation permits only 8-10 hours per day, there is, consequently, overtime work with appropriate compensation for the workers. In addition, each person's scarcity of time is different from others even though having the limited 24 hours per day equally. It is because the need to use time of different persons is also different. Therefore, the time allocation is needed to work to get close to the goal as much as possible. And each person has his/her own distinctive principle of time allocation according to his/her task and responsibility.

1.2 Sustainable Resource Theory

This theory has additional perspective from scarce resource theory by considering the possible outcome in the long run if the scarcity takes place that might affect the long-term human resource development. Therefore, it is necessary to develop human resource to compensate such scarcity, beginning from the development planning, then systematically operated, and reaching the desired goal. Thurow (1993: 18) has suggested that in the future, new industries will retain their advantage by the production process and technology, which rely on human brain in inventing novelties. Therefore, it is the human's brain and ability that are sustainable resources which enable human to conquer the nature. Consequently, to develop human resource, it is necessary to improve constantly the organizational personnel's capability and acquisition of new knowledge for themselves, that means the development of work and organization simultaneously.

1.3 Human Capital Theory

This theory is about workforce or human development, which is, economically, considered as a direct and important capital or asset for the development. In a broader sense, it means the use of human knowledge and skill to increase the production for the benefit of work and the use of quality production.

The concept and the analysis of the investment in human beings was proposed for the first time by Theodore W. Schultz (1991: 30) who presented his research study in 1961 concerning how the return from the investment in human being is worthwhile by means of the analysis of the production cost and the result from the investment. This concept has an important role that makes the human resource economics to be classified seriously as an economics discipline. Later on, this concept has also played an important role in the development of human capital theory to be widely accepted in academic curriculum. The further explanation of this theory is that human capital in manpower dimension means knowledge, expertise, skill of a man that accumulate increasingly from studies, and training courses. So the analysis according to the concept of this theory considers the differences of workers' wages, compensation, or salary, which are not equal depending on the age, occupation, educational level, training courses, duration of work and experience. This concept also indicates that human capital and human resource are greatly important for all development.

When linking this 3 sub-theories together, a concept or analysis can be concluded to be used in human resource development, both at macro level or national level, and micro level or organizational level in order to develop the workforce.

2. Social Theory or System Theory explains the relationships of components in the society that in certain environment, there is a system having patterns of relationships of different components united as an entity, in which both big systems and sub-systems co-inhabit, and interact with external components all the time. This theory has sub-theories used in human resource development as follows (Swanson, 2001: 98 – 99)

2.1 General System Theory

This theory explains that components and their relationships in every social system always consist of the input, process, output, and feedback. And it is not a static system, because, as an open system, it interacts with external factors incessantly, resulting in possible change at anytime. So the human resource development needs to know how to adjust, accept changes, including follow new information continuously in order to develop human resource and the organization all the time.

2.2 Chaos Theory

In contrast to the rational thought that perceives the relationships of things and systems in the nature as a linear relationship, the chaos theory argues that, in reality, things and systems are complicated and without order, and that the relationship is not necessary always in a straight line. So if any organization does not have its administration and development systemized, the organization will be in chaotic state , complicatedly problematic, full of conflicts and misunderstanding in the organization, such that it will be too difficult to resolve and eventually becomes obstacles for the organization development.

Concerning the systemization of organizational administration, Dee Hock (1999: 29) has proposed the Chaodic (Chaos+Order) pattern of administration by pointing out that in any organization, its internal relationships are complex, in which there is personnel differences at every level, whether the age, family background, educational level, income, which are visibly tangible. Moreover, there are also differences in opinions, attitudes, and perception about organization in terms of administrative policy, administrators, and all organizational systems, which are the differences arising from each person’s mental perception. So a good management must be capable to join the differences in the organization together to create the unity among diversities, and prevent such differences from causing internal serious conflicts, as well as trying to alleviate or reduce the problem to the least for the benefit of organization development by using these diversities as developmental basis to achieve to the ultimate organizational objective.

2.3 Future Theory

This theory focuses on studying and understanding deeply all matters, both inside and outside the organization in order to use them as context for appropriate organizational development planning in the future. The prediction or speculation about uncertainties in the future must base on a holistic and fundamental information. Swanson (2001: 99) who conducted the studies has found that an important tool making this theory usable for organizational development must consist of alternative future. That means the ability to foresee the future as the present moment in order to know to which direction the social, political, and administrative context are to change; how members of the organization are to be affected; and how the organization is to be adjusted and in which pattern. There must be a solution or alternative presented to show that how personnel development to respond to the change can be done, and how many methods there are. There must be a scenario building, that is, the pictures in future presented based on the basis of reality and organizational possibility in order to be used as information in decision making for subsequent suitable organizational development.

The theory also uses the information from social context for the consideration to create future alternatives and scenario in order to plan both organizational and personnel development. For example, if there is an economic change causing such fierce competition that stimulates human resource among organizations by means of offering higher compensation than one another, which may cause employees' changes of workplaces, particularly the highly competent personnel. Therefore, organization must plan to prevent workforce losses as well, because the working-age men, or the families' principle income earners, have great likelihood to change work if obliged by economic conditions. Or, in contrast, according to some societies' tradition, after the marriage, working-age women are likely to quit their work for their housewife jobs. And if they still work, maternity leave is needed and later on, the women have to divide her time for looking after their families as well. All these have effect on organizational development, so planning on personnel is necessary to support changes in the future.

When using these 3 sub-theories to develop human resource, it must be considered that the system theory in general concerns the linkage of the big systems

and sub-systems that affects each other. The chaos theory helps the organization retain its security and its goal by eliminating or reducing the problems, and facing the organizational complexity by systemizing the organization. And the Future Theory helps the organization prepared with information and view points for its adjustment and readiness to response the change in the future with certainty.

3. Psychological Theory. It studies and analyzes human behaviors which originate from thinking and perception process, and personal belief. It studies the origin of human problems, and helps understand the cause of behaviors which can be used as data for personnel development, making the personnel more qualified and work to reach the goal completely. Psychological Theory consists of sub-theories for human development as follows (Swanson, 2001: 96-97):

3.1 Gestalt Theory

This theory believes that individuals' minor components are different but they are not important. The important leader of this theory is a psychologist named Gestalt who studied and has found that patterns or stereotypes created in individuals' minds stay with them all the time, causing individuals' different mental perception, which is interpreted into human's behaviors. When the perception is combined with old knowledge, understanding and experiences, or speculation and expectation, individuals' perception of the same thing or stimuli is different due to different interpretation. The same thing or stimuli may inspire a kind of perception, but if it combines with a new matter or new stimuli, it can also inspire another kind of perception.

The principle of this theory is that not only the human's mental perception is different, it can also create the power of group of people having the same or similar perception of the same thing. The grouping can directly affect members of organization's behaviors related to the administrators' behaviors, organizational policy, the internal organizational management, and communication in the organization, inspiring different perception that affects, in turn, the work for the organization which links to the organizational development and the achievement of the organization's goal.

3.2 Behaviorism theory

This theory believes in the principle of condition and compensation that they are relevant or acceptable in order to do or not do it. Human beings have different behaviors because of different practical conditions. For example, some people work enthusiastically because they will receive more income from the work, or some work diligently because the will be praised by their superiors, accepted by colleagues, or it is a way to achieve certain desirable goals. This theory focuses on the creation of conditions for human and behavioral development whether by means of reward, punishment, assignment, and expectation in the work or the desirable achievement as it should be.

3.3 Cognitive theory

This theory explains how human beings can learn. Individuals' learning process comes from 1) Inner learning process, that is perception, understanding, and the interpretation according to the old understanding. If it is relevant, it will be trusted and accepted. If it is contradictory, there will be resistant and the learning of that matter. 2) External learning is the reception of information and movement via individuals, media, or different methods in society, which affect individuals' perception and create directly the desire to learn or not to learn about that matter. However, the human learning process occurs naturally all the time, both formally and informally. So the organizational development for the progress of the work and of the personnel needs to increase continually personnel's knowledge, such as further studies, supplementary training courses, work-training courses, demonstration of new techniques, academic seminars, working with experienced and expert committee for the transfer of knowledge and to learn working method to apply to improve their own work.

Using these 3 psychological theories in human development will help to create the understanding about human' mental reception that it is different from one person to another, which can be used in laying communication system in the organization for the same understanding, or for setting the proper condition of practices so that the personnel can work to achieve the organization's goal properly,

and for learning new things in order to develop the work and the personnel to achieve the goal.

2.14 Variables Used in the Research

According to the study of related researches, concepts and theories mentioned above, it is found that apart from gender, which is a variable affecting the career progress, there are still other variables including age, educational level, marital status, working age, academic position, discipline, and gender difference concerning gender identity, attitudes toward gender, household task, work characteristics, and each variable has details as follows:

2.14.1 Age and the Career Progress

Age is an important personal factor to measure the career achievement or progress, because it is a period of time signifying the accumulation of experiences, knowledge, skill and ability for work. Bowyer's research (2001: 15) has found that age is important for females' work path in order to advance to administrative positions, and that they are mostly middle-aged females, i.e. during 35 – 45 years old, which is the age skilled with work, experienced, reliable, trustworthy for effective high-ranking work. While House (2001: 19) has found that age is part of the acceptance for high-ranking work, because young people lack competence and expertise for the work, and that with old age, the accumulated experiences help to increase the judgment and caution, so they can take high positions with confidence.

In regard to career progress, age is an important part implying the progress, especially for the promotion to higher positions, the age has an effect on the acceptance, trust, and other kinds of preparedness. Kloot (2004: 24) has found that age is an indicator of the development from working, the learning from work, and the planning for working. After having worked for a certain time, with more experience and older age, an individual will gain increasingly knowledge, understanding and skill for work. The age is also an important characteristic showing the appropriate advance to other levels over time. Okpara and others (2005: 180) have found that every kind of work must have a period of work demonstration, the advance to career achievement,

which depends on suitable time. After finishing the education and beginning to work, an individual needs time to learn, and build his own competence for a certain time. When getting older, a continual working period is an important part showing an individual' competence and appropriation for the work. When reaching the middle-age period, one will know whether the job is suitable to him/herself or to what extent that he/she is suitable to it, so that he/she can make a plan whether to carry on that work and change the job for a better future.

According to the study on the relationship between age and work experience, the career progress of individuals can be divided into 4 stages in relevance to the increasing age and experiences as follows (Baird and Kram, 1983: 48; Slocrum and Cron, 1984: 84):

First: Establishment Stage. During 21–26 years of age, an individual is not fully confident of his/her own ability and potentiality, he/she has to rely on experienced person in work to advise, teach to work and assess to reflect the his/her work. During this stage, an individual begins to decide which career he/she is to choose, in which organization, and which position. It is the exploring stage to find a way for his/her work in the future, learning to understand his/her own potentiality that to which aspect it corresponds and to what extent.

Second : Advancement Stage. During 26–40 years of age, an individual begins to be more self-reliant, working independently without relying on experienced people. An individual at this age focuses on working in order to achieve the career progress, trying to develop him/herself in order to work with his/her own ability, creating more network with co-workers to respond the commitment to reach the desired goal of work.

Third : Maintenance Stage. During 40–60 years of age, an individual begin to have a certain success and progress in career. Meanwhile, some people of the same age may not be successful in career as intended. Those perceiving as having career progress will begin to develop themselves again, making themselves useful for the organizations, helping new employees, transferring experiences to new generation, and at the same time also improving themselves in order to step to another level of progress. On the other hand, people who think that they are not successful in career

will assess and review what they have experienced in their working life, and try to find new alternative to adjust their working life to better conditions.

Fourth: Withdrawal Stage. From 60 years of age, an individual wishes to stop his working life in order to rest after continually devoting himself for the work for a long time. Few people at this age are interested in learning new things, but desiring to transfer their experiences, knowledge accumulated from their working life to new generation. Those with occupational success are proud of themselves and want the successive generation remember all the success of their long work.

In summary, it can be said that age is an important factor, showing the career progress, indicating the work results through time, helping understand to what extent are the target, desire, and development of a human being at each age range. Therefore, it is a variable related to the research.

2.14.2 Level of Education and Career Progress

Educational level is another factor demonstrating each individual's knowledge, competence, and it is also the determinant for the employment of different social positions. Especially to be a university lecturer, there are rules stating that a suitable must finish at least master's degree or equivalent, with the exception of disciplines facing the shortage of lecturers that are allowed to employ those with bachelor's degrees. So educational level is important as it is a characteristic enabling to be a university lecturer.

At present Thai university lecturers are mostly those with master's degrees than those with doctoral degree at the proportion of 60:30, and the remaining 10 are those with bachelor's degrees (Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2005: 32) Many researches have found that educational level play an important role in individuals' being promoted to the progress. An individual with high education can rise to higher position more than those with lower education in any occupational line (Oshagbemi, 2000: 333; Priola, 2004: 424) Furthermore, those with high education have more possibility to develop themselves and improve the work into the targeted direction, because they are confident in working and highly accepted by colleagues (House, 2001: 99) Especially females with high education, they are more accepted by

the society and given more opportunity for work than those with low education (Hursch, 1957 : 290)

Concerning the expectation of career success, those with high educational level have great opportunities to achieve the progress in the competition for selecting the best human resource. Educational level is another factor determining which educational attainment that a suitably qualified person should have. The person with high education has naturally more chance to be selected than those with low education (Angela, 1991: 19; Boyer, 2001: 82: Priola, 2004: 429)

In regard to Thailand, university lecturers are mostly master's degrees', followed by those with doctoral degree. Two major sources of their education are from inside the country and from abroad, which, theoretically, do not affect the employment consideration. Because anybody having finished the study from institute certified by Office of the Civil Service Commission can be engaged to take a position, and receives the salary as prescribed equally. In practice, however, the society's values seem place more importance in and expectation from those finishing from abroad than those finishing from inside the country in terms of more experiences and wider visions. A number of research have found that finishing the study from abroad is an important index indicating the academic knowledge, especially those having passed the examination for further studies. New experiences and the ability of using foreign languages fluently and effectively play important roles in the search for knowledge, self-development and expectation of personal ability (London and Stumpf, 1982: 10) Among Thai females who have risen to high-ranking administrative positions, 13.8% of them finished their studies from abroad, owing to being able to use English effectively to acquire knowledge and to create the reliability to be accepted (Chanya Sethabut and Umaporn Pattaravanich, 1998 : 18) And those finishing the studies from abroad also have great opportunity to be promoted to have the progress in organization, because they are supposed by the organization and the chiefs as capable people (Danai Tianbutr, 1997: 178)

So it can be said that educational level is another variable affecting the career progress, especially university lecturers are mostly those with high education, and a number of them finished their studies from abroad, which have important role in leading them to the career progress.

2.14.3 Working Age in Bureaucracy and Career Progress

The working duration in bureaucracy indicates work experience from the beginning of engagement. According to the regulation of university bureaucracy system, after a person is employed, he/she works on probation period for 1 year, then entering into the academic work presentation period in order to move from lecturer status to Assistant Professor, which; if having master's degree, the person must have taught at least 9 years; if having master's degree, he/she must have taught at least 5 years; and if having doctoral degree, he/she must have taught at least 2 years. A lecturer of any educational attainment has teaching tasks, administrative tasks, and other assignment, including academic work in the form of papers used in teaching, research, textbook, book or innovations used or useful in teaching courses, which are presented to the board of committees to consider to promote his/her status according to the criteria (Office of the University Affairs, 2003: 20) The use of time condition as determinant indicates the suitability of working duration for the work, and each person's accumulation of academic experiences, knowledge, expertise and the time needed to create academic work according to the criteria.

Concerning positions higher than Assistant Professor, there is no rules regarding educational level, but there is time constraint stating that a lecturer must have held Assistant Professorship for at least 3 years before being able to submit for Associate Professorship, and for the Professorship, the lecturer must be Associate Professor at least 3 years as well. These are submissions for position promotion in ordinary cases. While for special cases, there are methods to pass over normal steps, for example, from being a lecturer to be an Associate Professor, or from being an Assistant Professor to be a Professor, can possibly be done. If a lecturer with bachelor's degree wanting to raise his/her status according to normal step, he/she must have taught at least 9 years, if having master's degree, he/she must have taught at least 5 years, and doctoral degree must have taught at least 2 years, to be rightfully able to submit for a higher position. but in the case of pass-over-step submission, the academic work of that person must be outstanding in terms of novelty of the knowledge entity, or having innovations considered as excellent to be able to pass over ordinary steps (Office of the University Affairs, 2003 : 29) So working age is important in indicating the career progress of university lecturers.

Abroad, there is not restriction concerning working duration, but the consideration about working-life duration or working duration in the work unit is also a factor of career progress. According to a number of researches, it is found that working duration is a variable related to a person's rise to a higher position. The person considered to be promoted to higher position according to the work path must work full time for a certain time according to organizational regulation, such as 2 years without being absence more than restriction, and the work outcome must be assessed as passed in order to move to a higher level (Kloot, 2004: 479) And working as a university lecturer is obliged to have a certain work duration for the assessment to prolong the work contract, such as 2- or 3-year period before the contract is prolonged and the lecturer is subsequently able to submit for academic position (Ortyoyande, 1984: 84) which illustrates that working duration or working life in Thai bureaucracy system is an important determinant for career progress as well.

2.14.4. Marital Status and Career Progress

Marital status is another personal factor affecting the work at present where an increasing number of women work outside the home, while, at the same time, they still have important roles in the responsibilities for family members and household tasks. Some work units, such as some private sectors do not want employ married women to work for fear of their inability to work fully because they have families' responsibilities, so these private organizations engage only unmarried women. This is an important gender discrimination that has effect on married women for their work outside the home, beginning from less opportunity to be employed, then less career progress than unmarried women or childless married women, who have better chance to have jobs than married women who have children.

According to researches, it is found that married female managers account for 58% of total female managers, while married male managers account even for 93%, and female managers who have children account for 52%, while married male managers having children account for 89% (Hirsh and Jackson, 1990: 34) Therefore, it shows that married women having children have less chance for career progress than married men who have children –or males with the same marital status.

In regard to females' career progress in administrative work line in the University of North Carolina according to Leach's research (2000: 101), it is found that important variables causing the difference between males and females in rising to administrative position are marital status and working duration. Most women (72%) stop to create academic work and cease the dream to step to administrative positions because of household responsibilities, children, parents to be looked after, and senior relatives (for some persons) But 80% of males want increasingly the career progress as well as higher positions as security for their families, and to raise subsequently the family status.

Furthermore, it is also found that marital status affects females' career progress more than males', because household tasks increase women's responsibilities, resulting in women working outside the home have less progress or slower career progress than men's, or even stop the progress at certain level. Igbaria (1997: 65) has found that married women's rise to high-ranking positions is at slower pace than married men, and their academic work has to stop temporarily when having babies (Kanlisch and Others, 2005: 137) Such stop decreases substantially or even blocks their opportunities to step to administrative positions due to these household tasks.

It can be said that household tasks are a cause affecting women working outside the home to succeed in career more slowly than men or even do not have as equal success as men do despite equal opportunity of work path. Gender and Development Institute (1997: 51) has conducted research and found that the women's progress in administrative positions and success in work are partially from families' background and the support from their spouses. And Naff (1994: 512) has found that when compared to men's, the progress or career success of women working outside the home, whether married women who have children, and childless married women, at the beginning they have as equal opportunity as their male counterparts, as well as the promotion from their organizations. After 5 years, however, married women having children have opportunities for the progress less than childless women do. Moreover, married women, whether having children or childless, have much slower pace of career progress, and far less than men do. This finding is similar to the statistics of Office of the Higher Education Commission (2003: 3) whose data show that at the very beginning of the work, the number of female lecturers entering into

Assistant Professorship and Associate Professorship outnumber male lecturers. But at higher level, from Associate Professor to Professor and Professor level 11, the number of females entering into these status is much less than their male counterparts. Consequently, it can be said that marital status is another personal factor affecting the career progress.

2.14.5 Gender Difference in the Aspect of Gender Attitudes and Career Progress

Apart from using naturally physical characteristics as evidences of gender difference to determine the division of social roles, there are, in addition, rules set by society to distinguish the differences between men and women. These rules are culture, tradition, law, and regulations, which result in people in society's preliminary agreement or acceptance, as the first step, of gender differences or gender dissimilarities that leads to the second step, the subsequent inequalities, especially, educational attitudes, occupation, behaviors in daily life, as well as the linkage to religion, politic, and leadership (Wood, 1997: 59), which divides obviously further gender differences such that it can become gender bias.

A number of researches have found that males and females have different thoughts and attitudes about work and the seeking for career progress. Despite the bureaucrat system gives legally equal opportunity for progress, but in practice, many women still think that their opportunities, especially in rising to administrative positions, are less than men's, and that these positions belong to males; even their qualifications and men' are exactly the same. They think that males are, generally, more accepted and supported than females (Tipawadee Meksawan, 1994: 34) Such attitudes are the result of the child-rearing process and the socialization based on the belief in gender differences, which inspires males' and females' perception and acceptance of gender constraints and gender division such that these attitudes affect subsequently the work and opportunities for career progress.

Attitudes about gender differences also affect essentially occupational values and work. Males and females in each society are pre-set to have different preferences in occupation, such that some occupations have been symbolized by means of gender division; for example, occupations like teacher, nurse, public relation, service,

reception, office work, secretary, paper work, accounting, contacting and coordination. These careers are largely occupied by women, such that they are widely accepted and have become directly females' occupational stereotypes. On the other hand, occupations like soldier, police, lawyer, judge, prosecutor, politician, administrator, governor, medical doctor, engineer, architect, etc. are widely accepted as males' careers as they seem more suitable doing the jobs than females. These attitudes cause occupational division according to gender rather than focusing on individual's capability and interest, which is obviously reflected by students' selections of departments or disciplines for their further studies in universities: a large number of females choose social science fields, while a large number of males choose scientific disciplines.

Furthermore, attitudes toward gender differences are commonplace in work, especially the consideration to promote somebody to a high-ranking position in Thailand. Even though, during the past few decades the number of female civil servants have increased considerably compared to the number at the beginning of the implementation of the First Royal Act on Civil Servant Regulations in 2470 B.E In those days, there were only a small number of females civil servants, representing just 3 - 4%, and were mostly temporary employees or office officials. The social attitudes at that period determined females' roles limited only to housework responsibility. The prominent jobs of working-outside-the-home females at that period were teacher and nurse. Later on, when educational opportunity has been increased, together with the expansion of bureaucracy system as well as other work systems, females' opportunities to take civil-servant jobs, as well as other careers have also been increased. Particularly, in 2533 B.E. the number of females working as ordinary civil servants increased to 51.8% of the total, which was more than their number in 2522 B.E., when female civil servants represented only 41.9%. And up to 2543 B.E., the number of female civil servants increased to 61.7% of the total, indicating clearly their continual increase in number. Interestingly, however, for the high-ranking positions - civil servants level 9 to level 11 – the indicators of career progress that are administrative positions, experts, or specialists, there have been much fewer females than males holding these positions. Females have taken positions level 11 only 2.4%;

level 10 at 15.25%; and level 9 at 24.42% (Office of the Civil Service Commission, 2002 : 36), even though they outnumber considerably male civil servants.

Therefore, it can be said that attitudes about gender differences are another variable affecting females' career progress due to beliefs regarding male superiority, more powerful than females transferred from generation to generation. Such belief inspires gender difference attitudes in relevance to patriarchal system that believes in male superiority in family, society, ideology, political system, in which males have opportunities to use their power directly. In addition, ceremonies, tradition, laws, language, norms, linguistic expressions, education, and job division all take part in determine which roles women should do or not, that, eventually, put females under males' controls (Rich, 1986: 57 – 58) Such phenomena occur in a vast number of societies, which affect the work accordingly. Consequently, this is another issue worth to conduct subsequent study to find out how much it affects university lecturers' career progress.

2.14.6 Gender difference in the aspect of household tasks and career progress

Family activities are other tasks Thai society considers as females' responsibilities, especially housework, such as house cleaning, house tidying and decoration, cooking, laundry, child rearing. All these duties increase the burden to outside-the-home working females due to two different kinds of works at the same time. Researches have revealed that one of the factors affecting females' career progress, especially the rise to administrative positions less than males' is the responsibilities in families, because everyday they have to allocate their time for such tasks, so they have less time to develop themselves for their professional jobs, particularly in terms of academic work (Williams, 1983: 99) In addition, females have to take care of young children, sick members of families and elder relatives living together. These are important factors causing them making decision not to take high-ranking administrative positions due to the lack of time for working fully in such status (Mills,2000: 212) Therefore, household tasks are still very influential on women working outside the home.

If considering theoretical concept reflecting the husband-and-wife relationship in family regarding the husband's participation in household tasks, the classification of married couple according to feminist theory (Linsey, 1999: 11) using socio-economic aspect to analyze this issue has found that the work division between both genders, both inside and outside the family demonstrates the power relation between genders. Because household tasks in females' responsibilities do not have economic values, females are, consequently, deprived from external resources, resulting in their inferior status to their husbands. At present, women have to take responsibilities, however, both inside and outside the home, so there must be equality, both in the family and in the society, in terms of suitable sharing the household tasks between husband and wife.

In addition, the distribution of work and roles between married couple according to resource theory (Blood and Wolf, 1990: 22) has suggested that the relationship in the family has married couple's responsibilities for household task as its components as well. The extent of responsibility depends on each individual's resources, such as the duration of time working outside the home, occupation, income, educational level, and social class, which results in work division in order to be suitable to each individual in modern society. If the responsibility division is well agreed upon, the married life will be smooth and the work in accordance with each one's roles, either husband's or wife's, will increasingly gain its progress.

According to researches on females having finished higher education from prominent universities in the United States during the last 10 years, it is found that 85% of 902 sampled women believe that if the duration of time for doing household tasks is reduced, they will have certainly more opportunity for career progress. Moreover, it is also found that 53% of 594 sampled married woman have changed positions or work because the increased responsibilities in the families have prevented them from devoting fully to their professional permanent jobs, in contrast to prior to the marriage (Swiss and Walker, 1993: 10 – 11) So household tasks are partially responsible for the reduction of females' career progress as well.

In Thailand, it is found that the sharing of household responsibilities between married couples is not properly divided. Such responsibilities are mostly females'. Household tasks include 8 main activities; cooking, dish washing, food purchase,

home cleaning, laundry, expense control, child rearing, and elderly care. Apparently, Thai males hardly help their wives do housework, and even 20.3% of them do not help their wives to do any activities in the families at all. Actually, husbands help their wives pretty much to do only 3 from 8 activities as follows: cooking (19.3%), dish washing (16.8%), food purchase (14.3%); while helping a little to do other activities such as home cleaning (11.2%), laundry (8.7%), expense control (5.5%), child rearing (3.2%), and elderly care (0.5%) (Rapeepan Panthuratana, 2000: 61-76) Therefore, it can be said that Thai women still have more roles in doing household tasks than men do, which is, in turn, partially causing the outside-the-home working females to have less opportunities for progress or to have slower progress than their male counterparts.

2.14.7 Gender Difference in the Aspect of Gender Identities

Gender identities are another factor demonstrating the differences between genders in society. Males often are supposed and expected to be stronger, more patient, determined, and enthusiast than females. And as they like to face problems, solve problems, dare to think and make decision more than women, including being risk takers, courageous for trials, so they have more opportunities for career progress than females and also at a rapid pace, especially when concerning challenging, pioneering, and persevering tasks at the beginning. In fact, indicators of career progress consist of many variables including income, position, beneficial rights, fame, and the duration of acquisition of these components, which are objective progress. As male characteristics are related to challenging work and confidence more than females' are, when assigned to those duties, males are then given more chance than females. That can possibly result in their success in career progress than their female counterparts (Nabi, 2001: 458)

According to researches related to gender differences and the promotion to administrative positions in higher educational institutes, it is found that females are less supported than males. Since these position holders have to work harder, with large number of considerations that must be decided upon immediately, so the courage is needed for the risk of make mistakes that will lead, in turn, to spontaneous and appropriate solutions (Johnsrud, 1988: 80) These are not females' natural

characteristics. Moreover, a survey on the perception of gender differences concerning the accomplishment of employees from 284 private companies in Australia has found that more than 60% of females' greatest hopes are likely to be only satisfied with moderate positions, just 15% of them expect to rise to the highest position of the companies. The satisfaction with only moderate positions is because they have secured work, and face less tension from hard thinking and decision making than high position holders do, including having less risk of making mistakes and damages as well. It is because the rise to high-ranking positions means to confront challenging problems in every possible aspect, thus meaning more responsibilities than those holding moderate positions (Dann, 1995: 88) Therefore, females are satisfied with positions and progress of a lesser degree when compared to males, which is, in fact, relevant to their physiques and their personal identities that are different from males'.

A comparative study on career progress between males and females in Alabama, Arizona, Texas, and Wisconsin in the United Stated by Kelly (1991: 408) has found that females tend to stay on their permanent jobs and hardly change, so they have inferior positions to males', as well as less income, that appears as having less progress than males do. Actually, they have less opportunity to be promoted to be responsible to new jobs or do big projects due to their personal characteristics, as well as their experiences, age, educational level, and that the high-ranking jobs need much time for traveling, and have to stay at the workplaces more than normal jobs require. Therefore, women generally refuse to accept such jobs by raising, as reasons, their non-preparedness or being occupied by other jobs, especially household tasks. As a result, their opportunities for career progress are diminished accordingly.

In addition, if having to go far from home and not in the case of following their husbands or families, women generally refuse or forgo the transfer, the rotation for a higher position or the same level position but with more opportunities in the future,. In fact, the transfer to farther regions is another opportunity for career progress, but females are not likely to take the risk or decide to go. In contrast, their male counterparts submit for such positions in higher proportion compared to their females (Office of the Civil Service Commission, 2002: 60) Consequently, males have more opportunities for the progress than females due to this gender identity.

A study on gender characteristics by classifying the behaviors, which signify gender identities, has found that males tend to be enthusiast, hopeful, determined, self-confident, as well as being creative, expressive, open-minded, but probably stubborn, arrogant, straight forward without concealment. On the other hand females are careful, cautious, contemplative, cheerful, gentle, but probably sensitive, volatile, emotional, introvert (Heilbrun, 1981: 35) These are each gender's specific characteristics that affect substantially their work and career progress in relevance to work characteristics.

2.14.8 Work Characteristics and Career Responsibility

To work in each career, each work unit manages to divide the work line for the workers to do their duty according to their positions. Each work path has its own distinguished professional work path according to work characteristics, responsibilities, and professional operation as follows:

1. Work Routine. The important goal, the main operational principle of universities is to produce graduates, conduct research, service the society, and promote, support, preserve arts and culture. These 4 duties are the heart of universities' operational achievement, and the main personnel performing such duties are lecturers. According to Office of the Higher Education Commission, the lecturers are prescribed to do their permanent duties in accordance with the universities' objectives, i.e. teaching, conducting research, servicing the society, and promoting, supporting and preserving arts and culture, so there are different subsequent activities created in each university.

Lecturers' permanent jobs are teaching. According to regulations, lecturers are supposed to teach 10 hours per week. If holding an administrative position, a lecturer can reduce some of his/her teaching courses in order to do the administrative duty. For example; head of department or chairman of discipline are supposed to have 6 teaching courses per week; the administrative holders at faculty level and university level are supposed to teach 3 hours per week etc. Apart from normal teaching courses, lecturers are supposed to new knowledge entity in order to develop the academic curriculum; that is, to conduct research in order to use its outcome in teaching,

servicing the society, and subsequently being beneficial for the country development as a whole.

Teaching and research conducting are main responsibilities that enhance lecturers' career progress. In order to be eligible to submit for the promotion from being a lecturer to be Assistant Professor in compliance with the Office of the Higher Education Commission' regulation, the lecturer must have his/her weekly teaching courses; the routine teaching courses must have his/her written papers used in the courses; research report; textbook or book showing the research; compilation; or processing the knowledge correctly according to the discipline, and these academic work must be tried, circulated, or disseminated in society for at least one semester. For the research, the findings must be presented in academic conference or concluded into an article and published in periodical of standard organization, and there is a committee examining its exactitude before being publishing and able to use that research outcome to submit for the promotion of academic position (Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2004: 4 – 5) Thus this is one of routine work that enables university lecturers to have career progress.

2. Work Experience. It is an important factor leading to the progress or achievement in career, because working is an accumulation of experience, resulting in learning, reviewing, contemplating in order to plan and decide to stop or continue the operation. As a result, experience is also a valuable resource for work (Johnsrud, 1988: 24), and it can lead to the career progress. Those with more experiences will have higher position and higher income than the inexperienced ones in the same field of work (Kelly, et al., 1991: 402) Females and males with the same qualifications, such as age, education, but if they have different experiences, their opportunities in work are also different according to their experiences suitable for positions and work types (Gender Equity Committee, 2001: 14)

For Thai university lecturers, even though the experience may not have a direct effect on their career progress, especially on academic positions, but in administrative line, it has a substantial effect. Because according the regulation, those who want to be administrators at any level, whether head of department, faculty administrators, university administrators must be lecturers having taught for at least 1 year in that particular institute, and having passed already the work on probation

period. Moreover, to have academic position, there is a regulation concerning the duration of work period able to submit for the position promotion; for example, from lecturer to be Assistant Professor, if having finished bachelor's degree, that person must have taught at least 9 years, if having master's degree, at least 5 years of teaching is required, and if having doctoral degree., at least 2 years of teaching is required. In order to submit for associate professorship, an Assistant Professor must have been holding this position for at least 3 years, and to submit for the professorship, an Associate Professor must have been holding this position for at least 2 years (Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2004: 11 – 14) The setting of such duration is to give the lecturers the time for the production of academic work, including to study, conduct experiment and research, and examine the facts in order to process the correct knowledge entity, which is actually the self-training and accumulation of experience to have subsequently the career progress.

3. Self-Development. University lecturers are highly educated and knowledgeable people. Particularly, the engagement of a person to be a permanent lecturer has a precise regulation stating that the person must finished the study with master's degree or PhD's degree. And as the work is in academic curriculum, the university has the policy to develop lecturers to have more potentiality in order to develop the university and its personnel simultaneously. The personnel development comprises different patterns; whether further studies to higher levels; supplementary training courses; the presentation of academic work in academic seminar, both in the country and abroad; research conducting; the production of academic work in the form of textbook; supplementary teaching papers; teaching media; inventions; which can also be used for the promotion of academic position and career progress.

Research has found that lecturers who always improve themselves have opportunities to have career progress, promoted to higher positions, especially those conducting the research and having it published continually. Such researches results directly in their progress (Silverman and McDonald, 2004: 20 – 21) In the case of research university, it usually requires its lecturers to do at least one research per year and disseminate them in the society to build up the university's reputation, and it is also used for the job assessment to extend the employment contract according to university's regulation. The research also boost the university's chance to receive

supporting funds for research from budget and different fund sources, which are partially university' revenue for its operation (The Office of Academic Advancement, 2003: 19) Consequently, the lecturers' academic self-development is not only beneficial to themselves, but also to the university, the society, and to the country as a whole.

4. Promotion and Support. They are also factors enabling lecturers' opportunities to have career progress and working more comfortably. Apart from supporting through policy with precise principle and approach, in practice the university also support and promote through concrete means, such as the allocation of budget for lecturers to research or write textbooks, to present the work in academic conference, including the partial provision of equipment, tools, materials, and technology, which signify the readiness of the support. Apart from the fund, there are also working groups, assistants, including the support by assisting the circulation of work to the society, that makes lecturers realize increasingly the value of their work creation, as well as the importance of their working (Knowles, 1984: 240), which helps boost their morale and direct the them to the career progress as well.

According to researches, it is found that the support and promotion stimulate the lecturers' desire to work harder and develop for better jobs. Especially, when supported with fund, equipment and materials, and eligible working group as assistant, the lecturers are greatly enthusiast and interested in working to develop themselves (Nabi, 2001: 473) On the other hand, if there is the lack of support in terms of time, fund, equipment and assistant, there is very slim chance to motivate the lecturers' interest to do the research (Office of the National Education Commission, 2002: 111) Therefore, the support and promotion are the duty that the university has to administrate as well.

The research abroad has found that the support and promotion for the lecturers to do the research or produce academic work create academic climate in the university, because such activities lead to the annual academic conference, bringing the academics to meet together, thus creating the academic advancement and expanding the university's fame (Case Western Reserve University, 2004: 22 – 23) At the same time, it makes the lecturers interested in doing research for the university's reputation as well as for their own progress (Langlberg, 2003: 29) Thus the support

and promotion for lecturers to produce academic work are beneficial directly to both the producing lecturers and the university to which they belong.

The support and promotion may possibly be not all provided completely at the same time, because there are lots of supports needed to fulfill, as well as the sequence of support in relevance to necessity. If there are only some parts of support or promotion available; for example, the availability of research assistants, it can already satisfy greatly married researchers (Hursch, 1997: 291); the availability of necessary equipment and instruments for experimental research can satisfy greatly scientific researchers (Rowley, 1996: 14); the availability of fund and good working groups can satisfy greatly big project researchers (Miles, 2000: 222); the support in the terms of time to be able to conduct research completely by granting a temporary absence from routine jobs can greatly motivate researchers wanting to do big project research (Office of the National Education Commission, 2002: 127); and the support for new generation researchers to have opportunities to conduct research with expert researchers can substantially motivate the inexperienced ones (Case Western Reserve University, 2004: 29) Consequently, it can be said that even the support and promotion are partially available, it can still motivate greatly lecturers to develop themselves for their career progress.

5. Time Allocation. Time is another work factor related to career progress. If a worker can allocate properly his/her time, whether in routine job at the workplace, personal jobs at home, including any other special job, he/she will be likely to have career progress and achievement in working life. Especially, for the working-outside-the-home women at present who are still responsible for household tasks, though not all, but the obligation to take all these responsibilities at the same time makes their time allocation extremely important to reach the success (Naff, 1994: 512) And that is a reason why married women tend to refuse the administrative jobs or the jobs requiring overtime operation, because they have to divide their time for the families, child rearing and housework; consequently, they have lesser career progress compared to their male counterparts (Naff, 1994: 511)

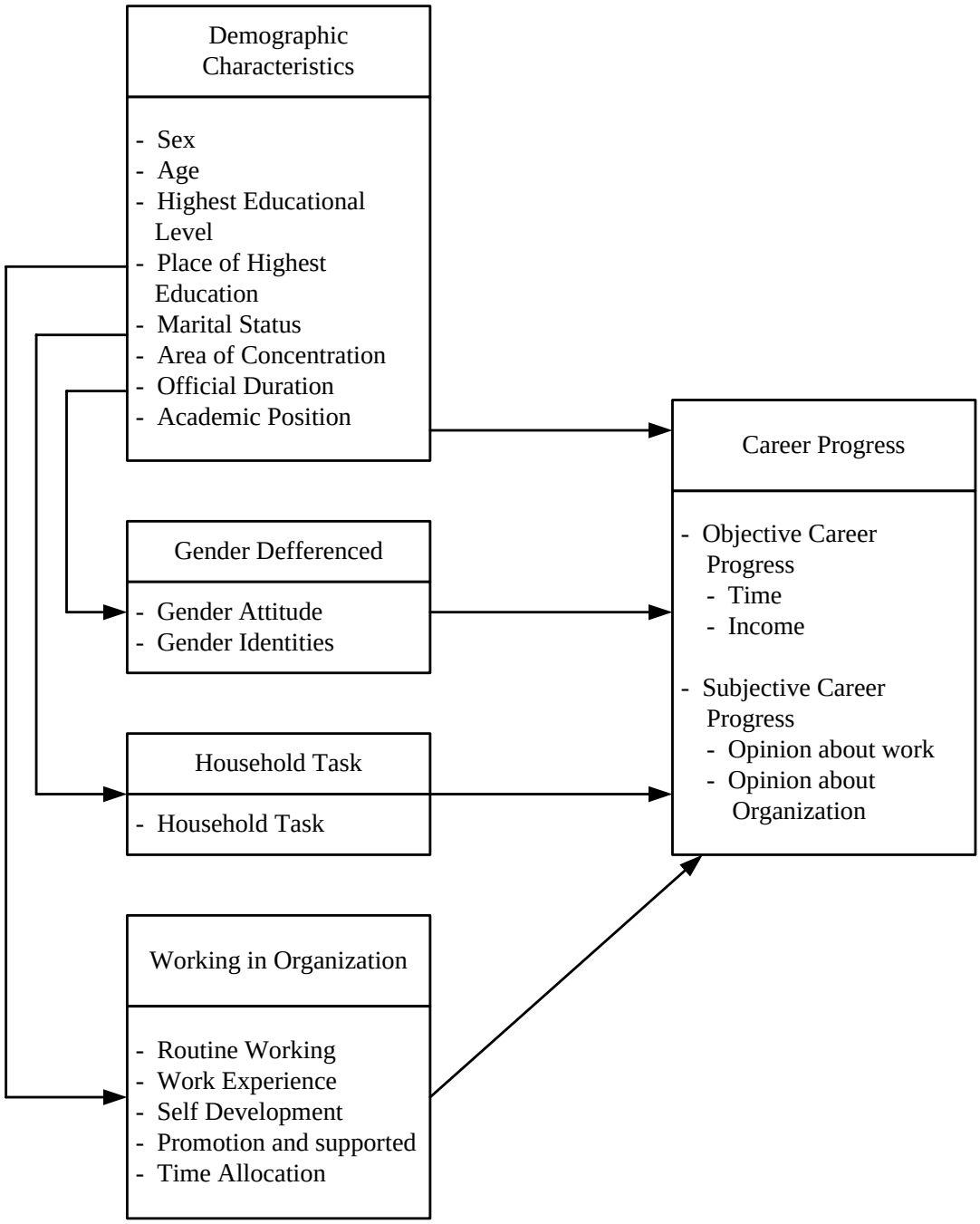
To produce academic work is something requiring a continuation of time for the research, data collection, systematical categorization of data according to discipline, and analysis. Therefore, apart from the time allocated for routine jobs,

more time is still needed, and it becomes an obstacle for females' career progress (Bailyn, 2003: 24), because women also have to use their time both for routine professional jobs at workplaces and for their housework responsibilities. Therefore, overtime work is a factor causing the inequality between male and female despite the equal capability (The Australian National University, 2002: 37 – 39)

According to some researches, it is found that females have restrictions in allocating time for work in greater extent than males do, especially, working and fertile women between 25 – 35 years old. During this period they generally have their own families with babies to look after closely, so they have to cease temporarily their advance in work. They cannot resume their self-development at its normal pace until their children can take care of themselves (Bailyn, 2003: 29) However, for women starting to work between 20 – 25 years old, their time allocation for work and household responsibilities is not a big problem. They have full chance to develop and devote themselves to their work owing to the single status. And those aging from 50 years, who have diminished family responsibilities, have high potential to rise to high-ranking positions, especially administrative positions, because, due to less housework, they have more time to develop themselves in addition to their previous accumulation of work experiences, so they are more accepted at certain level (Gender Equity Committee, 2001: 16) As a result, females' progress is also dependent on their time available to work at each age range in relevance to their responsibilities.

2.15 Conceptual Framework of the Research

According to the review of concepts, theories, and research related to the study, a research conceptual framework can be built as follows:


Demographic Characteristics
- Sex
- Age
- Highest Educational Level
- Place of Highest Education
- Marital Status
- Area of Concentration
- Official Duration
- Academic Position
Gender Defferenced
- Gender Attitude
- Gender Identities
Household Task
- Household Task
Working in Organization
- Routine Working
- Work Experience
- Self Development
- Promotion and supported
- Time Allocation
Career Progress
- Objective Career Progress
- Time
- Income
- Subjective Career Progress
- Opinion about work
- Opinion about Organization

2.16 Summary

According to the study on concepts, theories, and reviews of related researches, it is found that gender differences are determinant of social roles directing individuals to conduct in accordance to their duties and responsibilities imposed by the society, whether roles in the families or social roles. Gender differences are parts of the inequality of social and career progress. There are also personal factor determinants, such as gender, age, educational level, marital status, and determinants related to organization or the work unit to which the individual belongs, such as routine work responsibility, work experience, self-development, support and promotion from the organization, time allocation. Apart from working in the organization, males and females also have their roles in and responsibilities for their families. They have family tasks to do, such as child rearing, looking after sick members of the families, as well as elderly members, home cleaning, cleaning utensils and equipment used for cooking, shopping things needed in the families, controlling expenses etc. These responsibilities involve time uses and affect work plan in the organization, which, in turn, affect individuals' career progress in routine work. And from many research studies, it is found that there are also social norms related to gender differences. They are: attitudes toward gender, such as administrative jobs are suitable to males, housework suits females; gender identities, such as males are highly self-confident, bold in making decision more than females, while females are cautious, reconcilable more than males, etc., which concern the differences of career progress between males and females.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 The Research Design

This research is consisted of documentary research and survey research, which are detailed as followed:

3.1.1 The documentary research is information studies ranging from collecting data of number of lecturers to categorizing them according to their academic positions. They are secondary data collected from: the former Office of the University Affairs or the present Office of the Higher Education Commission, the Office of the Civil Service Commission, and the 24 state universities' annual reports. The lecturers were classified according to their genders, ages, educational levels, places of their studies, disciplines, academic positions, and work life duration, as an overview comparative study of lecturers, both males and females, all over the country.

3.1.2 The survey research is primary data collection by means of questionnaire designed by the researcher, which consists of: 1) Demographic characteristics, they are gender, age, educational level, place of the study, marital status; 2) Work information which is academic status, administrative position, workplace, discipline, position at first start, work life duration, the transfer or change of work; 3) Gender differences which are gender attitudes, gender identities; 4) Work characteristics which are responsibilities in the family and work in organization. They are consisted of routine work responsibilities, work experience, self development, support and promotion, time allocation; 5) Career progress which is objective career progress that is consisted of income at present, the holding duration of each academic status, number of academic work from the past to present, and the subjective career progress including the feeling or the perception of having career progress in the present work,

in income of the present position, and the intention to work at the same place to rise to higher positions in the future without change.

Besides, there were also additional interviews to supplement survey research in order to get more details in some aspects of Professors level 11and lecturers level 7, and of those who had not been promoted in academic positions, by means of semi-structure interview. Ten of them from each discipline were selected by means of survey and from the name list of Professors of the Office of the Higher Education Commission in order to use data collected for the studies and the analysis of the data gathered from the survey of work characteristics affecting the career progress.

3.2 Population and the Samples

The population used in this research is permanent lecturers of 24 state universities who belong to the former Office of the University Affairs or the present Office of the Higher Education Commission, whose total number from the data collection in 2548 B.E. was 24,680, of which 11,900 were males (48.21%) and 12,780 females (51.79%). They were classified into 3 groups according to their disciplines as; 1) Sciences and Technology, 2) Health science, 3) Social Science and Humanities (Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2004: 3-4) as detailed in table 4.1 and 4.2 in chapter 4.

The samples were permanent lecturers of 24 state universities selected by means of three-stage stratified sampling in order to have representatives distributed in all regions of the country, both in Bangkok and its peripheral areas, and in provinces. Locations were divided into 2 categories; Bangkok and its peripherals, and other regions. The sampling resulted in 8 sample universities and 400 sample lecturers who covered all 3 disciplines.

3.2.1 Sample Size

The sample number was obtained from calculating 24,680, the number of state university lecturers, by using Taro Yamane' formula (1970: 886 – 887), and setting the error at 0.05, with 95% of reliability, resulting in the number of samples of not less than 394 lecturers, and this research has adjusted the

number to 400 persons. The detail of the sample number calculation is as follow:

From the formula $n = \frac{N}{1 + Ne^2}$ substitution of $N = 24{,}680$ people and $e = 0.05$

Results in $n = \frac{24{,}680}{1 + (24{,}680 \times 0.05)}$

$$n = \frac{24{,}680}{1 + 61.7}$$

$$n = \frac{24{,}680}{62.7} \approx 394$$

3.2.2 Sample Size of Each Discipline

When the number 394 of the sample size was adjusted to 400, it was then allocated to find the sample size according to disciplines in proportion to number of each discipline's population as the following formula:

$$n_i = \frac{n \times N_i}{N}$$

where n_i substitutes the sample size of discipline i (i = 1,2,3)

N_i substitutes the population size of discipline i

n substitutes the total sample size

N substitutes the total population

1) In Sciences and Technology discipline there were altogether 10,362 lecturers, so the sample size calculation from the formula was as follows:

$n_1 = \frac{400 \times 10{,}362}{24{,}680} = 168$, therefore, the sample size of the Science and Technology discipline was 168 persons.

2) In health science discipline there were altogether 6,555 lecturers, so the sample size calculation from the formula was as follows:

$n_2 = \frac{400 \times 6{,}555}{24{,}680} = 106$, therefore, the sample size of the health science discipline was 168 persons.

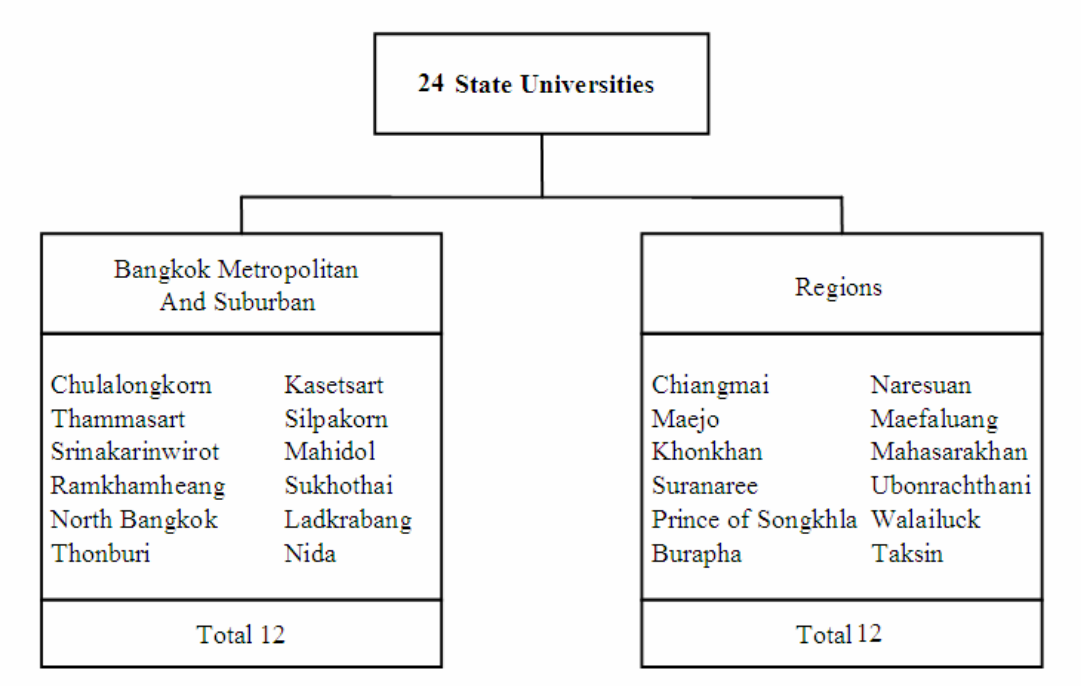
3) In social science and humanities discipline there were altogether 7,763 lecturers, so the sample size calculation from the formula was as follows: $n_3 = \frac{400 \times 7,763}{24,680} = 126$, therefore, the sample size of the social science and humanities discipline was 126 persons.

3.3 Data Collection

In order to have the samples distributed throughout Bangkok with its peripherals and provinces, as well as to cover all 3 disciplines, the selection of universities was done by drawing lots, resulting in 4 universities in Bangkok and its peripherals, and 4 universities in the regions. And in each discipline, there were an equal or close numbers of males and females as required. The details of university selection and the sample size classified according to university and discipline are as follows:

3.3.1 The grouping of the 24 universities according to their locations is as follows:

Figure 3.1 Name List of State Universities According to Their Geographical Locations



3.3.2 The university selection and the setting of sample size according to discipline are as follows:

Table 3.1 Sample Size Classified According to University and Discipline

Location	Universities	Disciplines/Sample Size			Total
		Sciences and Technologies	Health Sciences	Social Sciences and Humanities	
Bangkok	Chulalongkorn	22	14	16	52
And	Kasetsart	20	12	16	48
Suburban	Mahidol	22	15	15	52
	Sukhothai	20	12	16	48
Total		**84**	**53**	**63**	**200**
Provinces	Burapha	20	13	16	49
	Chiangmai	22	13	16	51
	Khonkhen	22	13	16	51
	Prince of Songkhla	20	14	15	49
Total		**84**	**53**	**63**	**200**
Overall		**168**	**106**	**126**	**400**

3.3.3 The faculty selection according to disciplines taught in the sample universities in order to cover all discipline as the purpose, and to be places of subsequent data collection resulted in faculties according to disciplines as follows:

1) In Sciences and Technology, they were the Faculty of Engineering, Faculty of Science, Faculty of Architecture, Faculty of Agriculture, and Faculty of Veterinary.

2) In health science, they were the Faculty of Medicine, Faculty of Dentistry, Faculty of Pharmacy, Faculty of Nursing, and Faculty of Public Health.

3) In social science and humanities, they were the Faculty of Education or Teaching, Faculty of Arts, or Humanities, or Liberal Arts, Faculty of Business Administration, or Commercial Science, or Accounting, Faculty of Law, and Faculty of Fine and Applied Arts.

3.3.4 Procedure to get name lists and numbers of lecturers belonging to those faculties from personnel departments and websites of selected faculties and universities. The random sampling was done by means of drawing lots to have numbers of sample sizes which were categorized according to genders and disciplines to correspond the previously set numbers, or as close as possible.

3.3.5 When the correct numbers of lecturers' names were obtained, the contact to the sample lecturers was undertaken to find out their consent, and readiness for interviews and answering the questionnaire for the research.

3.3.6 After receiving the sampled lecturers' consent, the samples' data were collected by means of interviews, distributed questionnaire and the collection carried out by the researcher until the numbers required were reached.

3.4 Data Analysis

The Data Analysis Consists of:

3.4.1 The documentary analysis is the secondary analysis concerning career progress by analyzing the holding of administrative positions and academic positions of each level, classified according to age, educational level, places of education, discipline, different levels of positions, duration of holding the position, in addition to the analysis by using demographic and human resource development theories by means of descriptive analysis which includes percentage, arithmetic mean, standard deviation, presented in form of tables together with explanation, and analysis of gender differences which affect career progress by using multiple regression analysis.

3.4.2 The analysis of data from interviews by means of arranging the frequency of data from interviews concerning demographic characteristics, gender differences, and work characteristics which affect career progress by calculating in percentage in order to explain the analysis outcome of data gathered from survey and documentary analysis.

3.5 Operational Definitions Used in the Research

3.5.1 Gender difference means physical characteristics and social roles which impose the male's and female's differences in tasks and behaviors, including attitudes, specific characteristics, responsibilities in routine work, both at home and at workplace.

3.5.2 Work characteristic means male's and female's work and the work operation, both at home and at the workplace, which include responsibilities in the family, routine responsibilities for professional positions, work experience, self development, promotion and support, time allocation for work.

3.5.3 Career progress means the holding of a higher position whether academic or administrative, divided into: 1) Academic progress which is; (1.1) objective progress meaning the promotion to a higher academic status, more income, beneficial rights, welfare, compensation in accordance to the new position, (1.2) subjective progress meaning the perception or feeling that the work or workplace bring him/herself the progress, including the intention to work in order to be promoted to higher positions; 2) Progress in administration is the holding of administrative position at university level such as president vice president, assistant president, dean, vice dean, director of center or office equivalent to faculty.

3.5.4 State university lecturer means the person engaged to work in different work paths, i.e. teaching, research, and academic service to the society called civil servant line A. who has available academic status as lecturer, Assistant Professor, Associate Professor, Professor in 24 state universities that belong to the former Office of the University Affairs or the Office of the Higher Education Commission at present, whether situated in Bangkok or in the regions nationwide.

3.6 The Variable Measurement

The measurement of independent and dependent variables used in the study is as follows:

Table 3.2 Variables Used in the Study and the Measurement

No	Variables	Definition	Measurement
1	Independent variables Demographic characteristics		
	1.1 Gender	- Physical Appearance by nature	- Nominal (male/female)
	1.2 Age	- Year at birth till present	- Ratio
	1.3 Educational Level	- Highest Education hold	- Ordinal (Bachelor Degree, Master Degree and Doctoral Degree)
	1.4 Place of Highest	- Location of Institute or University where the Sample finished	- Nominal (Thailand or foreign countries)
	1.5 Official Duration in working	- Year at start working till present	- Ratio
	1.6 Marital Status	- Status of Family and number of children	- Nominal (Single, Married and have children, Married and without children, Widowed, Divorced, Separated)
	1.7 Academic Position	- Status of acting in academic classification	- Ordinal (Lecturer, Assistant Professor, Associate Professor, Professor)
	1.8 Discipline	- Faculty/Program/School etc…	- Nominal (Sciences and Technologies, Health Sciences, Social Sciences and Humanities)
2.	Gender Difference		
	2.1 Gender Attitude towards working	- Thought/Believe on Gender difference and its effect toward working such as in the same knowledge and Capability level, males are more accepted than females	- 5 Questions - Opinions Level 0-5 0 = never 1 = least 2 = little 3 = moderate 4 = much 5 = most
	2.2 Household Tasks	- Responsibility on household tasks in daily life such as control expenditure, take care of children, clean house, cooking etc..	- 10 Questions - Responsibility Level 0-5 0 = never 1 = least 2 = little 3 = moderate 4 = much 5 = most

Table 3.2 (Continued)

No	Variables	Definition	Measurement
	2.3 Gender Identities	- Specific Characteristics of each gender such as females have more exhaustiveness than males and males have more self confidence than females	- 10 Questions - Opinion Level 0-5 0 = never 1 = least 2 = little 3 = moderate 4 = much 5 = most
3.	Working in Organization		
	3.1 Routine Working	- Duties by position and regulation such as teaching, research, social service	- 5 Questions - Practice Level 0-5 0 = never 1 = least 2 = little 3 = moderate 4 = much 5 = most
	3.2 Self - Development	- Academic Development of each person such as join the conference, publish textbook, present the paper etc…	- 5 Questions - Practice Level 0-5 0 = never 1 = least 2 = little 3 = moderate 4 = much 5 = most
	3.3 Time - Allocation	- Time management for doing each task in daily life	- 5 Questions - Practice Level 0-5 0 = never 1 = least 2 = little 3 = moderate 4 = much 5 = most
	3.4 Work Experience	- Responsibilities in administrative position related to be a committee, head project, supervisor etc….	- 5 Questions - Practice Level 0-5 0 = never 1 = least 2 = little 3 = moderate 4 = much 5 = most

Table 3.2 (Continued)

No	Variables	Definition	Measurement
	3.5 Promotion or Supported	- Getting an opportunities to study abroad or Getting the financial supported to do research, publish academic performance etc….	- 7 Questions - Practice Level 0-5 0 = never 1 = least 2 = little 3 = moderate 4 = much 5 = most
	Dependent Variable		
1.	The Objective Career progress	- Getting higher academic position, income, benefits etc.. from starting working till present	
	1.1 Income	- Getting more Salary, bonus or benefits followed time working and performance in each year	- Ratio
	1.2 Time for getting Academic Position	- Getting higher academic position from lecturer position at start working till present by counting number of year in each position	- Ordinal
2.	The Subjective Career progress	- Perception or Opinion of each person toward office place, job, position, income etc…	- 7 Questions - Opinion Level 0-5 0 = never 1 = least 2 = little 3 = moderate 4 = much 5 = most

3.7 Instrument Used in the Research

The instruments used in the research were questionnaires constructed by the researcher after the studies of papers, textbooks, theories, and related researches which were divided into 8 sections as follows:

1. Questions concerning gender differences in terms of gender identities were presented in form of checklist questionnaire consisting of 10 questions about gender characteristics, and each question had a score ranging from 0 – 5 points.

2. Questions concerning gender differences in terms of gender attitudes were presented in form of checklist questionnaire consisting of 5 questions about gender attitudes, and each question had a score ranging from 0 – 5 points.

3. Questions concerning gender differences in terms of responsibilities in the families were presented in form of questionnaire consisting of 10 questions about responsibilities in the families, and each question has a score ranging from 0 – 5 points.

4. Questions concerning gender differences in terms of professional work were presented in form of checklist questionnaire consisting of 5 questions about routine work, 5 questions about self development, 5 questions about time allocation, 5 questions about work experience, 7 questions about promotion and support, and each question had a score ranging from 0 – 5 points.

5. Questions about subjective career progress were presented in form of checklist questionnaire consisting of 7 questions about opinions on career progress, and each question had a score ranging from 0 – 5 points.

6. Questions about respondents' demographic characteristics were presented in form of questionnaire with blank space to fill and choices to select consisting of 5 questions about opinions on gender, age, educational background, marital status, number of children, and each question had a score ranging from 0 – 5 points.

7. Questions about subjective career progress were presented in form of questionnaire with blank space to fill and choices to select, consisting of 12 questions about academic positions, income, work life duration, faculty or discipline he/she belongs to, administrative position, the position engaged at the first start, the year engaged as a lecturer, the year promoted to Professorship, the year promoted to be Professor level 11, work life duration at the present workplace.

8. Questions about recommendations were presented in form of open-end questionnaire to fill the blank or express additional opinions.

3.8 Interpretation of the Scores

The scoring of each question is the 6-level rating scales. That is, 5 means the opinion or operational level is the most, 4 means the opinion or operational level is much, 3 means the opinion or operational level is moderate, 2 means the opinion or operational level is little, 1 means the opinion or operational level is the least, and 0 means the opinion or operational level is the not-at-all level, that is no opinion or never worked.

The interpretation or translation of the research outcome by using the average scores at cut-off points, that is, 0.00 – 0.99 means never, 1.00 – 1.50 means the least, 1.51 – 2.50 means little, 2.51 – 3.50 means moderate, 3.51 – 4.50 means much, 4.51 – 5.00 means the most.

3.9 Quality Testing of the Questionnaire

The draft of the constructed questionnaire was presented to advisory professor and experts to examine the content suitability, language uses, and the coverage of the studied issues, and was improved according to the advices. The questionnaire was then tried out with 30 of those who were not the samples, and used to find the dissemination value by finding the relationship between the average of each question and the average of item-total correlation by means of finding Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient, which resulted in the discrimination between 0.62 – 0.94. And to find the reliability of the whole questionnaire by using Cronbach's α - Coefficient formula (1990: 202 – 204) resulted in the analysis outcome of α - Coefficient of the questionnaire reliability of 0.97.

Table 3.3 The Discrimination and the α - Coefficient of the Questionnaire

Questions	Item	Cronbach's α - Coefficient
Gender Identity	10	0.77
Gender Attitude	5	0.82
Household Task	10	0.74
Working in Organization	27	0.82
Subjective Career Progress	7	0.84
Total	**59**	**0.97**

CHAPTER 4

THE ANALYSIS OF STATE UNIVERSITY LECTURER WORKFORCE AND THE CAREER PROGRESS

This chapter is about the study of secondary data in order to give an overview of university lecturer workforce in 24 state universities, and the analysis of gender differences and lecturers' career progress, which consist of these following issues: 1) number of lecturers of state universities classified according to their genders, workplaces and disciplines, 2) lecturers' career progress classified according to their genders and administrative positions, 3) lecturers' career progress classified according to their genders and academic positions.

4.1 Total Number of State University Lecturers

State university lecturers are civil servants belonging to higher educational institutions. According to the Act of Parliament 2547 B.E., they are individuals engaged and appointed to enter the civil service and paid with national budget categorized as salaries in higher educational institutions. They are people with common characteristics, bearing no forbidden traits, as stated in section 7 that: the individual is a Thai national, not less than fully 18 years old, and believes in democratic system with the king as the head of the state. In addition, he/she must not be political civil servant, of unsound mind or mental infirmity, person under disability, or sick of diseases stated in the Regulations of Civil Servants in Higher Education Institution (Government Gazette, 2004: 2)

In addition, an individual to enter into the civil service under higher educational institutions must not be a person under the initial order to stop working as civil servant, or temporarily discharged as civil servant according to this Act of Parliament or other laws. He/she must not lack good morals. He/she must not be member of executive committee or official of political party, a bankrupt, have never

been punished to be discharged, dismissed, or fired from state enterprise, public organization or any other state organization, never been imprisoned by final judicial sentence to imprisonment – except in the case of the verdict imposed to minor offence or negligent offence, never been punished to be discharged, dismissed, or fired form work because of disciplinary action according to this Act of Parliament or other laws, and never conducted fraudulently in sitting for entrance examination for civil service or the work of state organization (ibid: 3).

According to the rules, gender is not a restriction on entering into civil service, both male and female have, consequently, equal rights to work as state university lecturer. When considering the number of state university lecturers, it is found that there are slightly more female lecturers than males, as shown in table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Total Number of State University Lecturers Classified According to Institution and Gender.

No.	Institution	Members			Male : Female
		Total	Male	Female	
1.	Chulalongkorn University	2,792	1,322	1,470	47:53
2.	Kasetsart University	2,283	1,222	1,061	54:46
3.	Khon Kaen University	1,817	863	954	48:52
4.	Chiang Mai University	2,252	1,028	1,224	46:54
5.	Thammasat University	1,261	511	750	41:59
6.	Mahidol University	2,631	1,167	1,464	44:56
7.	Ramkhamhaeng University	901	389	512	43:57
8.	Silpakorn University	852	412	440	48:52
9.	Srinakarinwirot University	1,353	579	774	43:57
10.	Prince of Songkhla University	1,609	747	862	46:54
11.	Sukhothai Thammathirat Open University	357	145	212	41:59
12.	King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi	499	303	196	61:39
13.	King Mongkut's Institute of Technology North Bangkok	700	440	260	63:37

Table 4.1 (Continued)

No.	Institution	Members			Male : Female
		Total	Male	Female	
14.	King Mongkut's Institute of Technology Ladkrabang	864	618	246	72:28
15.	National Institute of Development Administration	169	79	90	47:53
16.	Maejo University	390	229	161	59:41
17.	Ubon Ratchathani University	472	249	223	52:48
18.	Burapha University	723	337	386	47:53
19.	Naresuan University	1,039	454	585	44:56
20.	Mae Fahluang University	190	82	108	43:57
21.	Mahasarakham University	706	295	411	42:58
22.	Walailak University	218	103	115	47:53
23.	Suranaree University of Technology	276	166	110	60:40
24.	Thaksin University	326	160	166	48:52
	Total	**24,680**	**11,900**	**12,780**	**48:52**

Source: Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2005: 3-4.

The overview table shows that from the total 24,680 lecturers, there are 11,900 male lecturers, accounting for 48%, and 12,780 female lecturers, accounting for 52%. When considering these institutions separately, it is found that female lecturers outnumber their male counterparts in most institutions; only in 7 institutions where male lecturers outnumber their female counterparts, these universities are Kasetsart, King Mongkut's Institute of Technology Thonburi, King Mongkut's Institute of Technology North Bangkok, King Mongkut's Institute of Technology Chaokhuntaharn Lad Krabang, Maejo, Ubon Ratchathani, and Suranaree University of Technology, while in other 17 institutions, female lecturers outnumber their male counterparts, but with slight differences, or at very close numbers. There are only 4 institutions where male lecturers outnumber obviously females; they are King

Mongkut’s Institute of Technology Thonburi (61:39%), King Mongkut's Institute of Technology North Bangkok (63:37%), King Mongkut’s Institute of Technology Chaokhuntaharn Lad Krabang (72:28%) where the male lecturers’ proportion is the highest, and Suranaree University of Technology (60:40%). It is because these four institutions’ curriculums focus on science, technology, engineering, which are likely males’ preferences rather than to females’, as illustrated clearly by numbers of students entering annually into these disciplines that they are mostly males with the ratio of males to females at 75 : 25% (Office of the University Affairs, 2546 : 35), therefore, those entering into lecturer career in these disciplines are males more than females accordingly.

When considering according to disciplines, the Office of the Higher Education Commission has classified them into 3 main groups of disciplines:

1. Sciences of Technology consisted of faculties or departments related to pure sciences, technological sciences, engineering, architecture, agriculture, fishery, forestry, marine science, agro industry, natural resources, the environment, information technology, veterinary science, industrial education and other related disciplines.

2. Health sciences consisted of faculties or departments related to the medicine, nursing, public health, dentistry, pharmacology, medical science, public health sciences, home economics, food science, nutrition sciences, psychology, physical education, sport science, and other related disciplines.

3. Social science and humanities consisted of faculties and departments related to education, law, political sciences, international relations, communication arts, journalism, mass communication, commerce, accountancy, business administration, management economics, social sciences, humanities, theology, arts, fine and applied arts, music, dancing arts, sociology, anthropology, social development, social administration, and other related disciplines.

Lecturers of all these 3 groups of disciplines in the 24 state universities can be classified according to disciplines and genders as shown in table 4.2

Table 4.2 Total Numbers of State University Lecturers Classified According to Discipline and Gender

No.	Discipline	Members			Male : Female
		Total	Male	Female	
1.	Science and Technology	10,362	6,153	4,209	59:41
2.	Health Science	6,555	2,682	3,873	41:59
3.	Social Science and Humanities	7,763	3,065	4,698	39:61
	Total	**24,680**	**11,900**	**12,780**	**48:52**

Source: Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2005: 7.

The table 4.2 shows that there is in only one group of disciplines where male lecturers' outnumber their female counterparts, i.e. the sciences and technology where there are 6,153 male lecturers (59%), and only 4,209 female lecturers or 41%. While in other two groups of disciplines, there are more female lecturers than males. That is, in health sciences, there are 2,682 male lecturers, accounting for 41%, while there are 3,873 female lecturers, accounting for 59%. There are more female lecturers in this group of disciplines because these disciplines are females' preferences rather than males', such as the Faculty of Nursing, Home Economics, Food Sciences. Anyhow, other disciplines, such as the Faculty of Medicine, Public Health Sciences, Dentistry, and Pharmacology, females tend to study in increasing numbers every year (Office of the University Affairs, 2003: 7–8). While in the group of social sciences and humanities, number of male lecturers is the smallest among all three groups of disciplines, that is, the ratio of male lecturers to females is 39% to 61% as a consequence of the number of females studying these disciplines is more than males'. In these faculties; for example, Education, Arts, Fine and Applied Arts, Communication Arts, as well as Law, Political Sciences, Commerce, Accountancy, Economics, Business Administration, females are likely to study in continually increasing numbers during the past 10 years, such that at present females have outnumbered males (Office of the University

Affairs, 2003: 11-12). It can be said as an overview that there are more females than males in the social sciences and humanities.

4.2 University Lecturers' Career Progress in Terms Concerning Administrative Positions

Administrative positions in university concern the administration and general affairs. These positions are President, Vice President, Dean, Director of Center, Director of Institute or Director of Office, Head of Independent Division, Vice Dean, Vice Director of Center, Vice Director of Institute, or Vice Director of Office, Head of Department or Head of Discipline, Director of Division, Secretary of the Faculty, Head of division, Head of Subdivision, and other positions established by the University Board (ministerial regulation, 2004: 6). Many full-time lecturers hold these positions, whether Presidents or Head of Departments. Moreover, some big departments where there are many lecturers have Vice Head of Department and the Secretary of the Department as well.

Administration positions which have been taken by full-time lecturers are President, Dean, Head of work units, possibly named otherwise, which are equivalent to a faculty, Director of Division or other work units that can be named otherwise, which are equivalent to a division as stated in the regulation set by the Civil Service Commission of Higher Educational Institutions in order to work and take responsibilities of the jobs (Government Gazette, 2004: 7). When considering the number of lecturers holding administrative positions at university level in 24 state university classified according to genders and administrative positions, which are President, Vice President, Dean, Vice Dean, Director of Center or Director of Office equivalent to Faculty, the number of male lecturers holding these positions is still more than the number of females, as shown in table 4.3

Table 4.3 : Total Number of University Lecturers Holding Administrative Positions, Classified According to Gender, Position and Institution

No.	Institution	Position (Person)														Overall	M : F
		Total		President		Vice President		Assistant President		Dean		Vice Dean		Director			
		1,816		24		183		74		277		1,082		176			
		M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F		
1	Chulalongkorn University	98	59	0	1	6	2	7	5	12	6	55	41	18	4	157	62:38
2	Kasetsart University	71	33	1	0	11	3	0	0	10	4	44	23	5	3	104	68:32
3	Khon Kaen University	80	39	1	0	6	2	0	0	12	5	53	31	8	1	119	67:33
4	Chiang Mai University	85	33	1	0	5	1	0	0	15	2	58	28	6	2	118	72:28
5	Thammasat University	74	50	1	0	5	4	5	6	13	2	38	37	12	1	124	60:40
6	Mahidol University	92	54	1	0	5	2	0	0	11	6	55	39	20	7	146	63:37
7	Ramkhamhaeng University	47	27	1	0	9	3	7	5	7	3	20	15	3	1	74	64:36
8	Silpakorn University	53	29	1	0	6	1	3	2	10	2	30	21	3	3	82	65:35
9	Srinakarinwirot University	51	24	0	1	6	2	0	0	9	1	32	17	4	3	75	68:32
10	Prince of Songkhla University	73	23	1	0	9	1	4	2	16	4	39	14	4	2	96	76:24
11	Sukhothai Thammathirat Open University	42	20	1	0	5	2	4	3	9	4	17	7	6	4	62	68:32
12	King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi	35	13	1	0	6	1	0	0	7	1	18	10	3	1	48	73:27
13	King Mongkut's Institute of Technology North Bangkok	34	10	1	0	6	0	0	0	6	1	17	8	4	1	44	77:23
14	King Mongkut's Institute of Technology Ladkrabang	44	16	1	0	6	1	7	0	6	1	22	13	2	1	60	73:24

Table 4.3 (Continued)

No.	Institution	Position (Person)														Overall	M : F
		Total		President		Vice President		Assistant President		Dean		Vice Dean		Director			
		1,816		24		183		74		277		1,082		176			
		M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F		
15	National Institute of Development Administration	26	10	1	0	4	0	0	0	6	1	13	7	2	2	36	72:28
16	Maejo University1816	32	14	1	0	6	1	2	2	5	1	16	9	2	1	46	70:30
17	Ubon Ratchathani University	34	12	1	0	4	2	0	0	8	1	19	8	2	1	46	74:26
18	Burapha University	49	27	1	0	5	2	7	3	9	3	23	17	4	2	76	64:36
19	Naresuan University	52	19	1	0	7	2	0	0	10	2	31	13	3	2	71	73:27
20	Mae Fahluang University	33	12	1	0	6	0	0	0	6	2	17	9	3	1	45	73:27
21	Mahasarakham University	51	21	1	0	7	2	0	0	14	3	23	13	6	3	72	71:29
22	Walailak University	30	11	1	0	4	1	0	0	7	1	17	8	1	1	41	73:27
23	Suranaree University of Technology	33	6	1	0	7	1	0	0	6	0	15	4	4	1	39	85:15
24	Thaksin University	26	9	1	0	5	1	0	0	6	1	12	6	2	1	35	74:26
	Total	**1245**	**571**	**22**	**2**	**146**	**37**	**46**	**28**	**220**	**57**	**684**	**398**	**127**	**49**	**1816**	**69:31**
	Percentage	**68.56**	**31.44**	**91.67**	**8.33**	**79.78**	**20.22**	**62.16**	**37.84**	**79.42**	**20.58**	**63.22**	**36.78**	**72.16**	**27.84**	**100**	

Source: Office of The Higher Education Commission, 2005: 9
Note : M = Male
: F = Female

The overview table shows that the holders of university-level administrative positions of 6 main universities are 1,245 male lecturers, while there are only 571 female lecturers taking these positions; resulting in the ratio of 68.56 : 31.44%. When considering from position to position, it is found that male lecturers hold more than 60.00% of administrative positions at each level, while female lecturers taking administrative positions not over than 40.00%. The position that female lecturers hold the least is President –the highest university administrative position –that is there are only 2 persons, or 8.33%. The position that female lecturers hold the most is Vice Dean, which is the faculty-level administrative position, where they represent 36.78% of all. Meanwhile, male lecturers hold all these positions in more number than females, especially President, Vice President, Dean, Vice Dean, and Director of Center, Office, Project, or Institute equivalent to Faculty in nearly all institutions.

Holding administrative positions in Thai universities are considered as an aspect of career progress, because these positions are entitled with decision-making power. The holders are the ones who consider the benefits of annual work outcomes, good deeds and the personnel's benefits in the organization they belong to, which affect directly personnel's career progress. The highest administrator at faculty level is the Dean, who –the Deans of every Faculty –are entitled according to their positions members of university sub-committee, and members of the University Executive Board, as well as having opportunities to be selected as member of University Council as administrator in tenure (Government Gazette, 2004: 10). So not only these positions mean the advancement in career, but also the incomes in relevance to the positions as well.

For anyone taking the President position, if he/she holds the academic position as Associate Professor level 9 and receives the highest step of salary, he/she can get the salary level 10; if holding academic position as Professor level 10 and receives the highest salary, he/she can get the salary level 11 and can receive the new salary on the first day of the next session of salary promotion (ministerial regulation, 2004: 7). And anyone holding the rank of Vice President, if holding academic status as Associate Professor level 9 and already receiving the highest salary of the position, he/she can receive the salary level 10, and in the case of not having academic position, he/she is entitled to receive the compensation money of administrative position of state

university from the national budget according to the law on salaries and money granted to positions, and he/she can receive the new salary at the first day of the next session of salary promotion, and at the step equivalent to the step of the former salary level according to the table of salary steps of each level (ministerial regulation, 2004: 9). Therefore, administrative positions also enable the career progress.

4.3 The University Lecturers' Career Progress Concerning Academic Positions

Academic positions are status provided to university civil servants engaged to teach and provide academic service. The status varies from lecturer, Assistant Professor, Associate Professor, and Professor. The lecturer is status at the first rank an individual selected according to the procedure receives when engaged and appointed to take a post in civil service line A in a university. While other positions, beginning from Assistant Professor, they are academic status given to lecturers after they have carried out their duties and presented academic work that passed the assessment according to the criteria issued by the Civil Service Commission of Higher Education. (Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2006: 1-4)

From the study, during the past 20 years the number of females entering into lecturer career has been increased more than that of males, and in particular, they have been promoted to Assistant Professor position far more than males as well, despite the fact that numbers of lecturers of each gender are not much different. It illustrates that female lecturers' academic progress to Assistant Professorship is in a larger number and in faster pace than male lecturers'. But in a higher rank, i.e. Associate Professorship, where the number of lecturers entering into this position decreases, male lecturers rise to this position in a much larger number than their female counterparts, except only some years when their number are not much different, and there are only some years when there are more female lecturers than males. Regarding the Professorship, a much fewer number of lecturers enter into this status, and also with a decreasing-number tendency. Actually, the number of male lecturers holding this position is in distinctive larger proportion than females', and during 2528 – 2548 B.E., there have never been more female Professors than male, as shown in table 4.4

Table 4.4 Total Numbers and Percentage of State University Lecturers Classified According to their Gender and Academic Position During 2528 – 2548 B.E.

No.	B.E.	Overall			Academic Position											
					Lect			Assist Prof			Assoc Prof			Prof		
		T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F
1	2528	13807	6819	6988	6698	3205	3493	4697	2200	2497	2138	1226	912	274	188	86
			49.39	*50.61*	*48.51*	*47.85*	*52.15*	*34.02*	*46.84*	*53.16*	*15.48*	*57.34*	*42.65*	*1.99*	*68.61*	*31.39*
2	2529	14052	6915	7137	6799	3246	3553	4776	2222	2554	2197	1237	960	280	210	70
			49.21	*50.79*	*48.38*	*47.74*	*52.26*	*33.99*	*46.52*	*53.48*	*15.64*	*56.30*	*43.70*	*1.99*	*75.00*	*25.00*
3	2530	14269	7010	7259	6606	3190	3416	4867	2197	2670	2512	1407	1105	284	216	68
			49.13	*50.87*	*46.30*	*48.29*	*51.71*	*34.11*	*45.14*	*54.86*	*17.60*	*56.01*	*43.99*	*1.99*	*76.06*	*23.94*
4	2531	14826	7226	7600	6838	3270	3568	4955	2201	2754	2731	1525	1206	302	230	72
			48.74	*51.26*	*46.12*	*47.82*	*52.18*	*33.42*	*44.42*	*55.58*	*18.42*	*55.84*	*44.16*	*2.04*	*76.16*	*23.84*
5	2532	14996	7335	7661	6471	3104	3367	5140	2237	2903	3067	1749	1318	318	245	73
			48.91	*51.09*	*43.15*	*47.97*	*52.03*	*34.28*	*43.52*	*56.48*	*20.45*	*57.03*	*42.97*	*2.12*	*77.04*	*22.96*
6	2533	15320	7498	7822	6585	3264	3321	5220	2298	2922	3173	1688	1485	342	248	94
			48.94	*51.06*	*42.99*	*49.57*	*50.43*	*34.07*	*44.02*	*55.98*	*20.71*	*53.20*	*46.80*	*2.23*	*72.51*	*27.49*
7	2534	15852	7762	8090	6734	3307	3427	5349	2020	3329	3422	1935	1487	347	246	101
			48.97	*51.03*	*42.48*	*49.11*	*50.89*	*33.74*	*37.76*	*62.24*	*21.59*	*56.55*	*43.45*	*2.19*	*70.89*	*29.11*
8	2535	16351	8056	8295	7185	3654	3531	5319	2327	2992	3496	1831	1665	351	244	107
			49.27	*50.73*	*43.94*	*50.86*	*49.14*	*32.53*	*43.75*	*56.25*	*21.58*	*52.37*	*47.63*	*2.15*	*69.51*	*30.49*
9	2536	17499	8691	8808	8325	3990	4335	5139	2469	2670	3702	1998	1704	333	234	99
			49.67	*50.33*	*47.57*	*47.93*	*52.07*	*29.37*	*48.04*	*51.96*	*21.16*	*53.97*	*46.03*	*1.90*	*70.27*	*29.73*
10	2537	18157	8887	9270	9107	4333	4774	5014	2321	2693	3723	2024	1699	313	209	104
			48.95	*50.05*	*50.16*	*47.58*	*52.42*	*27.61*	*46.29*	*53.71*	*20.51*	*54.36*	*45.64*	*1.72*	*66.77*	*33.23*
11	2538	18169	8861	9308	9112	4286	4826	5415	2527	2888	3309	1834	1475	333	214	119
			48.77	*51.23*	*50.15*	*47.04*	*52.96*	*29.81*	*46.67*	*53.33*	*18.21*	*55.42*	*44.58*	*1.83*	*64.26*	*35.74*
12	2539	18398	9115	9283	9057	4379	4678	5055	2340	2715	3963	2172	1791	323	224	99
			49.54	*50.46*	*49.23*	*48.34*	*51.66*	*27.47*	*46.29*	*53.71*	*21.54*	*54.81*	*45.19*	*1.76*	*69.35*	*30.65*
13	2540	19298	9587	9711	9750	4764	4986	5278	2441	2837	3932	2167	1765	338	215	123
			49.68	*50.32*	*50.52*	*48.86*	*51.14*	*27.35*	*46.25*	*53.75*	*20.37*	*55.11*	*44.89*	*1.76*	*63.61*	*36.39*
14	2541	20132	9944	10188	10539	5073	5466	5349	2474	2875	3908	2173	1735	336	224	112
			49.39	*50.61*	*52.35*	*48.14*	*51.86*	*26.57*	*46.25*	*53.75*	*19.41*	*55.60*	*44.40*	*1.67*	*66.67*	*33.33*
15	2542	21110	10500	10610	11277	5370	5907	5312	2533	2779	4159	2353	1806	362	244	118
			49.47	*50.26*	*53.42*	*47.62*	*52.38*	*25.16*	*47.68*	*52.32*	*19.70*	*56.58*	*43.42*	*1.72*	*67.40*	*32.60*
16	2543	20723	9913	10810	10823	5206	5617	5406	2469	2937	4184	2029	2155	310	209	101
			47.84	*52.16*	*52.23*	*48.10*	*51.90*	*26.09*	*45.67*	*54.33*	*20.19*	*48.49*	*51.51*	*1.49*	*67.42*	*32.58*

Table 4.4 (Continued)

No.	B.E.	Overall			Academic Position											
					Lect			Assist Prof			Assoc Prof			Prof		
		T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F
17	2544	21644	10808	10836	11647	5705	5942	5493	2515	2978	4164	2369	1795	340	219	121
			49.94	*50.06*	*53.81*	*48.98*	*51.02*	*25.38*	*45.79*	*54.21*	*19.24*	*56.89*	*31.11*	*1.57*	*64.41*	*35.59*
18	2545	22056	10947	11109	11970	5841	6129	5531	2614	2917	4248	2303	1945	307	189	118
			49.63	*50.37*	*54.27*	*48.80*	*51.20*	*25.08*	*47.26*	*52.74*	*19.26*	*54.21*	*45.79*	*1.39*	*61.56*	*38.44*
19	2546	23153	11507	11646	12325	6021	6304	5957	2790	3167	4516	2462	2054	355	234	121
			49.70	*50.30*	*53.23*	*48.85*	*51.15*	*25.73*	*46.83*	*53.17*	*19.51*	*54.52*	*45.48*	*1.53*	*65.91*	*34.09*
20	2547	24352	12096	12157	12978	6378	6600	6357	2994	3363	4571	2489	2082	347	235	112
			49.87	*50.13*	*53.51*	*49.15*	*50.85*	*26.21*	*47.10*	*52.90*	*18.85*	*54.45*	*45.55*	*1.43*	*67.72*	*32.28*
21	2548	24680	11900	12780	13111	6350	6761	6710	3028	3682	4559	2333	2226	300	189	111
			48.21	*51.79*	*53.12*	*48.43*	*51.57*	*27.19*	*45.13*	*54.87*	*18.47*	*51.17*	*48.83*	*1.22*	*63.00*	*37.00*

Source : Office of the Permanent Secretary of the University Affairs, 1992: 8-14
Office of the Permanent Secretary of the University Affairs, 1998: 20-24
Office of the Permanent Secretary of the University Affairs, 2003: 18-22
Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2005: 28-30

Note : italic numbers are percentage

The number of lecturers during 2528 – 2548 B.E. shown in Table 4.5 and classified according to their gender and academic position reveals that there are more female lecturers than males despite the slight differences in their numbers. But females notably enter into university lecturer career more than males do, and with an increasing number annually, while male lecturers increase in small numbers, and some years in even a decreased numbers; for example, in 2548 B.E. academic year, there are 328 lecturers increased in addition to the number in 2547 B.E., but the number of male lecturers decease by 196 persons, and males account for 48.21% of the total, meanwhile, the number of female lecturers increase by 623 persons, accounting for 51.79%.

Considering academic positions, about 50% of them holding the rank of lecturer, which is highest number compared to all other positions, and female lecturers represent more than 50%, and with an increasing number annually. The number of male lecturers is relatively stable, with a slight increase in number, and, however, in some particular years, their total number decreases. For example, in 2548 B.E., the number of male lecturers decreases by 128 persons, and male lecturers account for 48.43% of the total. Meanwhile, the number of female lecturers in the same year increased by 161 persons, and females account for 51.57% of the total. The lecturer status is the first rank of those working in university teaching line, it can consequently be said that females enter into lecturer career more than males.

When considering the next higher academic position, that is, the Assistant Professorship, the one eligible to take this rank must have served at least 5 years as lecturer if graduated with master's degree and not less than 2 years for the one with doctoral degree together with having academic work that has been passed the assessment as prescribed by the criteria. Lecturers holding this status represent about 28% of the total, and more than 50% of them are females. When considering year by year, it is found that during 2528 – 2548 B.E., males never hold this position more than 50% of the total, only in 2536 when male proportion holding this position is as high as 48.04%, followed by 2542 B.E. with 47.24%. Meanwhile, the year the females hold this position at highest proportion is in 2534 B.E., when they represent as high as 62.24% of the total, which, on the other hand, males hold this position with

the lowest proportion during these 20 years, that is, only 37.76% before their numbers increases the following years. Then it can be said that female lecturers hold this position more than their male counterparts do every year.

The next higher position is the rank of Associate Professor. The one eligible to take this position must be Assistant Professor at least 3 years, and must have academic work in addition to the one that passed the assessment according to the criteria for the promotion of Assistant Professorship. This position holders represent about 20% of the total, and most of them are males, accounting for more than 50%, while female lecturers holding this position are smaller in number, that is less than 50%, except the year 2543 B.E. when female lecturers holding this position represent as high as 51.51%, meanwhile, male lecturer proportion holding this position are less than 50% of the total, that is, they account for only 48.49%. Interestingly, it is found that the number of male lecturers holding this position tend to decrease remarkably because of their slim increase in number. It is demonstrated by their number in 2528 B.E., when they hold this position 57.34% of the total, and ever since their numbers have decrease gradually until in 2548 B.E., male lecturers holding this position represent 51.17%. In contrast, even though female lecturers hold this position less than 50%, but their number have increased continually since 2528 B.E. such that, owing to their gradual increase, the number of female lecturers entering into this position is likely to outnumber male lecturers in the future, while the number of males entering into the career decreases gradually for many consecutive years.

In regard to the Professorship, the highest of academic status, the one eligible to take this position must be Associate Professor at least 2 years and have the academic work assessed as excellent, together with additional academic work after being appointed to the Associate Professor position. All holders of this status represent a very small number, only about 2% of the total. And the number of lecturer entering into this position is relatively stable, that is, not over than 2% annually. When considering the Professor during these 20 years, it is found that in 2531 B.E., there is 2.04% of them; in 2532 B.E. 2.21%; 2533 B.E. 2.23%, which is the highest proportion; followed by the second highest in 2534, 2.19%; and the third highest in 2534, 2.15%. After that the number of lecturers holding this position decreased

gradually and in 2548 B.E., there is only 1.22% of them, that is lower than the number in 2528 B.E., when there is 1.99% of them.

When considering the Professorship holders according to genders, it is found that more than 50% of them are male lecturers, and their proportion accounts for about 70% of the total, while female lecturers hold this position in a small proportion, i.e. not even 40% every year since 2528 B.E. Only in 2545 B.E. female lecturers hold this position in highest number, that is, 38.44% while the male lecturers' number is the lowest at 61.56%. Male lecturers hold this position in greatest proportion, 77.04%, in 2532 B.E. meanwhile, females holding the same position is in the smallest proportion, 22.96%. In summary, the Professor position is occupied by male lecturers in larger proportion than their female counterparts do every year. And in 2548 B.E., their number represents 63% to 37%. In the future, however, the male proportion will probably be changed because the number of female lecturers tends to increase, while the number of male lecturers is likely stable and begins to decrease due to the increasingly number of females entering into lecturer career more than males every year.

4.3.2 Academic Progress: Professor

The Professorship is the highest academic status that indicates the progress in university lecturer career. The lecturers holding this position are specialists or experts and receive the salary level 9-10 and 11, which is the highest in state personnel administration system. They must be knowledgeable, experienced, and have been working for a long time. According to regulations, the lecturer has to be Associate Professor at least 2 years before being able to submit for this position. And during his/her Associate Professorship tenure, he/she must produce academic work continually and it must pass the evaluation with excellence. If the requirement is reached, the Minister will propose the Prime Minister to propose his Majesty the King to confer the Professorship upon the applicant in compliance with section 28 (Government Gazette, 2004: 10).

Anyone holding the rank of Professor receives the highest salary at level 10 or 11, and also receives the monthly compensation for the academic position in accordance to level of the rank, i.e. a Professor level 9 - 10 receives 13,000 baht per

month, Professor level 11 receives 15,600 baht per month. If a Professor receiving already the highest salary of Professor level 10 takes the President post, which is the highest administrative position in a university, he/she is able to receive the salary level 11 and to receive this new salary at the first day of the next salary promotion session, and at the step equivalent to step of former salary level according to the reference table of salary step (ministerial regulation, 2004: 7). So this is another progress for anyone holding professorship.

Apart from these incomes, the professorship holder is also nominated as qualified member of committee, permanent member of committee to the graduate curriculum, president of Doctoral degree curriculum, expert of discipline, to read and assess academic work of lecturers submitting for Assistant Professorship, Associate Professorship, and Professorship, and he/she has also opportunities to be selected as member of university's academic committee, member of University Council, President of lecturers' representatives, member of university executive committee in different positions according to the university's regulations for selecting personnel for these positions.

In regard to academic responsibilities, anyone already royally nominated to Professorship must produce additional academic work while holding this position, that is, at least one research per year, or at least three academic articles annually, or books, inventions, or at least one equivalent academic work in other forms, in addition to the routine responsibilities –teaching. Furthermore, the work produced, such as research or academic articles, must be published in academic periodicals and examined by a committee for the suitability of the content, and the issues must be available consistently at due date. The research outcome can be presented as a presentation in academic conference, at either national or international level, which is always arranged every year, both in the country and abroad. Such work can be used to submit for the assessment for level-11 Professorship.

As the rank of Professorship is a status indicating the expertise of holding lecturer in his/her discipline, therefore in compliance with the Act of Parliament on Regulation for Civil Service of Higher Education Institution, 2547 B.E., section 19, there is a rule stating that when a Professor is fully 60 years old at the end of the fiscal year, he/she can be allowed to continue the teaching or the research until the person is

fully 65 years old, and he/she must produce academic work as supplement for the consideration according to the criteria (Government Gazette, 2004: 8). In addition, the resignations of the holders of positions equivalent to level 10 and higher, as well as Professors are subject to submit to His Majesty to grant a royal permission for the dismissal from the positions, with the exception of dismissal from the positions due to the death as stated in article 59 (Government Gazette, 2004: 18). Thus the Professor status is a dignified, prestigious position, and indicator of the highest progress in the career of university lecturers.

In regard to those who hold the Professorship according to different qualifications, each year there are few of applicants passed into this position, i.e. the number of the Professorship holder is not over than 2% of the total lecturers. According to the data of the registration division, Office of the Administration Promotion and Development, Office of the Permanent Secretary of the University Affairs who have managed to collect and arranged for the first time the name lists of Professors of state university in 2540 B.E., and published the additional name lists annually until 2546 B.E., there are all together 788 Professors, and 536 of which are males and 253 females. That means male Professors account for 3/4 of the total. There qualifications can be categorized as follows:

Table 4.5 Professors Classified According to Gender and Disciplines

No.	Discipline	Professor			Male : Female
		Total	Gender		
			Male	Female	
1.	Science and Technology	200	153	47	77:23
	1.1 Natural Science	63	44	19	70:30
	1.1.1 Mathematics, Statistics	5	4	1	80:20
	1.1.2 Micro Biology, Botany	5	2	3	40:60
	1.1.3 Chemistry, Chemical Technology	14	9	5	64:36
	1.1.4 Biochemistry	9	8	1	89:11
	1.1.5 Biology, Pathology, Anatomy, Biological Science	16	9	7	56:44

No.	Discipline	Professor			Male : Female
		Total	Gender		
			Male	Female	
	1.1.6 Physics, Energy, geology	9	8	1	89:11
	1.1.7 Marine Science, Photographical Science, Environmental Science	5	4	1	80:20
	1.2 Engineering	50	47	3	94:6
	1.3 Architecture	9	5	4	56:44
	1.4 Agriculture, Fishery, Forestry, Veterinary Medicine	78	57	21	73:27
	1.4.1 Farm Corp, Horticulture, Forest, Plant Disease	27	21	6	78:22
	1.4.2 Fishery, Entomology, Animal Husbandry Animal Disease	17	13	4	76:24
	1.4.3 veterinary Medicine	11	6	5	55:45
	1.4.4 Soil Management, Water Resource Development, Products Development, Agricultural Promotion	23	17	6	74:26
2.	Health Science	394	263	131	67:33
	2.1 Medicine	364	249	115	68:32
	2.2 Dentistry	12	4	8	33:67
	2.3 Pharmacy	12	7	5	58:42
	2.4 Nursing	3	0	3	0:100
	2.5 Sport Science, Physical Education	3	3	0	100:0
3.	Social Science and Humanities	194	120	74	62:38
	3.1 Education	34	16	18	47:53
	3.2 Arts, Liberal Arts, Linguistics, History, Religions, Philosophy	43	17	26	40:60
	3.3 Fine Art, Music, Drama	19	16	3	84:16
	3.4 Law	12	10	2	83:17
	3.5 Economics	14	12	2	86:14
	3.6 Psychology	5	1	4	20:80
	3.7 Library Science and Information	3	0	3	0:100
	3.8 Accounts, Marketing, Business Administration	10	3	7	30:70
	3.9 Social Development, Community Development, Demography	8	7	1	88:12
	3.10 Political Science, Diplomacy and International Relations	13	13	0	100:0

No.	Discipline	Professor			Male : Female
		Total	Gender		
			Male	Female	
	3.11 Communication Arts	3	2	1	67:33
	3.12 Public Administration	15	14	1	93:7
	3.13 Geography	7	4	3	57:43
	3.14 Sociology, Anthropology, Social Welfare	8	5	3	62:38
	Overall	**788**	**536**	**252**	**68:32**

Source : Office of the University Affairs, 2003: 37.

The table 4.5 shows the number of Professors in Thailand classified according to gender and discipline. As an overview, the number of male Professors is more than their female counterparts at the proportion of 68% to 32%, and in every discipline male Professors outnumber their female counterparts in large proportions. When considering from discipline to discipline, it is found that in sciences and Technology, the proportion between males and females is the highest, 77% to 23%, followed by the health sciences, of which the proportion is 67 % to 33%, and social sciences and humanities, of which the proportion is 62% to 38%.

In summary, Professors of every discipline in the science and technology discipline group are males more than females in much greater proportion. But for the group of health science disciplines, and the group of social sciences and humanities disciplines, despite males have greater proportion than female in the overview, but when considering from discipline to discipline, it is found that in some disciplines, there are some interesting differences in proportions. For example, Professors of nursing, library, and information technology science are 100% females, while Professors of sport sciences, physical education, and political science are 100% males. Moreover, in some disciplines, female Professors hold much greater proportion, such as psychology, accountancy. And on the contrary, in some disciplines, there are male Professors in much greater proportion such as, fine and applied arts, law, economics,

social development, public administration, etc. In these discipline, gender differences are explicit.

When considering the Professorship holders classified according to their highest education and places of their studies, it is found that there are still other aspects of gender differences, as shown in table 4.6.

Table 4.6 Professors Classified According to their Highest Education and Places of their Studies.

No.	Discipline	Overall	Highest Educational Level and Place of Degree Hold									
			Male					Female				
			Master		Doctoral		Total	Master		Doctoral		Total
			in	out	in	out		in	out	in	out	
1.	Science and Technology	200	4 (2.62)	17 (11.11)	5 (3.27)	127 (83)	153 (100)	3 (6.38)	10 (21.28)	2 (4.26)	32 (68.08)	47 (100)
	1.1 Natural Science	63	0	4	4	36	44	0	2	1	16	19
	1.1.1 Mathematics, Statistics	5	0	2	0	2	4	0	0	0	1	1
	1.1.2 Micro Biology, Botany	5	0	0	0	2	4	0	1	0	2	3
	1.1.3 Chemistry, Chemical Technology	14	0	0	0	9	9	0	0	0	5	5
	1.1.4 Biochemistry	9	0	0	2	6	8	0	0	0	1	1
	1.1.5 Biology, Pathology, Anatomy, Biological Science	16	0	1	2	6	9	0	1	1	5	7
	1.1.6 Physics, Energy, geology	9	0	0	0	8	8	0	0	0	1	1
	1.1.7 Marine Science, Photographical Science, Environmental Science	5	0	1	0	3	4	0	0	0	1	1
	1.2 Engineering	50	2	8	1	36	47	0	1	1	1	3
	1.3 Architecture	9	0	3	0	2	5	0	3	0	1	4
	1.4 Agriculture, Fishery, Forestry, Veterinary Medicine	78	2	2	0	53	57	3	4	0	14	21
	1.4.1 Farm Corp, Horticulture, Forest, Plant Disease	27	1	1	0	19	21	2	1	0	3	6
	1.4.2 Fishery, Entomology, Animal Husbandry Animal Disease	17	1	0	0	12	13	0	1	0	3	4
	1.4.3 veterinary Medicine	11	0	0	0	6	6	1	2	0	2	5
	1.4.4 Soil Management, Water Resource Development, Products Development, Agricultural Promotion	23	0	1	0	16	17	0	0	0	6	6

Table 4.6 (Continued)

No.	Discipline	Overall	Highest Educational Level and Place of Degree Hold									
			Male					Female				
			Master		Doctoral		Total	Master		Doctoral		Total
			in	out	in	out		in	out	in	out	
2.	Health Science	394	63	130	5	65	263	40	53	5	33	131
			(23.95)	(49.43)	(1.91)	(24.71)	(100)	(30.53)	(40.46)	(3.82)	(25.19)	(100)
	2.1 Medicine	364	61	125	5	58	249	39	46	4	26	115
	2.2 Dentistry	12	1	3	0	0	4	0	7	0	1	8
	2.3 Pharmacy	12	1	1	0	5	7	1	0	0	4	5
	2.4 Nursing	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	3
	2.5 Sport Science, Physical Education	3	0	1	0	2	3	0	0	0	0	0
3.	Social Science and Humanities	194	6	18	2	94	120	0	27	2	45	74
			(5.00)	(15.00)	(1.67)	(78.33)	(100)	(0)	(36.49)	(2.70)	(60.81)	(100)
	3.1 Education	34	1	2	0	13	16	0	8	0	10	18
	3.2 Arts, Liberal Arts, Linguistics, History, Religions, Philosophy	43	3	2	0	12	17	0	7	2	17	26
	3.3 Fine Art, Music, Drama	19	2	5	0	9	16	0	1	0	2	3
	3.4 Law	12	0	2	0	8	10	0	1	0	1	2
	3.5 Economics	14	0	2	0	10	12	0	1	0	1	2
	3.6 Psychology	5	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	4	4
	3.7 Library Science and Information	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	3
	3.8 Accounts, Marketing, Business Administration	10	0	1	0	2	3	0	3	0	4	7
	3.9 Social Development, Community Development, Demography	8	0	0	0	7	7	0	0	0	1	1
	3.10 Political Science, Diplomacy and International Relations	13	0	1	0	12	13	0	0	0	0	0

Table 4.6 (Continued)

No.	Discipline	Overall	Highest Educational Level and Place of Degree Hold									
			Male					Female				
			Master		Doctoral		Total	Master		Doctoral		Total
			in	out	in	out		in	out	in	out	
3.11	Communication Arts	3	0	1	1	0	2	0	1	0	0	1
3.12	Public Administration	15	0	2	1	11	14	0	1	0	0	1
3.13	Geography	7	0	0	0	4	4	0	2	0	1	3
3.14	Sociology, Anthropology, Social Welfare	8	0	0	0	5	5	0	1	0	2	3
Total		**788**	**73**	**165**	**12**	**286**	**536**	**43**	**90**	**9**	**110**	**252**
(%)			**(13.62)**	**(30.78)**	**(2.24)**	**(53.36)**	**(100)**	**(17.06)**	**(35.72)**	**(3.57)**	**(43.65)**	**(100)**

Source: Office of the University Affairs, 2003: 10-12.

Note : in = in Thailand

Out = out of Thailand (Abroad)

The table 4.6 shows the numbers of Professors of all 3 group of disciplines classified according to their highest education and places of their studies, it is found that most of them finished their highest education at doctoral degree level from abroad, most of them are males, representing 53.36%, while females represent 43.65%. Then there are those graduating with master's degree from abroad and 30.78% of them are males, 35.72% females, and then followed by those finishing their studies with master's degree. in the country, of which 13.62% are males, 17.06% females. Only a few number of the doctoral degree Professors finished their study in the country, that is, 2.24% males and 3.57% females, because the doctoral degree . curriculum has been offered in the country recently, and not cover all disciplines. The data shows that none of all Professors of every discipline, both males and females, finished the highest education with Bachelor's degree, either in the country or from abroad.

When considering from discipline to discipline, it is found that in the group of sciences and technology, there are Professors finishing their doctoral degree from abroad the most, both males and females, i.e. 83% of male Professors, and 68.08% of female Professors. Due to the inability to produce personnel of these capabilities in the country, the human resource development in these aspects has to send the students to continue their further studies abroad. The next category after these Professors with doctoral degree. from abroad are Professors with master' degree from abroad as well, both males and females, that is, males represent 11.11% of all males and females 21.28% of all females. The numbers shows that Professors finishing their master' degree from abroad outnumber those finishing their Master's in the country, because Professors with master' degree in the country represent only 2.62% for males, and 6.38% for females. Meanwhile, those finishing their studies with doctoral degree in the country represent only 3.27% of male Professors, and 4.26% of female Professors. Thus in this group of disciplines, there are more male Professors than females, and most of them finished their doctoral degree from abroad.

In the group of health science disciplines, the highest number of Professors finished their highest education with master' degree. from abroad, representing 49.43% of all male professor, and 40.46% of all females, followed by those finishing their highest studies with master' degree from inside the country who represent

23.95% for males and 30.53% for females. Meanwhile, Professors of these disciplines finishing their doctoral degree in the country are the lowest numbers; males represent 1.91%, and females represent 3.82%. These disciplines are mostly special professional careers, so there are some obvious gender differences, such as in the Faculty of Nursing, Professors of this discipline are 100% females, while in the Physical Education, 100% of them are males. In other disciplines, such as medicine, pharmacology, there are more male Professors than females, but in dentistry, there are more female Professors than males. In the past, there were no higher education for this group of disciplines in the country, so in order to develop human resource, the personnel were sent to continue their further studies abroad, both at Master's and doctoral degree. level. Therefore, Professors of these disciplines who finished their highest studies from abroad outnumber those finishing their studies from inside the country.

For the last group of disciplines, i.e. social sciences and humanities where the number of Professors is the smallest among all three groups of disciplines, it is found that most Professors finished their highest studies with doctoral degree from abroad, both males and females. That is, they represent 78.33% for male Professors, and 60.81% for females. The next number is male Professors finishing master' degree from abroad for their highest studies who represent 15.00% of all male professors, while female Professors finishing with Master's from abroad represent even 36.49% of female Professors. There is no female of these disciplines finishing the highest studies with master' degree from inside the country, but there are male Professors of this qualification who represent 5% of all male Professors. Regarding Professors finishing the highest studies with doctoral degree in the country, they represent the smallest number; males represent 1.67%, and females 2.70%. In this group of disciplines, there are explicit gender differences in many disciplines as well as in the group of health sciences, such as in the Library and Information Sciences, the Professors are 100% females, while the Political sciences Professors are 100% males as well. The disciplines where female Professors take much greater proportion than males are the Arts, Psychology, Accountancy, and the disciplines where male Professors hold much greater proportion than females are Fine and Applied Arts, Law, Economics, Social Development, Public Administration. While in other

disciplines, there are not great differences. At present, the studies of these disciplines at master' and doctoral level have been available more in the country and well widespread, but in the past they did not exist, or did but very few, so the numbers of Professors finishing their highest studies in these discipline from abroad, both at master' or doctoral degree , are much more than those finishing from inside the country.

In summary, Professors in Thailand are males more than females in all groups of disciplines. Among all Professors, those finishing their highest studies with doctoral degree from abroad represented the most, followed by those finishing their highest studies with master' degree from abroad as well, and then followed by those finishing their highest studies from the country respectively.

4.3.2 Progress in Academic Life: Professor Level 11

The Professorship is the highest academic position. In general, anyone holding this position receives only the highest salary at level 10. But if a professor produces continually academic work during his/her professorship, when the salary reaches level 11, he/she can use the academic work to submit for the promotion consideration in compliance to the criteria. If passing the evaluation, he/she will be subsequently appointed to the Professorship level 11. This position is called the expert rank. If compared to the state personnel administration in ministries, departments, divisions and other state organizations in administrative line, the Professorship is equivalent to the Permanent Secretary of a Ministry that exists for only one person. However, there is no restriction on number of lecturers holding this position. Anyone qualified according to the criteria is eligible to submit directly for the position. It is consequently the position indicating the most advancement in academic life of university lecturers.

To submit for an assessment in order to be considered expert to hold the Professor status at level 11, the applicant must be Professor level 10 eligible to receive the salary level 11; holding the Professorship responsible for teaching during the past 3 years; producing research studies, textbooks, or academic work in other forms as regulation. In addition he/she must produce additional academic work after being appointed Professor, such as new research or other initiatives which result in the

advancement in academic circle, and has become academic reference source, that means the work is widely accepted and cited by others in reliable periodicals or textbooks. That is, he or she is widely accepted in academic community or in that particular discipline, such that being invited to be personnel of prominent qualifications or consultant on a particular subject, or awarded for outstanding academic work (Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2006: 8)

Concerning the status considered as being academic reference source in periodicals, textbooks, or books which is academically or professionally useful such that being accepted in the same discipline, it does not either include the self–reference, the quotation in theses of students under his/her supervision or he/she is their advisory professor, or the references in teaching papers and supplementary teaching documents (Office of the University Affairs, 2002: 1). Therefore, anyone eligible to hold the position of Professor level 11 must have academic work which is both widely accepted and used as reference.

Since the level-11 Professorship is the highest academic status, this position is therefore an indicator of university lecturers' career progress, the progress in academic life. Anyone holding this position not only receives the adjusted salary to level 11, but also receives the compensation money for this academic position worth monthly 15,600 baht; when reaching fully 60 years old, and still in good health and producing continually academic work that passes the criteria according to the regulation, he/she can submit for the extension of his/her tenure until reaching the age of 65 years. Lecturers holding this position are not much in number. According to the name lists of Professors in state universities in 2547 B.E., there were altogether 187 Professors level 11; of which were 43 females and 144 males, or females Professors represented 1/4 of the total. They can be classified according to their qualifications as follow:

Table 4.7 Professors Level 11 Classified According to Gender and Discipline

No.	Discipline	Professor Level 11			Male : Female
		Total	Gender		
			Male	Female	
1	Science and Technology	51	45	6	88:12
	1.1 Natural Science	21	21	0	100:0
	1.1.1 Chemistry	4	4	0	100:0
	1.1.2 Biochemistry	5	5	0	100:0
	1.1.3 Biology	3	3	0	100:0
	1.1.4 Physics, Energy	4	4	0	100:0
	1.1.5 Marine Science, Environmental Science	3	3	0	100:0
	1.1.6 Botany	2	2	0	100:0
	1.2 Engineering	9	9	0	100:0
	1.3 Architecture	2	1	1	50:50
	1.4 Agriculture, Fishery, Forestry, Veterinary Medicine	19	14	5	74:26
	1.4.1 Farm Corp, Horticulture Forest, Plant Disease	6	4	2	67:33
	1.4.2 Fishery, Entomology, Animal Husbandry, animal Disease	4	3	1	75:25
	1.4.3 Veterinary Medicine	3	2	1	67:33
	1.4.4 Soil Management, Water Resource Development	6	5	1	87:17
2	Health Science	111	83	28	75:25
	2.1 Medicine	110	82	28	75:25
	2.2 Pharmacy	1	1	0	100:0
3	Social Science and Humanities	25	16	9	64:36
	3.1 Education	2	1	1	50:50
	3.2 Arts, Liberal Arts	5	2	3	40:60
	3.3 Fine Art	2	1	1	50:50
	3.4 Law	2	2	0	100:0
	3.5 Economics	4	3	1	75:25
	3.6 Psychology	1	0	1	0:100
	3.7 Library Science and Information	1	0	1	0:100
	3.8 Political Science	7	7	0	100:0
	3.9 Sociology, Anthropology, Social Welfare	1	0	1	0:100
	Overall	**187**	**144**	**43**	**77:23**

Source : Office of the University Affairs, 2003: 19-22.

From the table showing the number of Professors level 11 in Thailand classified according their genders and disciplines, 23.00% of them are females and males represent a much larger proportion, or 77%. The number of male Professors is

larger than female Professors in every discipline, especially in the group of sciences and technology, males Professors represent 88%; in the group of health sciences, males represent 75%; and in the group of social sciences and humanities, males represent 64% of the total respectively. When considering gender differences from discipline to discipline, obvious differences are found as follows:

1. In the group of science and technological disciplines, it is found that the number of female Professors is the smallest among the three main groups of disciplines. Especially in the natural science, and engineering faculties, there are no females holding the Professorship level 11 at all; in the Faculty of Architecture, there is only 1 person; and in the agricultural faculties, there are 5 persons. However, in the Architecture, the proportion between male and female is equal, that is 50% each. But in every discipline of the Agriculture, there are more male Professors than females. In this group of disciplines, male lecturers outnumber their female counterparts in much greater proportion such that it results in their explicit difference in career progress. Therefore, a plan has been created as an attempt to increase the number of females studying the science and technology disciplines. It is a remarkably precise policy to encourage females to have more achievement in this group of disciples than before (National Committee for Women Coordination and Promotion, 2002: 5).

2. In the group of health sciences, there are 3 disciplines where Professors level 11 are in highest numbers and males' proportions are larger than females' as well. In the Pharmacology, no female holds this position at all; while in the Medicine, there are more Professors than in other disciplines, and there are more female Professors level 11 in this discipline than in other disciplines as well. It can be said that the Medicine is where female lecturers have more opportunities in career progress than in other disciplines.

3. In the group of social sciences and humanities disciplines, it is found that the number of Professors level 11 is the smallest among all three main groups of disciplines. The number of male Professors at this level is larger in proportion than females' at about 2/3. When considering from discipline to discipline, many other gender differences are found. For example, the disciplines where male and female proportion are equal, or 50% each, are the Faculty of Education, and the Faculty of Fine and Applied Arts. The disciplines where the Professors level 11 are 100% males

are the Faculty of Law and Faculty of Political Sciences. In contrast, the disciplines where female Professors level 11 are totally 100% are the Faculty of Psychology, Faculty of Library and Information Science, Faculty of Sociology. In the Faculty of Arts, female Professors level 11 represent 60% of the total. In the Faculty of Economics, males had larger proportion than females', representing 75%. In this group of disciplines, the female lecturers are more widely distributed than in other two groups of disciplines, and the number of female lecturers holding Professorship level 11 is the highest, especially in the Arts, Psychology, Library Science, and Sociology, where there are actually more female lecturers than males, and they are also disciplines in which female lecturers have more opportunities for career progress than in other disciplines.

In summary, the Professorship level 11 is the highest academic status of university lecturer career. However, there have been only a small number of lecturers entering into this position because they must produce continually academic work for a long period of time, and must pass the assessment by experts as well. The numbers of males and females Professors level are different greatly; that is, 77.00% males, and 23.00% females. In addition, in all three groups of disciplines, male Professors level 11 are in greater number than females' as well. Especially in science and technology disciplines, 100% of Professors level 11in natural sciences and in the Engineering are males. In the group of health sciences, female Professors level 11 represent 25% of the total, the highest number among all three groups of disciplines. For the group of social science and humanities disciplines, even though the number of male Professors level 11 in an overview is apparently higher than that of females', but in some disciplines, the Professors level 11 are 100% females, such as in the Psychology, the Library, in contrast to some disciplines where Professors level 11 are 100% males, such as the Law, Political Sciences. So social science and humanities are the disciplines more diversified than in other groups of disciplines.

When considering the level-11 Professors classified according to their highest education and places of the studies, some additional gender differences are found, as shown in table 4.8

Table 4.8 Professors Level 11 Classified According to their Highest Education and Places of their Studies

No.	Discipline	Overall	Highest Educational Level									
			Male					Female				
			Master		Doctoral		Total	Master		Doctoral		Total
			in	out	in	out		in	out	in	out	
1	Science and Technology	51	0	1	0	44	45	2	1	0	3	6
			(0)	(2.22)	(0)	(97.78)	(100)	(33.33)	(16.67)	(0)	(50.00)	(100)
	1.1 Natural Science	21	0	0	0	21	21	0	0	0	0	0
	1.1.1 Chemistry	4	0	0	0	4	4	0	0	0	0	0
	1.1.2 Biochemistry	5	0	0	0	5	5	0	0	0	0	0
	1.1.3 Biology	3	0	0	0	3	3	0	0	0	0	0
	1.1.4 Physics, Energy	4	0	0	0	4	4	0	0	0	0	0
	1.1.5 Marine Science, Environmental Science	3	0	0	0	3	3	0	0	0	0	0
	1.1.6 Botany	2	0	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	0
	1.2 Engineering	9	0	0	0	9	9	0	0	0	0	0
	1.3 Architecture	2	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	1
	1.4 Agriculture, Fishery, Forestry, Veterinary Medicine	19	0	1	0	13	14	2	0	0	3	5
	1.4.1 Farm Corp, Horticulture Forest, Plant Disease	6	0	0	0	4	4	1	0	0	1	2
	1.4.2 Fishery, Entomology, Animal Husbandry, animal Disease	4	0	0	0	3	3	1	0	0	0	1
	1.4.3 Veterinary Medicine	3	0	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	1	1
	1.4.4 Soil Management, Water Resource Development	6	0	1	0	4	5	0	0	0	1	1
2	Health Science	111	13	25	7	38	83	9	9	0	10	28
			(15.66)	(30.12)	(8.44)	(45.78)	(100)	(32.14)	(32.14)	(0)	(35.78)	(100)
	2.1 Medicine	110	13	25	7	37	82	9	9	0	10	28
	2.2 Pharmacy	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0

Table 4.8 (Continued)

No.	Discipline	Overall	Highest Educational Level									
			Male					Female				
			Master		Doctoral		Total	Master		Doctoral		Total
			in	out	in	out		in	out	in	out	
3	Social Science and Humanities	25	1 (62.5)	2 (12.50)	0 (0)	13 (81.25)	16 (100)	0 (0)	1 (11.11)	1 (11.11)	7 (77.78)	9 (100)
	3.1 Education	2	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1
	3.2 Arts, Liberal Arts	5	1	0	0	1	2	0	0	1	2	3
	3.3 Fine Art	2	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1
	3.4 Law	2	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0
	3.5 Economics	4	0	0	0	3	3	0	1	0	0	1
	3.6 Psychology	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
	3.7 Library Science and Information	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
	3.8 Political Science	7	0	0	0	7	7	0	0	0	0	0
	3.9 Sociology, Anthropology, Social Welfare	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Overall	**187**	**14**	**28**	**7**	**95**	**144**	**11**	**11**	**1**	**20**	**43**
	Percentage	**-**	**(9.72)**	**(19.44)**	**(4.86)**	**(65.98)**	**(100)**	**(25.58)**	**(25.58)**	**(2.37)**	**(46.51)**	**(100)**

Source : Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2005: 24-28.

Note : in = in Thailand out = out of Thailand (Abroad) ( ) = %

The table that shows the number of Professors level 11 classified according to their highest education and places of their studies demonstrates that most of them are males, and 65.98% of them finished their highest studies with doctoral degree from abroad, followed by 19.44% of those finishing their highest studies with master's degree from abroad as well, then there are 9.72% of those finishing their highest studies with master's degree from inside the country, and 4.86% of those finishing with doctoral degree from inside the country. Females holding this position are in much smaller number than males. Those finishing their highest studies with doctoral degree from abroad account for 46.51%, followed by those finishing their highest studies with master's degree whether from inside the country or from abroad are at equal percentage, 25.58% each, and those finishing their highest studies with doctoral degree from inside the country represent the smallest number, only 2.33%.

When considering from discipline to discipline, it is found that Professors level 11 in the groups of technological sciences finished their studies with doctoral degree from abroad in highest number, especially those in the natural science disciplines, the Engineering, the Architecture, the Economics, and the Veterinary whose number represents 97.78% of male Professors level 11 of these disciplines, while female Professors in agricultural disciplines finished their highest studies with doctoral degree from abroad in highest number, accounting for 50.00% of female Professors level 11..

The next group of disciplines is Health Sciences. The proportion of male Professors level 11 of these disciplines who finished their studies with doctoral degree is larger than that of females, that is, 45.78% to 35.72% of each gender respectively. But in this group of disciplines, Professors level 11 who finished their highest studies with master's degree. from abroad are in highest number, both males and females or 30.12% and 32.14% of each gender respectively, and there are female Professors level 11 in greatest number, especially in the Faculty of Medicine, where the number of Professors level 11, who finished their studied with doctoral degree from abroad and with Master's, either from inside the country or from abroad, is the highest among all three groups of disciplines.

Regarding the group of Social Science and Humanities disciplines, the number of Professors level 11 is smallest of all three main groups of disciplines, and these

Professors are mostly males. Those who finished their highest studies with doctoral degree represent 81.25%, followed by those finishing with master's degree from abroad who represent 12.50%. For female Professors level 11 of these disciplines, 77.78% of them finished their highest studies with doctoral degree And as disciplines in this group are diverse, the gender differences are outstanding accordingly. Because in some disciplines, such as in the Faculty of Law, Faculty Political Sciences, 100% of Professors level 11 are males. On the contrary, in some disciplines, such as the Faculty of Psychology, Faculty of Library and Information Science, and Faculty of Sociology, 100% of Professors level 11 are females. Meanwhile in some disciplines, the proportions of male and female Professors level 11, who finished their highest education with Doctoral degree from abroad are equal or 50% each, such as in the Education, and in the Fine and Applied Arts. Number of Professors level 11 in some disciplines are more males than females, such as in the Faculty of Economics, while in some disciplines Female Professor level 11 outnumber males, such as the Faculty of Arts. So in this group of disciplines, the gender differences are more diversely distributed than in other two groups of disciplines.

In summary, Professorship level 11 is the highest academic position, but there has been lecturers in a very small number holding this position compared to those holding other level academic positions. The holders of this position are more males than females in a much larger proportion. Professors of this level finished their highest education with Doctoral degree from abroad more than any other levels in all disciplines, and none finished their highest studies with Bachelor's degree, either from inside the country or abroad. In the group of technological science disciplines, there is no female Professor level 11 at all. On the other hand, in the group of health science disciplines, female lecturers holding this position are relatively high, either those with Master's or doctoral degree and in the group of social sciences and humanities disciplines, the gender differences of lecturers holding this position are obvious. In some disciplines, Professors level 11 are males only in contrast to some disciplines, where there are only females holding this position. Therefore, the Professorship level 11 is the status illustrating university lecturers' gender differences and their career progress more obviously than any other position do.

4.4 Summary

This chapter has analyzed the university lecturers' gender differences and their career progress by using data from annual reports and reports, name lists of lecturers holding academic positions of the Office of the University Affairs or the present Office of the Higher Education Commission for the study of an overview of manpower in state universities. The lecturers have been classified according to their gender, the organization they belonged to, discipline, career progress, administrative position, and academic position.

In regard to the number of state university lecturers, the civil servants of higher educational institutions, who are employed and appointed to teach, do research, and provide academic services, there are more female lecturers in nearly all institutions. When classified into 3 groups of disciplines, it is found that in the science and technology disciplines, the number of lecturers is the highest, and there are more male lecturers than females; in the health science disciplines, the number of lecturers is the smallest and there are more females than males; and in the last group of disciplines–the social sciences and the humanities, the number of lecturers is the second highest and there are more females than males. The sciences and technology are the disciplines where number of male lecturers is the highest, and the social sciences and the humanities are the disciplines where number of female lecturers is the highest.

In regard to career progress, it is found that there are great gender differences in the occupations of administrative positions. For the President position, the female lecturers have taken this position in only 5 universities; Thammasat, Silpakorn, National Institute of Development Administration, Chulalongkorn, and Srinakarinwirot (Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2548 : 29) from all 24 state universities, and in 2548 BE., there are female Presidents in only 2 universities. And other administrative positions, namely Vice President, Assistant President, Dean, Vice Dean, Director of Center or Director of Office, they are taken by males more than females do in every level.

Concerning the academic positions, it is found that lecturers and Assistant Professors have been more females than males during these past successive years.

There are more female lecturers entering into Assistant Professorship than males, but in higher positions; Associate Professorship and Professorship, there are more males than females. In some particular years, there are more female Associate Professors, but for the Professors, there are more males than females every year. However, the male lecturers taking Associate Professorship and Professorship have been decreasing in number, and the females' proportions in these positions are getting bigger because females entering into lecturer career have been increasing in greater number than males do annually.

When considering in terms of group of disciplines, it is found that in the sciences and technology, male lecturers hold Professorship and Professorship level 11 more than females do in every discipline; in the health sciences, and in the social sciences and the humanities, there are more female Associate Professors than males, but those holding Professorship and Professorship level 11 are males more than females in every disciplines.

In terms of the highest education and places of studies, it is found that most of lecturers holding Professorship and Professorship level 11 finished their highest education with doctoral degree from abroad, and there are more males in every disciplines.

CHAPTER 5

GENDER DIFFERENCE ANALYSIS

This chapter presents the result of the analysis of the data gathered from 400 samples' responses to questionnaires, which is as follows:

5.1 Demographics Characteristics of the Sample

The sample size is 400 persons, consisted of 200 males and 200 females, who are classified according to demographic characteristics as shown in table 5.1

Table 5.1: Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

Demographic characteristics	Male (n=200)		Female (n=200)		Total (n=400)	
	n	**%**	**n**	**%**	**n**	**%**
1. Age						
1.1 30 – 34 years	8	4.00	12	6.00	20	5.00
1.2 35 – 39 years	17	8.50	27	13.50	44	11.00
1.3 40 – 44 years	39	19.50	42	21.00	81	20.25
1.4 45 – 49 years	44	22.00	40	20.00	84	21.00
1.5 50 – 54 years	58	29.00	51	25.50	109	27.25
1.6 55 – 59 years	32	16.00	28	14.00	60	15.00
1.7 > 60 years	2	1.00	0	0	2	0.50
Mean		49.50		47.12		48.27
SD		7.40		7.8		7.7
2. Highest Educational Level						
2.1 Bachelor	1	0.50	2	1.00	3	0.75
2.2 Master	97	48.50	114	57.00	211	52.75
2.3 Doctoral	102	51.00	84	42.00	186	46.50
3. Place of Degree Hold	72	36.00	96	48.00	168	42.00
3.1 Thailand	128	64.00	104	52.00	232	58.00
3.2 Abroad						
4. Area of Concentration	84	42.00	84	42.00	168	42.00
4.1 Science and Technology	53	26.50	53	26.50	106	26.50
4.2 Health Science	63	31.50	63	31.50	126	31.50
4.3 Social Science and Humanities	72	36.00	96	48.00	168	42.00

Table 5.1 (Continued)

Demographic characteristics	Male (n=200)		Female (n=200)		Total (n=400)	
	n	**%**	**n**	**%**	**n**	**%**
5. Marital Status						
5.1 Single	27	13.50	42	21.00	69	17.25
5.2 Married	164	82.00	143	71.50	307	76.75
5.3 Widowed, Divorced or Separated	9	4.50	15	7.50	24	6.00
6. Number of Children						
6.1 None	39	19.50	53	26.50	92	23.00
6.2 1	67	33.50	70	35.00	137	34.25
6.3 2	81	40.50	69	34.50	150	37.50
6.4 ≥ 3	13	6.50	8	4.00	21	5.25
Mean		2.00		1.88		1.91
SD		1.94		1.79		1.83
7. Academic Position						
7.1 Lecturer	21	10.50	37	18.50	58	14.50
- Level 6	3	1.50	12	6.00	15	3.75
- Level 7	18	9.00	25	12.50	43	10.75
7.2 Assistant Professor	67	33.50	76	38.00	143	35.75
- Level 7	22	11.00	27	13.50	49	12.25
- Level 8	45	22.50	49	24.50	94	23.50
7.3 Associate Professor	82	41.00	69	34.50	151	37.75
- Level 8	38	19.00	32	16.00	70	17.50
- Level 9	44	22.00	37	18.50	81	22.25
7.4 Professor	30	15.00	18	9.00	48	12.00
- Level 10	23	11.50	16	8.00	39	9.75
- Level 11	7	3.50	2	1.00	9	2.25
8. Official Duration of Working						
8.1 10 – 14 years	21	10.50	27	13.50	48	12.00
8.2 15 – 19 years	39	19.50	42	21.00	81	20.25
8.3 20 – 24 years	53	26.50	54	27.00	107	26.75
8.4 25 – 29 years	72	36.00	69	34.50	141	35.25
8.5 ≥ 30 years	15	7.50	8	4.00	23	5.75
Mean		28.40		25.75		26.89
SD		7.20		7.00		7.14
9. Income per month						
9.1 10,000 – 19,999 Bath	19	9.50	24	12.00	43	10.75
9.2 20,000 – 29,999 Bath	42	21.00	56	28.00	98	24.50
9.3 30,000 – 39,999 Bath	68	34.00	63	31.50	131	32.75
9.4 40,000 – 49,999 Bath	57	28.50	48	24.00	105	26.25
9.5 ≥ 50,000 Bath	14	7.00	9	4.50	23	5.75
Mean		38,841.38		34,486.64		36,363.72
SD		24,482.25		22,135.62		23,271.43
10. Administrative Position						
10.1 None	3	1.50	22	11.00	25	6.25
10.2 In Department	64	32.00	77	38.50	141	35.25
10.3 In Faculty	79	39.50	68	34.00	147	36.75
10.4 In University	54	27.00	33	16.50	87	21.75
	30	15.00	18	9.00	48	12.00

Table 5.1 (Continued)

Demographic characteristics	Male (n=200)		Female (n=200)		Total (n=400)	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
11. Position at Start Working						
11.1 Private Companies or Authorities	27	13.50	15	7.50	42	10.50
11.2 Other Government Service	42	21.00	32	16.00	74	18.50
11.3 Teacher in Primary or Secondary School	39	19.50	59	29.50	98	24.50
11.4 Lecturer in Universities	84	42.00	91	45.50	175	43.75
11.5 Owner or family Business	8	4.00	3	1.50	11	2.75

The table shows that the sample population's average age is 48.27 years and there is a slight gender difference in the age, that is, male average age is 49.50 years and females' is 47.12. Most of them finished their highest studies with master' degree (52.75%), followed by those finishing their studies with doctoral degree (46.50%), The difference between genders is that, 51.00% of males finished their highest education with doctoral degree and 57% of females finished theirs with master' degree Regarding the places of their studies, 58% of the total finished their highest studies from abroad; of whom the males share the larger proportion than the females' at the ratio of 64.00 to 52.00. Both genders have equal proportions in disciplines of their highest education, i.e. each gender represent 42% in the group of sciences and technology, 26.50% in the group of health sciences, and 31.50% in the group of social sciences and humanities.

Concerning the marital status, it is found that 76.75% of them are married, with larger male' proportion than female's, and followed by singles who represent 17.25% with larger female's proportion than male's, representing 21.00% and 13.00% respectively. And the last are the widowed, divorced, and separated who represent 6.00%, of which female's proportion is larger than male at the ratio of 7.50%to 4.50%. The average number of offspring is one child.

In regard to academic positions, it is found that they are: lecturers 14.50%, level-6 lecturers 3.75%, level-7 lecturers 10.75%, Assistant Professors 35.75%, level-7 Assistant Professors 12.25%, level-8 Assistant Professors 23.50%, Associate

Professor 37.75%, level-8 Associate Professors 17.50%, level-9Associate Professors 20.25%, Professors 12.00%, level-10 Professors 9.75%, and level-10 Professors 2.25%. On the whole, there are obvious gender differences in the rank of lecturer and Assistant Professor; there are more females than males. However, for the rank of Associate Professor and Professor, there are more males than females at every level. The position the lecturers hold the most is the Associate Professorship; 41% of males hold this position and 34.50% of females do. Particularly, the highest level of the Associate Professorship, i.e. level 9, 22.00% of males hold this position, and 18.50% of females do. The position less taken is Professorship level 11, where there are more males than females, whose proportions are 3.50% and 1.00% in each gender respectively.

When considering the work life duration up to present, it is found that their average work life is 26.89 years. Male samples have a slightly longer work life than females, that is 28.40 years to 25.75 years with the average income of 36,363.72 baht. The administrative positions that the samples hold the most are faculty-level positions, representing 36.75%, followed by those of department level, representing 35.25%, and those of the university level representing 21.75%. Only 6.25% of the samples do not have administrative positions. Those who have administrative positions at faculty level and at university level are males more than females, and those without administrative positions and those holding administrative position at department level are females than males.

For the job at first start when engaged to work, it is found that 43.75% of the total began as lecturers in higher educational institutions, of whom there are females than males, representing 45.50% and 42.00% of each gender respectively. Then there are those starting as teachers in lower-ranking institutions, of whom there are more females than males, representing 29.50% and 19.50% respectively. Besides, it is found that 18.50% of the total started their work as civil servants in other organizations, of whom there are more males than females at the proportion of 21.00% and 16.00% of each gender respectively. And 10.50% of the total started their work in private companies or as state enterprises' employees, of whom there are more males than females, representing 13.50% and 7.50% of each gender respectively. And the last group is those working for their own or families' business who represent

2.75% of the total, and there are males 4.00% and females 1.50%.

5.2 Gender Differences Concerning Gender identities

An important factor affecting the difference in career progress between difference genders is gender identities, which identify the differences between genders in terms of male or female characteristics that result in rearing, teaching, and socializing with such social values. So male and female are brought up implanted with certain opinions, beliefs, and acceptance of or non-acceptance of certain behaviors whether appropriate for males or females depending the social general opinion or acceptance (Nabi, 2001: 459). Such identities have effect on individuals' opinions, the feelings of acceptance of or non-acceptance of certain behaviors, which result in gender differences that affect, in turn, their decision on their study directions, job selection, and eventually their career progress accordingly.

According to the research on gender identities or the characteristic of muscularity or femininity, it is found that the opinions, feelings or the acceptance of gender characteristics are as follows (shown in table 5.2):

Table 5.2 Percentage of Gender Differences in the Aspect of Gender Identities, Classified According to Gender

Gender Identities	M (n=200)	F (n=200)	Total (n=400)
Males have more self confidence than Females			
Most	37.00	45.50	41.25
Much	59.00	52.50	56.00
Moderate	3.50	2.00	2.75
Little	0	0	0
Least	0	0	0
Never	0	0	0
Males have more enthusiasm than Females			
Most	21.75	55.50	49.50
Much	51.00	41.50	39.50
Moderate	5.50	3.00	4.25
Little	0	0	0
Least	0	0	0
Never	0	0	0

Table 5.2 (Continued)

Gender Identities	**M (n=200)**	**F (n=200)**	**Total (n=400)**
Males have more self - control than Females			
Most	39.00	31.50	35.25
Much	52.00	43.50	47.75
Moderate	4.50	13.00	8.75
Little	3.50	10.00	6.75
Least	1.00	2.00	1.50
Never	0	0	0
Males have more decision making than Females			
Most	27.00	41.50	34.25
Much	39.50	45.50	42.50
Moderate	23.50	11.00	17.25
Little	9.00	1.50	5.25
Least	1.00	0.50	0.75
Never	0	0	0
Males have more make an adjustment Than Females			
Most	27.50	30.50	29.00
Much	38.50	36.00	37.25
Moderate	24.50	21.50	23.00
Little	7.50	9.00	8.25
Least	1.50	2.00	1.75
Never	0.50	1.00	0.75
Females have more patience and endeavor than Males			
Most	28.50	34.00	31.25
Much	31.50	30.00	30.75
Moderate	22.00	23.50	22.75
Little	12.50	10.00	11.25
Least	4.00	1.50	2.75
Never	1.50	1.00	1.25
Females have more meticulous and exhaustiveness than Males			
Most	39.00	56.00	47.50
Much	41.50	40.50	41.00
Moderate	19.50	3.50	11.50
Little	0	0	0
Least	0	0	0
Never	0	0	0
Females have more human relations than Males			
Most	23.00	21.50	22.25
Much	28.50	27.50	28.00
Moderate	25.50	22.00	23.75
Little	15.00	19.00	17.00
Least	6.50	5.50	6.00
Never	1.50	4.50	3.00

Table 5.2 (Continued)

Gender Identities	M (n=200)	F (n=200)	Total (n=400)
Females have more dedication and commitment than Males			
Most	23.50	33.50	28.50
Much	21.50	30.50	26.00
Moderate	20.50	21.50	21.00
Little	16.00	11.00	13.50
Least	14.50	2.50	8.50
Never	4.00	1.00	2.50
Females have more coordination than Males			
Most	33.50	32.50	33.00
Much	35.50	34.00	34.75
Moderate	16.00	16.50	16.25
Little	12.00	13.50	12.75
Least	1.50	2.00	1.75
Never	1.50	1.50	1.50

From the table demonstrating the gender identities, or masculinity and femininity, it is found that the 5 characters of masculinity are as follows*: Male has more self-confidence than female.* Male and female respondents' opinions on this issue at 'much' level represent 59.50% and 52.50% of each gender respectively, and their opinions on the whole are at 'much' level, accounting for 56.00%; *Male is more enthusiast to have progress than female*. Males' opinions on this issue at 'much' level represent 51.00%, while females' at 'most' level represent 55.50%, and their opinions on the whole are at 'most' level, accounting for 49.50%; *Male has more emotional control*. Males' and females' opinions on this issue at 'much' level represent 52.00% and 43.50% of each gender respectively, and their opinions on the whole are at 'much' level, accounting for 47.75%; *Male is more courageous in making decision.* Both males' and females' opinions at 'much' level represent 39.50% and 45.50% of each gender respectively, and their opinions on the whole are at 'much' level, accounting for 42.50%; and *Male is more self-adjustable than female.* Males' and females' opinions at 'much' level represent 38.50% and 36.00% of each gender respectively, and on the whole their opinions are at 'much' level, accounting for 37.25%.

In regard to the femininity, it consists of 5 main characteristics as follow: *Female is more patient in pursuing the work than male does*. The respondents have

different opinions, males' at 'much' level represent 31.50% of them, while females' at 'most' level represent 34.00% of them, and their opinions on the whole are at 'most' level, accounting for 31.25%; *Female is more meticulous than male*. The respondents have different opinions, males' at 'much' level represent 41.50%, while females' at 'most' level represent 56.00%, and their opinions on the whole are at 'most' level, accounting for 47.50%; *Female has better relationship with colleagues than male does*. Male and female respondents' opinions at 'much' level represent 28.50% and 27.50% respectively, and their opinions on the whole are at 'much' level, accounting for 28.00%; *Female is more committed to work than male does*. Male and female respondents have the same opinions at 'most' level at 23.50% and 33.50% of each gender respectively, and their opinions on the whole are at 'most' level, accounting for 28.50%; and *Female is more reconcilable and coordinative than male does*. Male and female respondents' opinions at 'much' level represent 35.50% and 34.00% of each gender respectively, and their opinions on the whole are at 'much' level, accounting for 34.75%.

In short, when classified according to gender, it is found that males have the 5 masculinity characteristics, namely *self-confidence*, *enthusiasm for progress*, *emotional control*, *making decision with courage*, *self-adjustability*, more than females. That is they have these characteristics at 'much' level in all aspects. Regarding the enthusiasm for progress, females think that males' desire in this aspect is at 'most' level, that is more than females do. Meanwhile male and female respondents have different opinions on femininity characteristics, namely *patience in pursuing the work, meticulousness, good relationship with colleagues, commitment to work, conciliation and coordination*. Males think that females have these characteristics more than they do. And the characteristics females think that they possess more than males at 'most' level are the patience in pursuing work and the meticulousness. Besides, the overall femininity characteristics related to gender identities which females possess more than males do at 'most' level are the patience in pursuing work, meticulousness, and commitment to work. These the three aspects that females have more than males.

5.3 Gender Differences Concerning Gender Attitudes

Attitudes are individuals' opinions directed or shaped in order to have different beliefs and opinions between different genders. These opinions or beliefs are socially established regulations for the division of genders' responsibilities and roles in the society. Such opinions and beliefs cause the difference in gender attitudes that result in gender inequality, such as opportunity in educational, career selection, career progress in each occupation, which affect on gender differences in selection, making decision, and practices (Rick, 1986: 59). For gender attitudes related to work, they have effect on females' career progress as well, especially when concerning the work outside the home that is expected by the society as male' rather female's. Such attitudes make females not likely as reliable, or as trustworthy as males to hold main or important positions of organizations, but simply accepted as assistants or supporters for the work of males who take the higher positions, which results in inequality in work progress, or in their inferiority to males' (Wood, 1997: 61).

According to the research, it is found that there are 5 gender attitudes related to the gender differences in opportunity and career progress, as shown in table 5.3

Table 5.3 Percentage of Gender Differences in the Aspect of Gender Attitudes Classified According to Gender

Gender Attitude	Male (n=200)	Female (n=200)	Total (n=400)
In the same administrative Position, males are more accepted than females			
Most	26.50	36.50	31.50
Much	68.50	48.50	58.50
Moderate	5.00	12.00	8.50
Little	0	3.00	1.50
Least	0	0	0
Never	0	0	0

Table 5.3 (Continued)

Gender Attitude	Male (n=200)	Female (n=200)	Total (n=400)
In the same organization, males are more promoted than females			
Most	30.50	28.00	29.25
Much	49.00	59.00	54.00
Moderate	16.00	13.00	14.50
Little	4.50	0	2.25
Least	0	0	0
Never	0	0	0
In the same qualification, males have more opportunities than females			
Most	32.00	12.00	22.00
Much	44.50	72.00	58.25
Moderate	23.50	16.00	19.75
Little	0	0	0
Least	0	0	0
Never	0	0	0
In the same age and experience, males are recognized and reliable than females			
Most	34.50	25.00	29.75
Much	44.50	56.00	50.25
Moderate	14.50	10.00	9.75
Little	4.00	5.50	4.75
Least	2.50	3.50	3.00
Never	0	0	0
In the same job level, males are expected than females			
Most	42.50	68.50	55.50
Much	49.50	31.50	40.50
Moderate	8.00	0	4.00
Little	0	0	0
Least	0	0	0
Never	0	0	0

From the table above that illustrates the 5 main attitudes affecting the career progress, classified according to the gender of the respondents, it is found that in general, males are more accepted than females in administrative positions of the same level. Most respondents' opinions are at 'much' level, representing 58.50%, and when examining according to gender, it is found that most of males and females who agree on this issue at 'much' level represent 68.50% and 48.50% respectively.

In regard to gender attitudes related to the work in the same workplace that

males usually have more support than females, it is found that most respondents' opinions on the whole are at 'much' level, representing 54.0%, when examining according gender, most males and females agree on this issue at 'much' level as well, which represent 49.00% and 59.00% respectively.

Concerning the gender attitudes related to the same qualifications and knowledge that males usually have more opportunities or support than females, it is found that on the whole, it is also at 'much' level, representing 58.25%, and when examining according gender, it is found that most males and females agree on the issue at 'much' level, representing 44.50% and 72.00% respectively. Obviously, female go along with this issue in much larger proportion than males.

For the attitudes about when having the same age and experiences, males are usually regarded by others as more reliable than females, it is found that the respondents' opinions on the whole are at 'much' level, representing 50.25%, and when considering according to gender, it is found that most males and females agree on this issue at 'much' level which represent 44.50% and 56..00% respectively.

The last issue of gender attitudes is that if taking the jobs of the same position or type, males are expected to have more success than females, it is found that the respondents' opinions on the whole are at 'most' level, representing 55.50%, and when considering according to gender, it is found that there are some differences. That is, most males agree on this issue at 'much' level, representing 49.50%, while most females agree at 'most' level, representing 68.50%. It can be said that males are given more opportunities and more accepted than females.

5.4 Gender Differences Concerning Household Task Responsibilities

Household tasks are responsibilities that everyone has to do in daily life. In general, the society expects that these duties are rather females' responsibilities than males' (Heibrun, 1981: 55; Rapeepan Panthuratana, 2003: 68). Females, either single or married, have to allocate some of their time to do the housework despite having the work outside the home as well. Meanwhile, male either single or married take less responsibility for these roles than females do. Married females in particular have to spend at least half of their time in each day on doing household tasks, which

consequently affects their work outside the home such that they have less progress than it should be, or have it more slowly than males at the same age. In contrast, when a man is married, his responsibilities for household tasks decrease because his wife takes most of these duties in his place (Ackah, 2002: 138; Chanya Sethabut, 1998 : 42; Amara Pongsapich, 2005 : 59). Thus the household tasks are also factors affecting gender differences in career progress, as shown in table 5.4

Table 5.4 Percentage of Household Task Responsibilities Classified According to Gender and Marital Status

Household Tasks	Male (n=200)			Female (n=200)		
	Single (n=27)	Widowed (n=9)	Married (n=164)	Single (n=42)	Widowed (n=15)	Married (n=143)
Buy food and subsistent things						
Most	48.15	77.78	25.61	45.24	73.33	51.75
Much	18.52	22.22	32.32	30.95	26.67	36.36
Moderate	14.81	0	14.02	16.67	0	11.89
Little	11.11	0	11.58	4.76	0	0
Least	7.41	0	9.76	2.38	0	0
Never	0	0	6.71	0	0	0
Prepare food and Cooking						
Most	3.70	44.45	17.68	47.62	60.00	57.34
Much	7.42	33.33	20.12	33.33	20.00	39.86
Moderate	14.81	11.11	13.41	11.91	13.33	2.80
Little	18.52	11.11	18.29	7.14	6.67	0
Least	25.92	0	15.86	0	0	0
Never	29.63	0	14.64	0	0	0
Clean Kitchen Utensil						
Most	3.70	22.22	19.52	28.57	53.33	48.95
Much	7.41	33.34	20.73	21.43	26.67	43.36
Moderate	11.11	11.11	17.68	14.28	13.33	3.50
Little	18.52	11.11	13.41	7.14	6.67	2.80
Least	33.33	11.11	12.81	16.67	0	1.39
Never	25.93	11.11	15.85	11.91	0	0
Clean house and furniture						
Most	29.63	11.11	18.29	21.43	33.33	51.05
Much	33.33	22.22	23.17	40.48	26.67	42.65
Moderate	11.11	33.34	14.64	28.57	20.00	4.20
Little	3.70	22.22	15.85	2.38	13.33	2.10
Least	7.41	11.11	17.68	2.38	6.67	0
Never	14.82	0	10.37	4.76	0	0

Table 5.4 (Continued)

Household Tasks	Male (n=200)			Female (n=200)		
	Single (n=27)	Widowed (n=9)	Married (n=164)	Single (n=42)	Widowed (n=15)	Married (n=143)
Clean and decorate lawn, garden, sidewalk etc.						
Most	29.63	33.34	37.80	26.19	33.33	39.16
Much	25.93	11.11	29.88	21.43	40.00	43.36
Moderate	18.52	11.11	18.90	14.29	26.67	14.68
Little	14.81	22.22	5.49	11.90	0	2.80
Least	7.41	11.11	4.27	16.67	0	0
Never	3.70	11.11	3.66	9.52	0	0
Clean clothes						
Most	25.92	44.45	19.52	35.72	53.33	51.05
Much	22.22	33.33	21.34	28.57	20.00	45.45
Moderate	18.52	22.22	17.68	21.43	13.33	2.80
Little	14.81	0	16.46	7.14	6.67	0.70
Least	7.42	0	14.02	4.76	6.67	0
Never	11.11	0	10.98	2.38	0	0
Manage household expenditure						
Most	66.67	100.00	74.39	45.24	100.00	60.84
Much	25.92	0	25.61	28.57	0	39.16
Moderate	7.41	0	0	16.67	0	0
Little	0	0	0	9.52	0	0
Least	0	0	0	0	0	0
Never	0	0	0	0	0	0
Take Care of young children						
Most	0	55.56	45.12	0	100.00	53.85
Much	0	44.44	21.95	0	0	7.69
Moderate	0	0	8.54	0	0	0
Little	0	0	0	0	0	0
Least	0	0	0	0	0	0
Never	100.00	0	24.39	100.00	0	38.46
Task Care of old parents or relatives						
Most	11.11	11.11	14.63	64.29	26.67	81.82
Much	7.41	22.22	12.81	14.28	33.33	6.99
Moderate	18.52	33.34	22.56	9.53	13.33	6.29
Little	25.92	22.22	23.17	7.14	6.67	2.80
Least	22.22	11.11	17.68	4.76	0	1.40
Never	14.82	0	9.15	0	20.00	0.70
Take Care of sickly parents or relatives						
Most	14.81	11.11	14.02	52.38	40.00	32.88
Much	11.11	22.22	12.81	26.19	20.00	26.57
Moderate	7.41	11.11	15.24	7.14	13.33	14.68
Little	18.52	33.34	17.68	9.52	26.67	9.79
Least	22.22	22.22	18.29	0	0	9.09
Never	25.93	0	21.94	4.77	0	6.99

From the table which shows the household tasks responsibilities classified according to gender and marital status, it is found that females take these duties more than males. Married women in particular have these responsibilities more than single ones. Their responsibilities run from highest to lowest percentage are as follows: taking care of children, looking after of families' expenses, preparing and cooking food, buying food and other necessities, cleaning the house and furniture, cleaning all the things used in cooking, laundry, cleaning around the house, looking after the parents or elderly relatives, and looking after them when they get sick. For males, they do household tasks less than females do, especially married males, but they take part in these responsibilities in an increasing proportion, that is more than it used to be in the past when males did household tasks the least or not do these at all (Rapeepan Panthuratana, 2003: 68). The tasks the married men do and run from the highest to the lowest percentage are as follows: looking after the families' expenses, followed by cleaning around the houses, taking care of the children, buying food and other necessary things for the families, cleaning all the things used in cooking, looking after the parents or elderly relatives, cleaning the house and furniture, preparing and cooking food, laundry, looking after the parents and elderly relatives when they get sick respectively. Single men do household tasks less than married or widowed men, while single women, however, take these responsibilities than single men. Thus, in short, it can be said that females in any marital status do household tasks more than males.

5.5 Recommendations and Opinions from Open-Ended Questions

From 400 samples who responded the questionnaires, 337 persons answered the open-ended questions, representing 84.25%. They have given recommendations and opinions about the university lecturer career that it is a career with a certain progress, and that a lecturer can achieve the advancement by him/herself by producing academic work, without depending on superiors or the restrictions of organizational structure. For example, a civil servant level 11 is only the Permanent Secretary for the Ministry, the level 10 is only the Deputy Secretary for the Ministry, or the Ministerial Inspector, which limit directly the number of civil servants holding

these positions. But the for academic positions in universities, which are comparable to administrative positions in ministries, any lecturer can afford by him/herself by producing his/her own academic work and hold different positions without being restricted by limited number. Therefore, in Thailand, lecturers can achieve the career progress by their own abilities. But universities in some countries, such as in Japan, Korea, the number of Professors in each disciplines is limited, the Professor-to-be must have produced excellent academic work, the written work must be published, spread to foreign countries, and widely accepted, or have been awarded at international level etc. Besides, universities in these countries also fix the number of Professors as well, then the appointment of a new Professor can only be done as the replacement when a Professor resigns from this position or is transferred or dead. So in these countries there are more restrictions than in Thailand.

From 200 male samples, 148 of them responded the open-ended questions, representing 74.00%, their recommendations and opinions are that Thai universities provide equal career progress to both genders, without gender restrictions. Therefore, the progress depends on the individual him/herself. One of the demographic characteristics, the marital status, that affects the females' slower progress than males', especially during the period of pregnancy and taking care of the young children, is temporary obstacle. After that females can create the progress by themselves as much as males. At present, females tend to be university lecturers more than males. On average, number of female lecturers has been increased in every disciplines, even in the Medicine, Engineering, Architecture, Computer Science, and Sciences in nearly all disciplines, such that the numbers of female lecturers are getting closer to male lecturers'. In some disciplines there are even more female lecturers than males. For administrative positions at department and faculty level, as well as the university level as Vice President, there are female lecturers holding these positions more than males do. Therefore, in the future, the proportion of career progress between the two genders will not be different, whether in administrative positions or the academic positions, in which the female proportion increases every year.

Concerning the gender identities which play and important roles in enabling the gender differences in progress, the prominent male identities are self-confidence, enthusiasm, desire in progress, and making decision with courage, which are

important characteristics creating males' opportunities for advancement. Males are likely to search for novelties, challenges, that need their competence, adjustability, and changeability, without being attached to existing or conventional matters. Consequently, they produce new things, even though probably with some imperfection or defectiveness, but their confidence in presenting the work, their boldness in decision-making, and their acceptance of criticism for future improvement enable them more opportunities to have progress more than females. On the other hand, female prominent characteristics are their meticulousness, their commitment to work, which are positive characteristics, but sometime, they might be obstacles for work. For example, if anyone is too meticulous, he/she might think about matters to seriously, or is hesitant or reluctant in making decision, and interested in or places importance too much in minor things such that colleagues or superiors get annoyed, irritated, or displeased. These identities can also be disadvantages at the same time.

In regard to gender attitudes, male sample respondents think that in reality, gender attitudes still exist and still play important roles. By nature, males have leadership characteristics as they are flexibility for traveling, comfortable in working in other places, more secured when traveling alone compared to female, able to stay overtime or do additional work on weekend. As a result, they are promoted and given opportunities to develop themselves more than females. Nevertheless, if the jobs deal with routine work, such as office work, jobs dealing with lots of papers, coordination etc., these jobs suit females more than males. Consequently, as most of administration in universities is routine work in the office, females are therefore appointed to hold positions in different sectors because they are more suitable to these jobs than males.

For the household responsibilities, male respondents agree that these tasks play important roles in causing females to have progress more slowly than males because these tasks are females' direct responsibilities. Even though, at present, there has been certain division of responsibilities in the families; for example, males help to do parts of housework, such as buying of necessary things for uses in the families, buying things for cooking, cleaning housewares, cleaning the house, taking care of the tidiness around the home, and especially, sending the children to school and taking them back home. Male university lecturers do mostly these tasks for their spouses who are not university lecturers, because their children attend Demonstration Schools

of universities where their fathers are lecturers. Then the children go to school with their fathers everyday which relieves partially their mothers' burden. However, other household tasks have more details, so they are still females' responsibilities than males'.

Regarding the professional work, the male respondents think that in some issues there are not much different. For example; the regulations of the Higher Education Commission states clearly about what kind of and how much are the responsibilities of each position in which the lecturers must be responsible, such as the number of teaching hours, the number of research, academic service provided to the society, administrative tasks. So this duties are properly managed, distributed without gender consideration, except the consideration about personal capabilities. Most importantly, the self-development has direct effect on university lecturers' career progress. Every lecturer has the potential to develop him/herself, and makes the progress by him/herself, without being restricted by regulations or rules as well. Nevertheless, there exist obstacles about personal preparedness and capabilities. The females' impediment that leads to their slow progress or less progress than males' is their inability to manage their time properly. Many females mix their personal affairs with work, such as revealing family affairs to colleagues for sympathy, or to be listened to, or to have groups of close friends, and to help each other depending on occasion. Another issue is about the support from the organization, which males and females have equal opportunity, but in some cases females refuse such chance. For example, the holders of some positions have to arrive at the workplace before time, or have to do overtime, or to do additional work on weekend, as well as to visit locations outside the normal workplaces. The jobs with such conditions are likely to be refused by females due to the inconvenience about time and journey. Some females use responsibilities in the families as excuses for their refusal. As a result, females are less supported than males, even their opportunities and personal abilities are not different.

In regard to recommendations and opinions of female samples, from 200 samples, there are 186 persons responding the open-ended questions. They think that females have fewer opportunities to have career progress than males due to different reasons. First, they are built naturally weaker in physique than males, thus less accepted in administrative position as a consequence. Although at present females are

more respected in their capabilities, but for high-ranking administrative positions, they are given less opportunity as it used to be despite the administrative positions at the level of secretary, assistant or deputy of different division are mostly theirs. The higher the position, the less is females' chance. If a female holds a high-ranking position, it is often in the discipline where there are only females or a great majority of them are females, such as the Faculty of Nursing or Faculty of Arts, etc. In disciplines where the numbers of males and females are close, females' opportunity is far less than males'.

Concerning the demographic characteristics, the female samples think that families are important factor that aggravate females' burden. They have to take the housewife duties responsible for the tidiness of the home and the well-being of members of the families. Even though males can help relieve some tasks, but the main tasks are still females' which are food and childcare, especially small children. Females have to devote nearly all their time for maternal duties. During this period, many females have to stop temporarily their roles in professional work as well as the progress in career. Not until the children go to school that they are able to spend more time fully for their work.

In regard to gender identities, female samples think that at present they possess more characteristics of working women, i.e. they are more self-confident, boldly expressive, making decision with courage due to high education, more opportunities to use their knowledge and abilities, thus more opportunities to have career progress. Some femininity characteristics, such as the meticulousness, commitment to work, reconciliation, help them to work well with precision and tidiness. So the work is systematically organized and considered as their merit that results partly in their progress in career, especially in the careers suitable for such characteristics. But the female respondents accept that these characteristics can be obstacle for them as well, if they focus to much on details such that it leads to the lack of confidence, indicisiveness, problem-seeking, worry about trivialities. Many females still possess these characteristics which have effect on their work and colleagues accordingly.

In concern to gender attitudes, female samples agree that it is still partly true about the males being accepted as suitable to administrative positions as possessing leadership and reliable characteristics. Therefore, they are more trusted than females,

resulting in their more progress as well. At present, however, females have more opportunities, they have to show clearly that they have no less suitable qualifications than males do. But as attitudes are something difficult to change. They need time and work to justify their competence in order to be accepted. In this aspect, females need more time than males and they also need other supplementary components to support, such as good grades in study, finishing their studies from abroad, coming from wealthy and well-known families, having certain age and experiences, and having opportunities to present their abilities fully, which make them acceptable, reliable, and trusted to take the high-ranking administrative positions. To accumulate these qualifications to certain level, they need more time than males do. Besides, they have to reduce some of their femininity such as the interest in trivialities, details, and know to allocate the time properly without mixing personal affairs and work together, as well as the ability to separate the roles in household task responsibilities from the work at the workplaces, and raise their self-confidence, emotional control, then the females will be accepted and trusted increasingly.

Regarding the household task responsibilities, the female respondents think that even though females do less housework by themselves, because some jobs can hire other people to work for them, such as ironing, house cleaning. Some jobs have modern facilities to help alleviate the burden and can reduce considerably the time for doing housework. But due to their femininity, females still have to take some responsibilities for household tasks despite having housemaids, because they still have to look, supervise, examine the quality of work, or to give order. And sometime, they still have to do some duties by themselves, such as cooking, bringing up small children, buying necessary items for the families, cleaning materials for cooking, etc. so they are still responsible for household tasks as before. In fact, sometime, the housemaids or employees make them more worried than doing by themselves. Besides, if there are old or sick elderly relatives or parents, females still have more roles in treating the elderly relatives or parents than males do. Even though assistants or nurses are hired to take care of these elderly or sick persons closely, they still have to follow their employees' work. Sometime, they have to take all these responsibilities by themselves because the housemaids or employees are on leave to go back home for festivities or special occasions. Consequently, females can never liberate themselves

completely from doing household tasks, which affect their professional jobs and the career progress. In contrast, when a man get married, his wife will take care about food, the tidiness of the home, childcare when the children are small, or even to take care of the aging or ailing parents, so he has more time and more opportunities to develop himself in order to have the career progress.

CHAPTER 6

THE ANALYSIS ON CAREER PROGRESS OF STATE UNIVERSITY LECTURERS

This chapter presents the analysis of data about the career progress of state university lecturers collected from survey and additional interviews concerning their objective and subjective career progress, including the work in their organizations in order to find out factors that affect their career progress.

6.1 The Analysis of Career Progress

The career progress indicates of the achievement in working life, and its indicators are: 1) the increase of income, 2) the promotion to a higher position or level. In addition, there are some other components such as some beneficial rights, the participation in decision-making or formulating policy, taking part in the planning and organizational development, being empowered to give orders or to sign papers, having opportunity to take part in special activities or projects (Miles, 2000: 275), etc. These mentioned indicators are apparently tangible called objective career progress.

Another type of career progress indicator is the feelings or opinions rising from being able to do the desired work, or to work in a desirable establishment, so that an individual is satisfied with work, workplace, including the work position, income, work system, which result in the contentment with work and the commitment to work for better income or the promotion to a higher position, owing to the opinions or feelings of having progress in the career (Nabi, 2001: 457). These indicators are feelings or opinions about the work, workplace, income, etc., which are called subjective career progress.

The career progress can be measured by means of indicators. For the objective career progress, it can be measured from: 1) the time used from starting to work until holding the highest position at present (Miles, 2000: 277), 2) the time used to be promoted to higher level or position, 3) salary rate from the highest administrative positions classified according to gender (Kelly and others, 1991: 402), 4) the proportion of income (Miller, 1999: 219), 5) comparative progress between different careers (Chanya Sethabut and Umaporn Pattaravanich, 1998: 55). And the objective career progress can be measured from: 1) the opinion about the present work, 2) the opinion about the workplace, 3) the opinion about the present position, 4) the opinion about the present income, 5) the intention or expectation of being promoted to a higher position, 6) the intention to keep on working without changing the career, 7) the intention to continue to work at the same place without thinking to change (Nabi, 2001: 438).

This research has classified the career progress into 2 aspects: objective progress and subjective progress. And the research outcome is as follows:

6.1.1 Objective Career Progress Consists of:

(1) Measure the duration of time used to have the promotion to each level or position. The university lecturer career begins when an individual is engaged to work in the rank of lecturer. Then the advancement commences when his/her academic work has passed the evaluation in order to take a higher academic position, i.e. the rank of Assistant Professor, Associate Professor, and Professor respectively. The position promotion is carried out as follow:

1. **Lecturer**

The rank of lecturer is the first academic position that an university lecturer is entitled when engaged to work at first start, then he/she can submit for the promotion to a higher academic position after the required qualifications are reached, such as the working-life age, academic work, doing different activities, which are used in the promotion considerations according to the criteria. An engaged lecturer begins with level 3 if finishing the highest education with bachelor’s degree, and level 4 for the one finishing the highest education with master’s degree or doctoral degree

the highest level a lecturer is able to have is level 7. The level promotion of the lecturers is shown in table 6.11

Table 6.1.1 Time Used to have Level Promotion of Lecturers Classified According to Gender and Groups of Disciplines (unit: year)

Level	Lecture (n=58)					
	Sci & Tech (n=22)		Health Sci (n=11)		Soc & Hu (n=25)	
	M (n=10)	F (n=12)	M (n=4)	F (n=7)	M (n=7)	F (n=18)
3	2.54	2.68	2.23	2.47	2.72	2.79
4	3.27	3.44	3.22	3.30	3.35	3.38
5	3.63	3.95	3.46	3.75	3.87	3.90
6	3.89	3.98	3.74	3.82	3.92	3.97
7	4.05	4.12	3.91	3.96	4.13	4.16
Total	**17.38**	**18.17**	**16.56**	**17.30**	**17.99**	**18.20**

The table shows that on the whole the time the lecturers use to get promoted to higher levels is not much different. But when considering according to genders and groups of disciplines, it is found that the mean are slightly different. Male lecturers of every discipline group use less time to have level promotion than females. Lecturers in health science disciplines use less time to be promoted. Lecturers in others two discipline groups, especially those in social sciences and humanities disciplines take more time to have level promotion, that begins from level 3 up to level 7 which is the highest level in the rank of lecturer. To be promoted from the first start at level 3 until reaching level 7; male lecturers in the sciences and technology use altogether 17 years, while females use 18 years; in the health sciences, male lecturers use 16 years, females 17 years; and in the social sciences and humanities, male lecturers use 17 years, and females use 18 years.

The differences in level promotion despite having the same educational qualification and starting at the same level can be caused by many reasons. For example, if the lecturers are not engaged at the same time, the duration of work time or working age is the determinant, such as if not having been engaged for fully 8 months in that particular fiscal year, lecturers are not qualified to be considered for

the promotion in that fiscal year (Office of the Civil Service Commission, 2006: 12). Moreover, during the procedure of annual consideration of the work outcome, the additional assignment of special tasks is also part of the consideration, and these tasks are mostly assigned to males. Especially, at the beginning of their working life, the newly engaged ones are often assigned to do special tasks in provinces that means long distance journeys, or to do additional work on weekends, and probably obliged to work overtime in the evening. The administrators usually assign this kind of work to males more than to females, and use this kind of assignment to determine the special promotion for the persons doing special jobs, i.e. 2-step promotion, while those doing routine work get the normal 1-step promotion (Tipawadee Meksawan, 1994: 47). Consequently, male are promoted to higher levels in shorter time than females.

2. Assistant Professor

Assistant Professorship is the next higher academic position from the rank of lecturer. The regulation for the promotion of a lecturer to Assistant Professorship states that, if finishing the highest studies with master's degree, the lecturer must have carried on the teaching task for at least 5 years since the beginning of the engagement. And he/she must have produced a kind of academic work as prescribed by the regulation, and it has passed the evaluation for the position promotion. For those finishing the studies with doctoral degree they must have taught at least 2 years since being engaged lecturer, and must have any kind of academic work as prescribed by the regulation as well. The Assistant Professorship starts from level 6 up to level 8 which is the highest level. The level promotion of Assistant Professors is shown in table 6.1.2.

Table 6.1.2 Time Used to have Level Promotion of Assistant Professors Classified According to Gender and Groups of Disciplines (unit: year)

Level	Assistant Professor (n=143)					
	Sci & Tech (n=64)		Health Sci (n=28)		Soc & Hu (n=51)	
	M (n=31)	F (n=33)	M (n=13)	F (n=15)	M (n=23)	F (n=28)
7	7.45	12.27	5.35	7.71	8.13	9.58
8	3.78	3.96	2.91	3.24	3.82	4.13
Total	**11.23**	**16.23**	**8.26**	**10.95**	**11.95**	**13.71**

The table shows that there are differences in the duration of time used for the promotion from the rank of lecturer to Assistant Professors between groups of disciplines and genders. On the whole, it is found that male Assistant Professors use less time to have level promotion than females in all groups of disciplines. In the health sciences, all promotions for both males and females take less time than in other two groups of disciplines, i.e. males and females spend 8 years and 10 years respectively. Male Assistant Professors of the sciences and technology, and the social sciences and humanities spend a close average duration of time for all-level promotions, that is, 11 years. But females of these 2 groups of disciplines spend much different duration of time to achieve all promotion; that is, females in the social sciences and humanities use 13 year, and those in the sciences and technology use 16 years.

Before Assistant Professors level 7 are promoted to the Assistant Professorship level 8, the duration of their tenure varies according to different groups of disciplines as well. Females in all groups of disciplines spend longer time in this position than males do. For example, in the health sciences, females spend 7 years while males spend 5 years; and in the social sciences and humanities, females spend 9 years and 8 years for males. The duration of time before being promoted from Assistant Professor level 7 to level 8 in different groups of disciplines is relatively close, i.e. about 3 years. There are some slight differences as well; males in the health sciences spend less time than other two groups of disciplines, that is 2 years, and

females in the social sciences and humanities spend more time than others, that is, 4 years.

In addition, places of the highest studies of each discipline groups are also another factor to be considered as the cause of the differences in career progress, as shown in table 6.1.3.

Table 6.1.3 Time Used to have Level Promotion of Assistant Professors Classified According to Gender and Places of Highest Education (unit: year)

Place	Assistant Professor (n=143)					
	Sci & Tech (n=64)		Health Sci (n=28)		Soc & Hu (n=51)	
	M (n=31)	F (n=33)	M (n=13)	F (n=15)	M (n=23)	F (n=28)
Thailand	8.25	10.49	6.78	8.79	7.68	9.31
Abroad	7.11	9.02	5.36	7.18	6.94	8.27

The table shows that lecturers, whether males and females and in all groups of disciplines, who finished their highest studies from abroad (foreign-educated) are promoted from the rank of lecturer to Assistant Professorship in less time than those finishing their highest studies in the country (domestically-educated). The domestically-educated in the health science disciplines use less time to be promoted than those in other disciplines, i.e. 6 and 8 years for males and females respectively, the next are lecturers in the social sciences and humanities where males and females use 7 and 9 years respectively, and the last are those in the sciences and technology, where male and females use 8 and 10 years respectively.

On the other hand, the foreign-educated lecturers get their promotion in less time than domestically-educated in all groups of disciplines. In the health sciences, males and females use 5 and 7 years respectively; in the social sciences and humanities, male and females use 6 and 8 years respectively; in the sciences and technology, males and females use 7 and 9 years respectively.

One reason that enables the foreign-educated to have the Assistant Professorship in shorter time than the domestically-educated is because, in general, the former ones have better skill in foreign languages, which is essential for producing

academic work, whether for writing textbook, translation, doing research, as well as reading for references in writing academic work, since most of textbooks used in all disciplines are imported and written in foreign languages. Therefore, language skill is another factor that benefits directly foreign-educated lecturers (Chanya Sethabut and Umaporn Pattaravanich, 1998: 55; Ananchai Kongchan, 1998: 64).

3. Associate Professor

The Associate Professorship is the next higher academic position from the rank of Assistant Professor. The regulation for the promotion an Assistant Professor to Associate Professorship states that the applicant must have been Assistant Professor for at least 3 years. And he/she must have a kind of academic work that has passed the evaluation for the promotion to the position of Associate Professor, and that work must not have been used before in the evaluation for the promotion to the Assistant Professorship. The rank of Associate Professor begins from level 7 up to level 9 which is the highest. The level promotion of Associate Professors is shown in table 6.1.4

Table 6.1.4 Time Used to have Level Promotion of Associate Professors Classified According to Gender and Groups of Disciplines (unit: year)

Level	Associate Professor (n=151)					
	Sci& Tech (n=65)		Health Sci (n=51)		Soc & Hu (n=35)	
	M (n=31)	F (n=34)	M (n=26)	F (n=25)	M (n=25)	F (n=10)
8	8.29	13.32	7.26	9.37	8.89	9.67
9	4.48	6.75	3.82	5.91	6.78	11.45
Total	**12.77**	**20.07**	**11.08**	**15.28**	**15.67**	**21.12**

The table of the time use of Assistant Professors for the promotion to the rank of Associate Professors shows that there are differences between genders, as well as between groups of disciplines. It is found that on the whole, males use less time than females in all groups of disciplines. However, in the health sciences, males and females use 11 and 15 years respectively, the shortest time of all three groups of

disciplines. The next is the sciences and technology where males and females use 12 and 20 years respectively, and the last, in the social sciences and humanities, males and female use 15 and 21 years respectively.

Before the promotion to Associate Professorship level 9, the Assistant Professors level 8 of all disciplines remain in this position in different length of time. Females in all groups of disciplines stay at level 8 longer than males do. For example; in the sciences and technology, females use 13 years whereas males use 8 years; in the health sciences, females and males use 9 and 7 years respectively, and in the social sciences and humanities, females and males use 9 and 8 years respectively.

The time used for the promotion from level 8 to level 9, the Associate Professorship, is different both between genders and groups of disciplines. In all three groups of disciplines, males use less time for the level promotion than females. In the health science, where the promotion takes less time, males and females use 3 and 5 years respectively. In the sciences and technology, males and females use 4 and 6 years respectively. And the last, the social sciences and humanities, males and females use 6 and11years respectively.

In addition, the places of the highest studies in each discipline is also another factor to be considered as factor affecting the differences of career progress as shown in table 6.1.5

Table 6.1.5 Time Used for Level Promotion of Associate Professors Classified According to the Places of the Highest Education (unit: year)

Place	Associate Professor (n=151)					
	Sci & Tech (n=65)		Health Sci (n=51)		Soc & Hu (n=35)	
	M (n=31)	F (n=34)	M (n=26)	F (n=25)	M (n=25)	F (n=10)
Thailand	11.35	14.18	9.76	12.42	11.78	13.55
Abroad	9.22	12.49	7.88	10.19	9.53	11.44

The table shows that the foreign-educated Assistant Professors have the promotion to Associate Professorship in less time than the domestically-educated, both males and females in all groups of disciplines. The domestically-educated in the

health science disciplines use the shortest time for the promotion; males and females use 9 and 12 years respectively, followed by those in the technological sciences, and the social science and humanities where males of these two groups of disciplines use the same duration of time, i.e. 11 years, while females of these two discipline groups use slightly different time, i.e. in the sciences and technology, females use 14 years, and in the social sciences and humanities, females use a slightly shorter time, 13 years.

The foreign-educated use less time than the domestically-educated in all groups of disciplines as well. In the health sciences, where the promotion uses the shortest time among all three groups of disciplines, males and females use 7 and 10 years respectively. In the sciences and technology, males and female use 9 and 12 years respectively. And the last, in the social sciences and humanities, males use 9 years as well, but females use 11 years.

The reason the foreign-educated uses less time than the domestically-educated for level promotion is the foreign language skill which is essential for the study of textbooks which, a large number of them of in each discipline, are published in foreign languages. Especially the health sciences and sciences and technology, their textbooks have been translated into Thai only in a very small number. So those finishing from abroad who have more foreign language skill are able to produce the academic work and use it to apply for the promotion in shorter time (Chanya Sethabut and Umaporn Pattaravanich, 1998: 55). Nevertheless, one of the reasons why females use more time than males is because they have to carry on their responsibilities in the families in addition to the professional work in the organization. Since one part of their time is devoted to the household tasks, so they have less time for their self-development, thus their career progress takes longer time than males' at the same age (Chanya Sethabut, 1998: 35). Therefore, males and females do not use the same duration of time for academic promotion.

4. Professor

The Professorship, the status after the Associate Professorship, is the highest academic position. The regulation for the promotion of an Associate Professor to hold the Professorship states that, the lecturer mush have been Associate Professor

for at least 3 years, together with producing academic work, i.e. textbooks or books used in teaching courses in higher education, as well as research outcome published in standard academic periodicals, or presented in the academic conference of national and international level, and the work is submitted to be considered for the promotion to the Professorship. However, the academic work submitted must not be the same one already used in the submission for the promotion to Assistant Professor or Associate Professor. The rank of a Professor begins from level 9 to level 10 which is the highest. In regard to the Professorship level 11, the Professor applying for the promotion to this level must present the academic work after having been Professor level 10 for at least 10 years. There has been only a few number of lecturers appointed to this position. The highest position taken by most of Thai Professors is the rank of Professor level 10. The promotion of Professors is shown in table 6.1.6.

Table 6.1.6: Time Used to have Level Promotion of Professors Classified According to Gender and Disciplines (unit: year)

Level	Professor (n=48)					
	Sci & Tech (n=17)		Health Sci (n=16)		Soc & Hu (n=15)	
	M (n=12)	F (n=5)	M (n=10)	F (n=6)	M (n=8)	F (n=7)
10	10.32	13.02	8.74	10.14	12.51	14.12
11	4.41	6.23	3.32	5.35	5.75	6.76
Total	**14.73**	**19.25**	**12.06**	**15.49**	**18.26**	**20.88**

The table shows that there are differences in level promotion of Professors between gender and groups of disciplines. On the whole, males get promoted in less time than females in all groups of disciplines. In the health sciences, the promotion for both males and females uses less time than other disciplines, i.e. males use 12 years and females 15 years, followed by the sciences and technology where males and females use 14 and 19 years respectively, and the last, the social sciences and humanities, males and females use 18 and 20 years respectively.

The tenure of the Professorship level 10 has different duration depending on group of disciplines and genders as well. In the sciences and

technology, males and females use 10 and 13 years respectively; in the health sciences, males and females use 8 and 10 years respectively, and in the social sciences and humanities, males and females use 12 and 14 years respectively. In all groups of disciplines, males use less time than females for the promotion. In the health sciences, the promotion takes the shortest time, and in the social sciences and humanities, the promotion takes the longest time.

In regard to the promotion from Professorship level 10 to Professorship level 11, there are also difference between genders and groups of disciplines. In all discipline groups, males use less time than females, and in the health sciences, males use the shortest of time of all, i.e. 3 years and females use 5 years. In the sciences and technology, males and females use 4 and 6 years respectively. In the social sciences and humanities, males and females use 5 and 6 years respectively.

In addition, the places of the highest studies in any discipline is also another factor to be considered as factor affecting the differences of career progress as shown in table 6.1.7.

Table 6.1.7: Time Used to have Level Promotion of Professors Classified According to Gender and Places of the Highest Education (unit: year)

Place	Professor (n=48)					
	Sci & Tech (n=17)		Health Sci (n=16)		Soc & Hu (n=15)	
	M (n=12)	F (n=5)	M (n=10)	F (n=6)	M (n=8)	F (n=7)
Thailand	15.84	18.78	11.47	13.82	16.58	20.72
Abroad	12.37	14.92	9.38	12.35	14.69	17.18

The table shows that the foreign-educated gets academically promoted in less time than the domestically-educated in all groups of disciplines, both males and females. Among Professors of all disciplines who finished their studies from inside the country, those in the health sciences use the shortest time for the promotion; that is, males and females use 11 and 13 years respectively, followed by the sciences and technology where males and females use 15 and 18 years

respectively, and the last, the social sciences and humanities, males and females use 16 and 20 years respectively.

The foreign-educated lecturers use less time for the promotion to the Professorship than the domestically-educated in all groups of disciplines, both males and females. In the health sciences, the time use is the shortest, that is, males and females use 9 years and 12 year respectively, followed by the sciences and technology where males use 12 years and females use 14 years, and the last, the social sciences and humanities, males and females use 14 years and 17 years respectively.

According to the study of the level promotion of each academic position of university lecturers according to genders, disciplines and places of the highest studies, it is found that there are some differences. Females of all disciplines and places of the highest studies use more time to have academic promotion than males do.

(2) Measure the Proportion of Income

The career progress can also be measured from the proportion of income in relation to individual's background, namely age, educational level, position, work experience (Miller, 1999: 219). Besides, it can be considered from work system, organizational criteria and regulations as well (Miles, 2000: 278). The research outcome is can be considered from table 6.1.8

Table 6.1.8 Mean of Income Classified According to Demographic Characteristics

Demographic Characteristics	Lect (n=58)				Assist Prof. (n=143)				Assoc Prof. (n=151)				Prof. (n=48)			
	Level 6 (n=15)		Level 7 (n=43)		Level 7 (n=49)		Level 8 (n=94)		Level 8 (n=70)		Level 9 (n=81)		Level 10 (n=39)		Level 11 (n=9)	
	M (n=3)	F (n=12)	M(n=18)	F(n=25)	M(n=22)	F(n=27)	M(n=45)	F(n=49)	M(n=38)	F(n=32)	M(n=44)	F(n=37)	M(n=23)	F(n=16)	M(n=7)	F(n=2)
1. Age																
1.1 30 – 39 years	5.11	5.29	5.45	5.64	5.89	6.00	6.24	6.10	6.72	6.44	7.00	6.83	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
1.2 40 – 49 years	0.00	0.00	5.93	5.76	6.47	6.63	6.71	6.92	7.58	7.22	8.15	7.94	8.39	8.11	0.00	0.00
1.3 $\geq$ 50 years	0.00	0.00	6.71	6.53	7.12	6.94	7.33	7.19	7.73	7.38	8.32	8.25	8.64	8.48	9.00	8.88
2. Highest Educational Level																
2.1 Bachelor	5.09	5.16	5.32	5.48	5.94	6.10	6.37	6.30	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
2.2 Master	5.17	5.29	5.43	5.56	5.99	6.18	6.54	6.39	7.01	6.98	7.29	7.13	7.47	7.32	0.00	0.00
2.3 Doctoral	5.19	5.31	5.58	5.67	6.14	6.37	6.71	6.43	7.15	7.04	7.48	7.33	7.75	7.61	8.98	8.76
3. Place of Highest Educational Degree																
3.1 Thailand	5.14	5.18	5.42	5.53	5.67	5.84	5.92	6.17	6.47	6.31	6.87	6.65	7.29	6.94	7.49	7.32
3.2 Abroad	5.19	5.24	5.55	5.68	5.90	5.99	6.46	6.58	6.75	6.79	7.04	7.18	7.53	7.45	8.27	8.01
4. Area of Concentration																
4.1 Science and Technology	5.20	5.28	5.34	5.47	5.58	5.62	6.18	6.05	6.56	6.27	6.99	6.47	7.87	7.13	8.34	7.53
4.2 Health Science	5.32	5.37	5.68	5.71	5.93	5.73	6.87	6.14	7.45	6.93	7.97	7.54	8.59	7.85	9.00	8.22
4.3 Social science and Humanities	5.21	5.32	5.31	5.39	5.45	5.41	5.66	5.53	6.27	5.98	6.52	6.19	6.98	6.72	7.83	7.31

Table 6.1.8 (Continued)

Demographic Characteristics	Lect (n=58)				Assist Prof. (n=143)				Assoc Prof. (n=151)				Prof. (n=48)			
	Level 6 (n=15)		Level 7 (n=43)		Level 7 (n=49)		Level 8 (n=94)		Level 8 (n=70)		Level 9 (n=81)		Level 10 (n=39)		Level 11 (n=9)	
	M (n=3)	F (n=12)	M(n=18)	F(n=25)	M(n=22)	F(n=27)	M(n=45)	F(n=49)	M(n=38)	F(n=32)	M(n=44)	F(n=37)	M(n=23)	F(n=16)	M(n=7)	F(n=2)
5. Official Duration																
5.1 10 – 19 years	4.89	4.94	5.75	5.83	6.97	7.25	7.49	7.40	8.06	7.78	8.54	8.08	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
5.2 20 – 29 years	0.00	0.00	5.98	6.34	7.23	7.48	7.97	7.92	8.99	8.67	10.15	8.92	10.75	9.81	10.98	0.00
5.3 $\geq$ 30 years	0.00	0.00	6.21	6.40	7.18	7.32	7.65	7.61	9.10	8.96	9.37	9.05	9.59	9.36	10.00	9.74
6. Level at Start Working																
6.1 Level 3	3.74	3.88	4.92	5.06	5.46	5.67	6.12	6.15	6.78	6.65	7.32	7.19	8.04	7.73	0.00	0.00
6.2 Level 4	4.46	4.65	5.15	5.27	5.92	5.99	6.68	6.54	7.35	7.21	7.84	7.53	8.29	8.07	9.08	8.43
6.3 Level 5	4.95	5.14	5.38	5.42	6.16	6.24	6.73	6.67	7.47	7.39	7.93	7.74	8.63	8.42	9.24	8.80
7. Administrative Position																
7.1 None	4.04	4.07	4.53	4.58	5.23	5.26	5.84	5.86	6.43	6.42	6.98	6.97	8.89	8.77	9.81	9.11
7.2 At Department	5.10	5.16	5.94	5.99	7.47	7.53	7.96	7.99	8.94	8.97	10.00	9.98	10.63	10.54	10.97	10.92
7.3 At Faculty	5.41	5.48	6.16	6.19	6.74	6.79	8.09	8.18	9.00	9.00	11.11	10.96	11.87	11.76	12.95	12.65
7.4 At University	5.87	5.93	6.77	6.81	7.39	7.45	8.15	8.23	9.32	9.24	11.56	11.31	11.98	11.85	14.13	13.59

According to the table showing the proportion of income classified according to demographic characteristics, it is found that when considering according to the age, females in the rank of lecturers and Assistant Professor have larger income proportion than males, especially those at the age range between 30 – 39 years. But female Associate Professors at any level have average income less than males. At the age range of 40 - 49 years, female lecturers and Assistant Professors still have average income more than males. But in the position of Associate Professor and Professor, females' average incomes at any level are less than males'. From 50 years old, females' average incomes in every position and every level are inversely less than males'.

The highest education, it is found that females finishing the highest studies with bachelor's degree in the rank of lecturer at any level have average incomes more than males in the same rank, except the Assistant Professorship level 8 which is the highest level of this position, females' average incomes are less than males'. Similarly, females who finished the studies with master' degree and doctoral degree and are lecturers and Assistant Professors level 7 have average incomes more than males'. But in the position of Assistant Professor level 8 and up to the Professor level 10 and 11, females' incomes at any level are inversely less than males.

The places of the highest studies, it is found that domestically-educated female lecturers and Assistant Professors at any level have larger proportions of average incomes than males. However, in the position of Associate Professor and Professor, their average incomes at any level are less than males. For females finishing the studies from abroad and hold the position of lecturer, Assistant Professor, and Associate Professor, the proportions of their average incomes at any level are larger than males. However, the Professorship is the only position where the proportions of females' average incomes are smaller than males'.

The group of disciplines of the highest studies, it is found that in all groups of disciplines, female lecturers and Assistant Professors level 7 at any level have average incomes more than males, but female Professors level 8 and up to Professors 11 at any level have average incomes less than males and in all groups of disciplines.

The disciplines of the highest studies, it is found that female lecturers and Assistant Professors level 7 at any level in all groups of disciplines have average incomes higher than males. But female Professors level 8 up to Professors level 11 at any level have average incomes less than males holding the same position and disciplines.

The working age, it is found that females with working age between 10 - 19 years in the rank of lecturer up to Assistant Professor level 7 at any level have average incomes more than males. But from the Assistant Professorship level 8, the highest level of this position, up to the Associate Professorship level 9 with the working age between 20 – 29 years, females' average incomes at any level are less than males'. Females at the rank of lecturer level 7, the highest level of lecturer position, and female Assistant Professors level 7 have average incomes more than males'. But from the Assistant Professorship level 8 up to the Professorship level 10, females at any level and positions have less average than. And actually, none woman of that working age has ever held the Professorship level 11 which is the highest academic position.

The level at the first start when engaged as a university lecturer, it is found that the average incomes vary from level to level. Females first engaged as lecturers level 3 and female Assistant Professors of any level have average incomes more than males'. But in the rank of Associate Professor and Professor at any level, females have lower average incomes than males. Regarding those who start the engagement with the rank of lecturer level 4 and level 5 and the Assistant Professorship level 7, females have average incomes more than males at the same level. But from the Associate Professorship level 8 up to the Professorship level 11 at any level, females' average incomes are lower than males'.

The administrative tenure at present, it is found that the average incomes of those without administrative positions, whether males or females in any position or at any level, are not much different, with females' income proportions slightly higher than males at any level who hold the position of lecturers and Assistant Professor alike. But from the Associate Professorship and higher positions, females' average incomes lag slightly behind males' incomes, especially in the Professorship level 11 where females' average incomes are far less than males' when compared to other

levels. For those holding administrative positions at department level, females with the position of lecturer, Assistant Professor, Associate Professor level 8 have average incomes more than males. But from the Professorship level 9 up to the Professorship level 11, females' incomes at any level are slightly lower than males. Regarding those holding administrative positions at faculty level, females entitled Assistant Professor and Associate Professor level 8 have slightly higher average incomes than males or very close average incomes. Especially, both males and females who hold Associate Professorship level 8 have the same average income. But from the Associate Professorship level 9 up to the Professorship level 11 at any level, females' average incomes are lower than males. Similarly, for those holding the administrative positions at university level, females entitled lecturers and Assistant Professors at any level have higher incomes than males do, but from the Associate Professorship at any level, males' incomes are higher than females'.

It can be said as an overview that females have higher average incomes at the beginning of their working life due to their great devotion to the work before they get married. Therefore, during the annual work outcome consideration, they are promoted to higher steps of salary many times (Tipawadee Meksawan, 1994: 34). In fact, many jobs suit females, such as secretary of committees, public relation, papers work, coordination, etc. They are consequently assigned to these jobs in addition to their routine work, which results in their superiors' annual consideration for these females' promotion of salary (Achara Suwapan, 1985: 58). As a result, they have opportunities to get higher salary than males who start working at the same time.

Females' incomes begin to stabilize or be promoted more slowly than males when they reach the middle age, i.e. between 35 - 45 years old. At this age range, most women are married so they have to allocate their time to take care of their families. They are loaded with housework, which force them to take leaves of absence more often than when they are single; they have to take children to and from schools, taking care of sick children, maternity leave for baby delivery, sick leaves, leaves on personal obligation, etc. Therefore, they can neither devote themselves fully to their specially assigned work nor to their routine work. Consequently, their level is stabilizes or considered to be promoted at ordinary pace, without any special promotion (Chanya Sethabut, 1998: 54), that results in their lower incomes than

males' even they are at the same age and positions. Sometimes, their incomes remain lower than males' constantly throughout their working life due to those leaves accordingly (Sutheera Thompson and Methinee Pongvej, 1995: 43).

Educational level is another factor affecting the income differences. Because the engagement regulation prescribes the salary rate in relation to educational attainment, so some lecturers have already unequal incomes since the first start. During their work, there are still differences in the salary increases between normal promotion and special promotion. The leaves for further study or for training courses, or for the search to increase ones' knowledge results in their deprivation from the promotion to new salary level in compliance with the rules for study leave or the leave to increase the knowledge (Office of the High Education Commission, 2004: 15). Thus lecturers do not have the same salary.

Places of the highest studies also affect income differences. Especially, if finishing the studies from abroad, a lecturer has more chance to get higher salary than the one finishing his/her study from inside the country. It is because foreign language skill is useful for work. Females with such skill are often assigned to the jobs that need this skill, such as secretary, public relation, or some other special work in addition to routine work. These jobs can be used in their superiors' consideration for annual promotion (Ananchai Kongchan, 1998: 61). Moreover, this skill is also helpful for academic work that affects directly the academic career progress, such as document or textbook translation, etc. (Umaporn Pattaravanich, 1998: 52).

The disciplines of the highest studies are another factor resulting in income difference. It is found that in the health sciences, the proportion of the mean of income promotion of both males and females are higher than in other groups of disciplines. In this group of disciplines, lecturers submitting for academic promotion is in higher number than those in other two discipline groups, and they also enter into the academic position more quickly than others as well (Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2005: 19) because lecturers in this discipline group have to do the research and follow the progress in the academic circle continually (Bailyn, 2003: 13). Thus they produce a large quantity of academic work with can be used directly in the application for the academic position promotion. Besides, in this group of disciplines, the number of lecturers applying for the academic position promotion

via special procedures is also higher than those in other 2 discipline groups as well (Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2005: 25).

Working age is another factor affecting income differences. Anyone working for a long period of time usually has a larger proportion of income than another person with shorter working life. And the one with long working age also has more opportunities to be promoted to higher positions than a shorter-working-age person. Besides, the level at the first start of engagement is also different due to the differences in the level of education, i.e. an individual with bachelor's degree is engaged to a position at level 3, the person with master' degree is engaged to level 4, and the one with doctoral degree is engaged to level 5 (ministerial regulation, 2004: 7). So the differences at first start of the engagement affect the income differences as well. When considering the working age and the level at first start, it is found that from the lecturer position to the Assistant Professorship level 7, females' proportions of increased incomes at any level are larger than males'. But from the Assistant Professorship level 8 and Associate Professorship and higher, the females' proportions of the increased incomes are less than males', that result in their slower pace of progress and they need longer time to rise to higher positions.

In regard to the administrative positions, which help increase additional incomes because there is compensation money attached directly to these positions. Besides, there is also compensation money for other positions, such as the President of Project, Head of Center or Office, including the deputy and assistant positions of different committees, which bring additional money to the current salary and the money granted to academic positions. Therefore, holding a administrative position means an additional income as well. When compared to those without administrative position, the proportions of incomes of holders of administrative positions are obviously different from others. The administrators have more opportunities to have their administrative work considered for their benefits in addition to their routine work, so they can be considered to have salary promotion by special methods. Thus they have more chance than those without administrative positions. Especially those holding the administrative positions at university level, they can be promoted by special methods when their salary reaches the lowest salary step of the higher level. For example, if an individual is a lecturer level 7 and his/her salary reaches the lowest

step of level 8, he/she will be promoted to level 8, etc (Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2004: 15), so the salary is raised in relevance to the new promoted level too. Actually, the administrative positions are mostly occupied by males, therefore, their average income proportions are larger than females' in any position.

6.1.2 Subjective Career Progress

Measuring the subjective career progress is something related to the feelings or opinions about the workplace, work position, etc. as factors creating the career progress. The analysis on demographic characteristics and subjective career progress classified according to gender is shown in table 6.1.9

Table 6.1.9 Mean of Subjective Career Progress Classified According to Demographic Characteristics (n=400)

Demographic Characteristics	Occupation Preference		Organization Preference		Position Preference		Income Preference		Position Progress		No Change Office		No Change Work	
	M (n=200)	F (n=200)	M (n=200)	F (n=200)	M (n=200)	F (n=200)	M (n=200)	F n=200)	M (n=200)	F (n=200)	M (n=200)	F (n=200)	M (n=200)	F (n=200)
1. Age														
1.1 30 – 39 years	4.45	4.79	4.32	4.43	3.84	3.98	3.24	3.38	4.54	4.13	4.43	4.59	4.18	4.29
1.2 40 – 49 years	4.37	4.65	4.39	4.51	4.40	4.56	3.98	3.99	4.10	4.00	4.46	4.67	4.44	4.57
1.3 ≥ 50 years	4.29	4.60	4.41	4.62	4.47	4.63	4.31	4.43	3.83	3.68	4.50	4.88	4.45	4.66
2. Highest Educational Level														
2.1 Bachelor	4.40	4.54	3.83	4.05	3.42	3.45	3.00	3.00	3.75	3.11	3.15	3.77	3.33	3.58
2.2 Master	4.33	4.58	4.26	4.48	4.38	4.50	3.85	3.94	4.08	4.00	4.31	4.46	3.89	4.15
2.3 Doctoral	4.21	4.76	4.20	4.57	4.49	4.67	4.22	4.35	4.42	4.26	4.28	4.50	3.76	4.34
3. Place of Highest Educational Degree														
3.1 Thailand	4.42	4.53	4.12	4.34	4.21	4.34	3.73	3.77	4.27	4.15	4.55	4.62	4.47	4.52
3.2 Abroad	4.24	4.37	4.00	4.16	4.05	4.19	3.31	3.36	4.39	4.23	4.32	4.51	4.21	4.33
4. Area of Concentration														
4.1 Science and Technology	4.18	4.32	4.25	4.39	4.16	4.46	2.82	2.98	3.94	4.00	3.18	3.45	3.12	3.51
4.2 Health Science	4.35	4.57	4.48	4.67	4.53	4.65	3.34	3.46	4.45	4.32	3.57	3.68	3.54	3.70
4.3 Social science and Humanities	4.46	4.68	4.53	4.68	4.34	4.69	3.66	3.79	4.53	4.47	3.94	4.23	3.98	4.45

Table 6.1.9 (Continued)

Demographic Characteristics	Occupation Preference		Organization Preference		Position Preference		Income Preference		Position Progress		No Change Office		No Change Work	
	M (n=200)	F (n=200)	M (n=200)	F (n=200)	M (n=200)	F (n=200)	M (n=200)	F n=200)	M (n=200)	F (n=200)	M (n=200)	F (n=200)	M (n=200)	F (n=200)
5. Official Duration														
5.1 10 – 19 years	3.47	3.78	3.62	3.89	3.70	3.98	2.91	3.44	3.67	3.35	3.46	3.69	3.50	3.78
5.2 20 – 29 years	4.09	4.24	4.10	4.37	4.15	4.30	3.52	3.96	3.23	3.12	3.58	3.97	4.00	4.31
5.3 $\geq$ 30 years	4.25	4.39	4.31	4.48	4.26	4.36	3.94	4.11	2.84	2.58	4.20	4.54	4.60	4.72
6. Level at Start Working														
6.1 Level 3	3.40	3.54	3.53	3.66	4.22	4.39	3.10	3.15	3.55	3.39	4.07	4.18	3.95	4.13
6.2 Level 4	3.52	3.67	3.64	3.75	4.37	4.50	3.23	3.37	3.82	3.51	4.29	4.45	4.37	4.46
6.3 Level 5	3.56	3.69	3.73	3.81	4.43	4.61	3.36	3.42	3.96	3.54	4.35	4.50	4.43	4.50
7. Academic Position														
7.1 Lecturer	4.05	4.25	4.22	4.34	3.61	3.77	3.05	3.18	3.49	3.60	4.06	4.21	3.81	4.18
7.2 Assistant Professor	4.20	4.36	4.37	4.47	4.14	4.32	3.37	3.50	3.61	3.55	4.19	4.32	4.26	4.45
7.3 Associate Professor	4.31	4.48	4.46	4.62	4.56	4.73	3.48	3.63	3.58	3.50	4.34	4.46	4.42	4.57
7.4 Professor	4.49	4.63	4.53	4.69	4.78	4.84	3.59	3.76	3.00	2.83	4.48	4.63	4.49	4.69
8. Administrative Position														
8.1 None	3.11	3.35	3.26	3.39	3.22	3.44	3.10	3.15	4.28	4.27	4.14	4.38	4.23	4.35
8.2 At Department	3.32	3.48	3.47	3.53	3.63	3.86	3.56	3.59	4.16	3.93	4.32	4.46	4.37	4.50
8.3 At Faculty	3.73	3.96	3.98	4.15	3.98	4.37	3.74	3.72	3.84	3.41	4.40	4.67	4.42	4.56
8.4 At University	3.94	4.07	4.10	4.36	4.45	4.59	3.92	3.96	3.12	2.80	4.20	4.55	4.49	4.63

The table shows the mean of 7 aspects of subjective career progress according to demographic characteristics and genders. The first aspect concerns the opinion about whether university lecturer career has more progress than other careers. It is found that the mean of females with any demographic characteristic are higher than males'. When considering the age, females at any age range have mean higher than males. However, both males' and females' mean decrease when age ranges increase. It is because when they started working, they were still young and generally thought that the chosen work was the best for themselves and the best of all. But after working for sometimes, they have usually found that their jobs are not different from others', or even other careers are better than theirs. But females are not likely to change unnecessarily the careers (Baird and Kram, 1983: 47), which has an effect on their better attitudes toward their jobs than males'. In regard to level of education, the mean of females of any educational level are higher than males'. But males' mean decrease with the higher level of education, in contrast to females' which increase in accordance to the higher level of education. Besides, these mean of foreign-educated lecturers, both males and females, are lower than the domestically-educated. The mean in this aspect of lecturers of the social sciences and humanities are the highest among all three discipline groups of the highest education. Those who have longer working age have higher mean than those with shorter working age. Those who started the engagement at high level or level 5 have mean higher than those started with low-level engagement or level 3. Those holding academic position of Professor have the mean higher than those holding academic position as lecturers. And those holding administrative positions of any levels at present have these mean higher than those without these positions.

Second: the opinion about the workplace that creates the progress. It is found that these mean of females with any demographic characteristics are higher than males'. When considering the age, these mean of females at any age range are higher than males', and these values increase at every age range, males and females alike. In regard to the highest education, females of any education level have higher mean than males, and increases in relevance to levels of education, both males and females. Besides, the domestically-educated, both males and females, have higher mean than the foreign-educated. The mean in this aspect of lecturers of the social sciences and

humanities are the highest among all three discipline groups of the highest education. Those with long working age think that the workplaces create the progress more than the young-working-age ones do. Those who began their careers at level 3, whether males or females, have lower opinion in this aspect than those who started at level 5, but the average value increases in accordance to the levels. Similarly, those holding the rank of lecturer have lower opinions in this aspect than those holding the Professorship, and the ones with higher academic positions have higher opinions in relation to their position, both males and female, as well as those holding the administrative position at present who have higher opinions according to their higher positions as well.

Third: it is the opinion about the current position that creates the career progress. When considering the age, it is found that the aged lecturers' opinions in this aspect are higher than those of the younger ones, and the mean increase in relevance to age ranges, both males and females, and the females' mean are higher than males' at every age range. Similarly for the highest educational level, those who finished their studies with doctoral degree both males and females have higher mean than those finishing their studies with bachelor's degree. The average value increases in accordance to educational level, both males and females, at every educational level, because the aged persons or those with higher education have more opportunities to take higher positions, that means more progress than before (Kloot, 2004: 474; Ananchai Kongchan, 1998: 42). The domestically-educated, both males and females, have mean of the opinion in this aspect higher than the foreign-educated. Regarding the disciplines of the highest education, on the whole, females' mean are higher than males in all groups of disciplines. If considering the gender differences, it is found that males in the health sciences have the highest mean, because in this discipline group, lecturers enter into positions earlier and in larger number than in other discipline groups, and it means their career progress. In females in the social sciences and humanities have mean higher than those in other discipline groups, because in the social sciences and humanities, there are more females than males, thus a large number of females hold different positions (Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2005: 39). The long working-age persons have higher opinions in this aspect than the young working-life ones of every age range, males and females alike,

because the experienced lecturers have more opportunities to take the higher positions than those with less experience. Likewise, those beginning to work at level 3 have lower opinions on this issue than those beginning the engagement at level 5, males and females alike. It is because those beginning with high-ranking positions deserve the positions due to their qualifications in compliance with the engagement regulation. Similarly, when considering the academic positions which are the status symbolizing the career progress of university lecturers. Those holding the Professorship, the highest academic position, have mean higher than those in lower positions. Both males and females who hold high-ranking academic positions think that their current positions have constant career progress. The current administrative positions give the similar result; those holding the high-ranking positions think that their present positions mean more progress than those without such positions, and the mean of those holding different positions increase continually.

Four: the opinion about the income meaning the career progress. It is found that the mean in this aspect of elderly lecturers are higher that the young ones, because the aged lecturers have worked in longer time than the young ones, their incomes are consequently higher in accordance with their age. The highest educational level is another factor affecting the income differences. Those with doctoral degree receive higher incomes than those with other levels of degrees. The domestically-educated, both males and females, think that the incomes indicate the progress more than the foreign-educated do, because the latter expect to receive more incomes than the actual ones in comparison to those in private sector or lecturers abroad (Chanya Sethabut, 1998: 71; Ananchai Kongchan, 1998: 42). When regarding the disciplines of the highest education, the mean in this aspect of the social sciences and humanities are the highest among the three discipline groups, males and females alike. In contrast, the averages values of the sciences and technology are the lowest, because in these disciplines and in the health sciences, lecturers have more opportunities to get more incomes than actual salaries if working in private sector (Ananchai Kongchan, 1998: 54). Then those working in these groups of disciplines expect to receive more incomes than what they receive in the civil service system. The long working-age persons, who think that the incomes they receive mean the progress, have this average value higher than those with short working age, both

males and females at every working age. It is because the one with long working age receive higher incomes than the short working-age persons. Moreover, the level at first engagement is another factor showing that those begin the engagement at level 5 have average value in this aspect higher than those engaged at level 3, because at each level, there is a salary rate regulation. Those engaged at high level have higher incomes than those engaged at lower levels. When considering the academic positions, it is found that the mean of those holding high-ranking academic positions are higher than those holding the lower ones, because the academic positions enable the promotion to higher salary level, and bring the compensation money of the positions, which vary according to different positions. So those holding different academic positions receive different incomes, meaning the high-ranking positions bring, as an advantage, higher incomes accordingly. Then the mean of those without administrative positions are lower than those with these positions who have, in addition, compensation money for the academic positions, money for the President of Project, Center, Office, etc. as well as and opportunities to be promoted in the annual promotion as special cases, etc.

Five: the intention to get promoted to higher academic position. It is found that the males' mean of this opinion are higher than females' in many variables, especially the age; when getting older, both males' the and females' intention to have academic promotion decreases gradually at every age range. It is because the aged lecturers have had already academic positions, such as Professors are mostly over than 50 years old, and Associate Professors are over than 40 years old (Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2006: 52), therefore, there intention to get the promotion diminishes. Meanwhile, the young lecturers do not have academic positions or otherwise the primary ones. The lecturers with doctoral degree both males and females, have stronger intention to get promoted to higher academic positions than lecturers with lower level degrees. Likewise, the foreign-educated also have stronger intention to be academically promoted than the domestically-educated lecturers. Lecturers in the social sciences and humanities have this intention stronger than those in other discipline groups. Meanwhile, in the sciences and technology, this mean are lower than other disciplines, and females' mean are higher than males, because there are less female lecturers in this discipline group than in others (Office of the Higher

Education Commission, 2006: 46), and they are also mostly new generation lecturers without academic position, therefore, they want to be promoted to higher positions. Similarly, long-working age lecturers have weaker intention to get the promotion than the short-working age ones, because, partly, the former ones have held already higher academic positions than the younger ones. Lecturers engaged at level 3 at the first start have weaker intention to get the promotion than those engaged at level 4 and 5, because the former ones have to use more time than the latter to have all salary promotion to the full step of level 3. While the salary promotion of those beginning at level 5 to the full step needs academic work to support the academic position promotion, thus subsequently extends the salary to the higher step. Those holding Professorship, the highest academic position, have weaker intention to get promoted than others who are in the lower positions. The mean of males' intention to have academic promotion are high in the position of lecturer and Assistant Professor, but decrease when holding the position of Associate Professor and Professor. Meanwhile, the mean of females' intention to have academic promotion is stronger than males' in the same positions, but their intention becomes weaker from the position of Assistant Professor up to Professor. As a result, the Professors, both males and females, decrease in number. In regard to lecturers without administrative positions at present, their intention to be academically promoted is stronger than those holding administrative positions at any level, males and females alike. This intention decreases in inverse relation to the higher levels of administrative positions, partly, because those holding administrative positions at university level are already entitled to academic positions, and they are occupied by administrative responsibilities such that they have less time to produce academic work than those without such jobs.

Six: the intention to continue working at the same organization without change because the present workplace provides career progress. On the whole, it is found that females intend more to work in the same organization without thinking to find new work than males do, even though such move or transfer means a higher position, because females think about the convenience, security and responsibilities as important factors, therefore, they change the workplaces less than males (Sutheera Thompson and Methinee Pongvej, 1995: 49). When considering the age, it is found that when getting older, both males and females have stronger intention to work at the

same place, without thinking to change the work, than the younger lecturers do. When considering the highest education, it is found that lecturers finishing the studies with bachelor's degree have lower mean in this aspect than those with higher education. But the mean of males with doctoral degree are lower than males with master's degree. In contrast, the mean of females with doctoral degree are higher than females finishing the education with master's. That is, females intend to work at the same places without change more than males. The mean in this aspect of foreign-educated lecturers, both males and females, are lower than the domestically-educated. In regard to the discipline group of the highest education, it is found that the social sciences and humanities have the mean higher than other two groups of disciplines. When considering the working age, it is found that both males and females with long working age intend to work at the same place without thinking to change more than the shorter working-age lecturers. Similarly, lecturers beginning the engagement at level 5 have more intention to stay at the same places without thinking to change than those beginning the engagement at level 4. That is, those with master's or higher educational level have more chance to get secured jobs and be engaged at higher levels than those with lower education (Chanya Sethabut, 1998: 62), so they rarely think about changing work. In addition, lecturers with high academic status intend to work at the same places without thinking to change work more than those holding lower positions. But those holding high-ranking administrative positions at present, or the university level, have lower mean than those who have no administrative positions at department and faculty level whose intention increases, both males and females. In regard to lecturers who hold administrative positions at university level, which are the highest position available in the current workplaces, may think that they have held already the highest positions and the remaining working time does not last long, unlike universities abroad where there are rotations of administrators to new workplaces.

Seven: the intention to continue the university lecturer career without change. On the whole, it is found that females' mean are higher than males' because females do not like the transfer or the change of work (Roloff, 2001: 25; Priola, 2004: 429). When considering from issue to issue beginning from the age, it is found that both elderly males and females intend more strongly to continue the university lecturer

career without change than young lecturers. The mean of those with doctoral degree and master's degree are higher than those with bachelor's. The domestically educated lecturers intend to continue the university lecturer career more than the foreign-educated. The mean of lecturers finishing the highest studies in the social sciences and humanities are higher than those finishing in other disciplines. And the mean of those finishing the studies in the sciences and technology are the lowest among the three groups of disciplines. When considering the working age, it is found that lecturers with long working age, both males and females, intend to continue the university lecturer career more than the shorter working-age ones. Similarly, those who begin the engagement at level 5 intend to continue the university lecturer career more than those beginning the engagement at level 3. The reason those with master's degree and doctoral degree like to be university lecturers is because they see the progress in this career more than in other careers; they have more chance to use their knowledge in this career than in others, and they have more freedom than working in other careers as well (Research Promotion Commission, National Institute of Development Administration, 1998: 77). When considering the academic positions, it is found that lecturers holding higher academic positions, both males and females, have stronger intention to work as university lecturers. Similarly, those who hold high-ranking administrative positions have increasingly stronger intention to continue working as university lecturers because they think that it is a secured career that provides more career progress than other careers (Research Promotion Commission, National Institute of Development Administration, 1998: 79). Consequently, they do not think to change the work.

6.2 The Analysis of Working in Organization

Work in organization is males' and females' careers nowadays. This organizational occupation is an outside-the-home work that aggravate females' burden because they have two different kinds of work to do at the same time. Organizational occupation is a factor illustrating the career progress. And the university lecturer career has different obligations to follow whether the rules or regulations of civil service in university which include academic work, administrative

work, academic service provided to the society, and research. Furthermore, there are also special jobs occasionally assigned by the organization. Doing all these jobs is the work data that have effect on annual salary promotion and are also used in the consideration for academic promotion, which is university lecturers' career progress.

This research on university lecturers' occupation in organization has divided the studies into 5 aspects: 1. Routine work. 2. Self-development. 3. Time allocation. 4. Work experience. 5. Support and promotion from the organization. The consideration in each aspect is as follows:

6.2.1 Routine Work

According to the regulation of civil service in university, employees in academic line or teaching line are responsible for teaching, doing research, providing academic service for the society, preserve the cultures and arts. It is found that a large number of university lecturers carry out mostly only their main responsibilities or teaching tasks while taking care less of other responsibilities. Especially the research, there is only a small quantity of research when compared to the numbers of lecturers of each university (Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2005: 19). Nevertheless, teaching is a job that needs directly the knowledge from their studies which is also useful to produce textbooks, books, academic document used in teaching, and can also be used as a topic for conducting research or giving lectures to other organizations, which are considered academic service provided to the society (Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2005: 22). University lecturers and their routine work responsibilities can be classified as shown in table 6.2.1

Table 6.2.1 Mean of the Lecturers' Routine Work Classified According to Gender

Routine Working	M(n=200)	F(n=200)	T(n=400)	T-Value
You teach appropriately in course subject and your qualification	4.43	4.31	4.37	0.814
You teach in course subject with your competence and interest	4.58	4.63	4.61	-0.875
You teach as well as research in each course subject	3.97	3.92	3.95	-0.543
You are invited by others organization to be a special lecturer	4.02	3.94	3.98	0.751
You get appropriately the total of course subject and teaching hour in each semester	3.37	3.29	3.33	0.762
Total	**4.07**	**4.02**	**4.05**	**0.347**

Note : 5 = Most 4 = Much 3 = Moderate 2 = Little 1 = Least

The table shows that on the whole, male and female lecturers' responsibilities for routine work are at the same level, or 'much' level. When considering all aspects one by one, it is found that both male and female lecturers are assigned to subjects suitable to their knowledge and capabilities as demonstrated by high mean, and males' is slightly higher than females'. In regard to teaching subjects relevant to their competence and interest, these mean are at 'much' level, and females' is slightly higher than males'. Concerning the teaching subjects can be used for doing research and giving lectures to external organizations as well, the mean of both issues are moderate. And the last issue, the lecturers are assigned to suitable numbers of subjects and hours in each semester, the mean are moderate, but the males' is slightly more than females'.

When comparing the routine work responsibilities, classified according to genders by using t-value test, it is found that the t-values in all these aspects do not have statistically significant differences, because both males and females working for these organizations have to follow the regulation imposed to all lecturers. Then the assignment is considered according to their qualification suitability to the jobs rather

than the consideration regarding gender differences as it used to be in the past (Naff, 1994: 511), and the university lecturers have to use their knowledge and capabilities to work directly.

6.2.2 Self-Development

Being a university lecturer, one needs to develop his/her potential in order to expand the knowledge for teaching tasks and to increase his capabilities to have career progress as well. There are many aspects of self-development; for example, the participation in academic seminar, presentation of research outcome in academic conference, producing academic work such as doing research, writing textbook, inventing innovation derived from academic initiative and creation, etc (Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2005 : 19). The self-development of Thai university lecturers classified according to gender is shown in table 6.2.2.

Table 6.2.2 Mean of Self-Development Classified According to Gender

Self Development	M(n=200)	F(n=200)	T(n=400)	T-Value
In each year, you joined the academic conference in Thailand	3.89	3.74	3.80	1.710
In each year, you joined the academic conference in abroad	3.24	2.98	3.11	2.297***
In each year, you presented your research result in Thailand	3.77	3.63	3.70	1.620
In each year, you presented your research result in Abroad	3.05	2.47	2.76	2.669**
In each year, you published your text, book, article or other academic outcome	3.39	3.13	3.26	2.494***
Total	**3.46**	**3.19**	**3.33**	**3.232*** **

Note : 5 = Most 4 = Much 3 = Moderate 2 = Little 1 = Least

** = Statistically Significant Level at .05

*** = Statistically Significant Level at .01

The table shows that there are gender differences in self-development of university lecturers. Even though, on the whole, both gender's mean are moderate, but when considering separately, males' mean are higher than females. It means that males have more opportunities to develop their potentials more than females in every aspect.

When considering one by one, it is found that the participation in academic seminar organized in the country every year and the presentation of the research organized in the country every year of both males and females are not much different, but males have more opportunities in participating in seminars and presentation of academic work more than females.

The aspects that the differences are statistically significant are the participation in academic seminars organized abroad each year and the presentation of the research outcome organized abroad each year, which males have more opportunities than females in both cases. Especially the presentation of the research outcome abroad, females have less opportunity than males, and from additional interviews, more information reveals that as the cost of traveling to foreign countries is high, if the organization for which the lecturer works neither financially support nor have such policy, or it does not approve the journey, the lecturer is then unable to participate in these activities. So participants in such activities are small in number, then the mean are moderate. And another issue that there is a statistically significant difference at .05 is writing textbook, book, article, doing research or producing academic work in each year, of which males' and females' mean are moderate, but males have more opportunities than females.

6.2.3 Time Allocation for Work

As university lecturers have to do their tasks in different aspects to comply with the regulation about their responsibilities issued by the Higher Education Commission, which comprises teaching, doing research, and providing academic service to the society. Besides, they are also assigned by the organization to which they belong to do some jobs in addition to their routine work. So the lecturers' time allocation for work in each day is crucial, because these responsibilities are the supplements to academic work submitted for academic promotion, which means their

career progress. The time allocation for work of university lecturers can be considered in table 6.2.3

Table 6.2.3: Mean of the Lecturers' Time Allocation Classified According to Gender

Time Allocation	Male (n=200)	Female (n=200)	Total (n=400)	T-Value
You arrive early at office for preparing your teaching or research	3.42	3.56	3.49	-0.364
You take back your subject matter or your research to do at home	3.98	3.44	3.71	3.905***
You take back your student's exercises to correct at home	3.73	4.17	3.95	4.157***
You take your time after office hour in each day to do research or further academies	4.38	4.34	4.36	-0.659
You take your time in holiday to do additional works	4.16	4.08	4.12	-4.637
Total	**3.93**	**3.91**	**3.92**	**2.302**

Note : 5 = Most 4 = Much 3 = Moderate 2 = Little 1 = Least
*** = Statistically Significant Level at .01

The table shows that the differences of university lecturers' time allocation for work on the whole are not statistically significant. The mean between males and females are not much different, with males' only slightly more than females', therefore, males and females allocate their time rather similarly. Female lecturers allocate more time for work by arriving at the workplaces before time for the teaching preparation or for the ongoing research, they also take the students' papers to mark at home more than males do. Interviews provided some additional information that

lecturers go to work before time because they have to send children to school early in the morning, or the husbands send their wives to the workplaces before. But they also intend to use this available time to prepare themselves for their work because there is no other time better than this. And they take some of students' work to verify at home because they can not do it in time at workplaces, and as they also have their responsibilities at home, they therefore take the students' work at home to finish it after household tasks.

For other aspects of work, male lecturers can do it more than females. For example, they can take the work concerning their teaching tasks or research to continue at home, including being able to do the research or academic work at home after working time, and they can also do the research or academic work on weekends as well.

The interviews with female lecturers provided some more information that they tried to allocate the time available for work appropriately by taking the research, academic work to do at home for its continuation. But even doing like that, sometimes, they could not finish it as intended, or could do just a small part of it, because the had to take care of children and do the household tasks. So the time constraint obstructed them from doing as their wishes. That goes along with the concept about females' status that when working outside the home, they have two different statuses at the same time; performing the roles according to their positions at the workplaces, and taking the roles as housewives when staying at home (Oppong, and Abu, 1985: 15). As having to perform two roles simultaneously, females cannot allocate their time comfortably as it should be, which has become a factor causing females to have less career progress than males or to have it more slowly than males at the same ages (Naff, 1994: 512; Chanya Sethabut, 1998: 10).

6.2.4 Work Experience

Work experience is another factor able to affect the career progress. Being a university lecturer, apart from doing teaching tasks, research, and academic service for the society, administrative positions are also another kind of jobs that can be done at the same time. And the experience from administrative jobs in university can be submitted for being considered to have academic promotion as well (Office of the

Higher Education Commission, 2005: 10). If taking an administrative job, a lecture not only experiences this kind of work directly, he/she also helps develop the university in different aspects. The university administrative work can be divided into different categories as follows: 1) administrative jobs at department level, they include the following positions; Head of Department, Deputy Head of Department, Assistant to the Head of Department, the Secretary to the Department, and others positions related to the same department. 2) administrative jobs at faculty level, they include the Dean, Vice Dean, Assistant to the Dean, member of faculty committees, and others positions related to the same faculty. 3) administrative jobs at university level, they include the President, Associate President, Assistant to the President, member of university committees, Director, Deputy Director or Assistant to the Director of Institute, Center, School, and organizations equivalent to faculty. 4) administrative jobs of projects or special working units in faculties or in the university, they include President or Chairman of the Project, Center, Office, President of Sub-Department, President of curriculum and others working units established in faculties or universities. 5) special administrative jobs of faculties or university, they include member of committees, or sub-committees to issue examination papers, supervise the examination, examine the reception of handed over materials, arrange the faculty or university fair, or other positions created by faculty or university to do special tasks of the faculty or university.

Holding the administrative positions is also another indicator of career progress. The research has found lecturers with administrative work experiences as shown in table 6.2.4

Table 6.2.4 Mean of the Lecturers' Work Experience Classified According to Gender

Working Experience	Male (n=200)	Female (n=200)	Total (n=400)	T-Value
You ever acted in the department administration	4.14	4.10	4.12	0.801
You ever acted in the faculty administration	3.93	3.71	3.82	5.083***
You ever acted in the university administration	3.22	3.03	3.13	4.662***
You ever acted in the other special project or the other center in the faculty or the university administration	3.87	3.52	3.70	6.213***
You ever acted in the other committee in the faculty or the university administration	4.00	3.90	3.95	5.554***
Total	**3.83**	**3.65**	**3.74**	**5.321*** **

Note : 5 = Most 4 = Much 3 = Moderate 2 = Little 1 = Least

*** = Statistically Significant Level at .01

The table shows that on the whole, males have more experiences in work especially in administrative positions than women in nearly every position. Only in administrative positions at department level that the mean are not much different;. But in all other higher positions, there are significant differences between males and females in every position. That corresponds with various administrative concepts and research that males usually have more opportunities to take administrative positions than females, due to their physiques, social expectation, leadership such as self-confidence, bold decision-making, personal enthusiasm, and social acceptance. Males generally have these characteristics more than females (Brannon, 2005: 63-64). Moreover, a large number of females also think that administrative work is more suitable to males than to females (Sutheera Thompson and Methinee Pongvej, 1995: 54)

From additional observations and interviews, the data collected show that high-ranking administrative positions, that is, from the Head of Department up to university level are mostly occupied by males, while the lower-ranking positions which include Deputy Head of Department, Vice Dean, Vice President, Vice

Chairman of Project, and Secretary at different levels are occupied by females more than males, and their number has been increasing as well, because the number of female lecturers has increased more than before (Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2006: 58). Besides, it can be explained that females are increasingly interested in administrative positions. And as they have more education, so they are qualified and more capable for administrative positions that is why they have more chance to enter into these position, which bring them more acceptance and trust (Flicher, 2004: 33). That is relevant to the United Nations' principle that wants to encourage females to have higher education and take part in administration by increasing their proportion in these jobs (Kietchai Pongsapanich, 2002: 40). Therefore, there are more females lecturers holding administrative positions increasingly, even though their total number is still lower than males.

6.2.5 Support and Promotion from the Organization

Each university has a policy to develop its lecturers to have qualifications, to reach higher academic positions in accordance to lecturer status in higher education institutions, and to raise the education to a higher standard – to the universal standard as universities abroad. Each university consequently has an approach to promote and support lecturers through different ways, such as scholarships for pursuing further studies in master's or doctoral degree, either inside the country or abroad, funding lecturers to produce academic work, to go on inspection trip, to have training courses, to study some particular subjects in institutions either inside the country or abroad, and approving their short sabbaticals to enlarge their knowledge or to produce academic work (Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2006: 35). Besides, there are also funds to develop lecturers, which encourage them to continue their further studies for doctoral degree in the country. And the government also provides funds allocated from annual national budget in order to recruit individuals to continue their further studies abroad in response to the needs of each governmental organization. In addition, there is also a large quantity of scholarships offered by institutions abroad (Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2006: 48). So the support and promotion for further studies, doing research, or increasing the knowledge are also approaches that bring the lecturers' career progress as well. The

research has found that university lecturers are supported and promoted in different aspects as shown in table 6.2.5

Table 6.2.5 Mean of the Lecturers' Support and Promotion Classified According to Gender

Promotion and Support	Male (n=200)	Female (n=200)	Total (n=400)	T-Value
You ever got the financial supported to study abroad	3.09	3.02	3.05	4.442
You ever got the financial supported to study in Thailand	2.91	2.98	2.94	3.925
You ever got the financial supported to publish academic works	4.17	4.00	4.08	6.673**
You ever got the research fund for your own	4.68	4.19	4.44	6.884**
You ever got the research fund for group	4.75	4.23	4.49	6.704**
You ever got the scholar for short course training, visiting exchange both in Thailand and abroad	4.54	3.92	4.23	5.390**
You ever got the sabbatical leave permission	3.15	2.97	3.06	5.080**
Total	**3.90**	**3.62**	**3.76**	**6.661****

Note : 5 = Most 4 = Much 3 = Moderate 2 = Little 1 = Least
** = Statistically Significant Level at .05

From the table that shows the overall support and promotion, it is found that male lecturers have more support than female lecturers in nearly all aspects. For example, their scholarships to study abroad and permissions for sabbaticals to produce academic work or to increase their knowledge, the support for funds to produce academic work have high mean. The support to do research alone, to do group research, as well as their scholarships to have training courses or short-course studies have high mean. While the scholarships for studies in the country are the sole aspect that males' average value is lower than females.

The only one female lecturers' average value that is higher than males' is about scholarships to study in the country that is actually moderate, , while in other aspects they get less support than males, that includes scholarship to have short training courses or short studies, and scholarships for further studies abroad. The low average value is the permission to take leaves to produce academic work or to increase their knowledge.

When testing with t-value, it is found that the scholarships to study whether inside the country or abroad are not statistically significant between males and females. But in other aspects the differences are statistically significant at 0.05 It means that males have more support in all aspects than females, that includes financial support to produce academic work, to conduct research either alone or in group, scholarships for short training courses or further studies, and approvals to produce academic work or to increase the knowledge.

When considering one by one, the group research is the most supported of all for lecturers' progress, followed by the support to do research alone. Many universities have policies to encourage lecturers to conduct more research, especially the group research. And following aspects of support are scholarships for short training courses or studies, funds for academic work, permission for the leaves to do academic work or to gain more knowledge, scholarships for further studies abroad and scholarships for further studies in the country respectively.

6.3 The Analysis of the Correlation between Demographic Characteristics and Career Progress

The analysis of the correlations between demographic characteristics and university lecturers' career progress is an examination of independent variables and dependent variables that are influenced by many independent variables. The examination in accordance to hypotheses by means of ordinary multiple regression analysis is shown in table 6.3.1

Table 6.3.1 Mean, Standard Deviation, Maximum, Minimum of Variables Classified According to Gender (200 males, 200 females, total 400)

Variable Study	Mean	Standard Deviation	Maximum	Minimum
Age				
Male	49.5	7.40	61	30
Female	47.12	7.80	59	31
Total	48.27	7.72	61	30
Highest Educational level				
Male	1.89	0.78	2	0
Female	1.54	0.81	2	0
Total	1.72	0.79	2	0
Place of Highest Educational Degree				
Male	1.90	0.81	1	0
Female	1.81	0.74	1	0
Total	1.86	0.78	1	0
Marital Status				
Male	1.30	0.44	1	0
Female	0.88	0.53	1	0
Total	1.09	0.48	1	0
Number of Children				
Male	2.57	1.82	4	0
Female	2.91	1.73	4	0
Total	2.74	1.78	4	0
Gender Identities				
Male	4.68	0.42	5	0
Female	4.40	0.56	5	0
Total	4.54	0.49	5	0
Gender Attitude				
Male	4.73	0.24	5	0
Female	4.53	0.40	5	0
Total	4.63	0.32	5	0
Household Tasks				
Male	3.33	0.17	5	0
Female	4.33	0.11	5	0
Total	3.83	0.14	5	0
Working in Organization				
Male	4.44	0.40	5	0
Female	4.19	0.52	5	0
Total	4.32	0.46	5	0
Objective Career Progress (Time taken for Position)				
Male	6.72	1.83	11	5
Female	8.19	1.57	18	10
Total	7.46	1.70	18	5

Table 6.3.1 (Continued)

Variable Study	Mean	Standard Deviation	Maximum	Minimum
Objective Career Progress (Percentage of Income)				
Male	2.99	19	1	2.99
Female	2.94	19	1	2.94
Total	2.97	19	1	2.97
Subjective Career Progress				
Male	0.64	5	0	0.64
Female	0.49	5	0	0.49
Total	0.57	5	0	0.57

From the table that shows mean of variables in the studies on correlations between demographic characteristics and career progress, it is found that among all equal numbers of male and female samples, the oldest is 61 years and the youngest 30 years, with an average age of 48 years. The highest education level of them have master's degrees. Most of the samples finished their studies abroad, and they are married with average number of 2 children.

Regarding the gender identities, it is found that males' mean value is higher than females' and the overall mean value is 4.54, and for gender attitudes, males' mean value is higher than females' as well, and the overall mean value is 4.63, while for the household task responsibilities, females' mean value is higher than males', and the overall mean value is 3.83

Concerning the occupational responsibilities, males' mean value is higher than females', and the overall mean value is 4.32

For the objective career progress in terms of position promotion, females use more time than males and the overall mean value is 7 years; in the aspect of income promotion, females use more time than males and the overall mean value is 6 years, for the subjective career progress, they think that the university lecturer career provides much opportunity of progress.

The analysis of correlations between independent variables and dependent variables use the ordinary multiple regression analysis as the technique for the study. And variables must not be of multicollinearity type that might affect the

error of the regression coefficients, this method encodes the variables of the study as follows:

1. Sex (SEX)
2. Age (AGE)
3. Highest Degree of Education (ED)
4. Place of Highest Degree of Education (PED)
5. Marital Status (MS)
6. Numbers of Children (CH)
7. Gender Identity (GI)
8. Gender Attitude (GA)
9. Household Tasks (HT)
10. Occupation (OC)
    - Routine Working (Oc 1)
    - Self-development (Oc 2)
    - Time Allocation (Oc 3)
    - Work Experience (Oc 4)
    - Promotion (Oc 5)

The encoding of all variables and dummy variables is for the calculation of the correlation coefficient of each variable as shown in table 6.3.2

Table 6.3.2 The Correlation of the Studied Variables

Variable	SEX	AGE	ED	PED	MS	CH	GA	HI	Oc1	Oc2	Oc3	Oc4
AGE	0.158*											
ED	-0.321*	0.348*										
PED	-0.017**	-0.164*	0.207**									
MS	0.275**	-0.033*	0.026	0.034								
CH	0.374**	0.028*	-0.042	0.103	0.110**							
GA	0.187*	0.467*	0.277*	0.231*	-0.136	0.222						
HT	0.047*	0.365*	0.144*	0.217*	0.164*	0.304*	0.042*					
Oc1	0.174**	0.238*	0.345*	0.198*	0.201*	-0.198**	0.040*	0.035*				
Oc2	0.211*	0.224*	0.199*	-0.191*	0.203*	0.229*	-0.110**	0.505**	0.507**			
Oc3	0.213*	0.197*	0.175*	-0.186*	-0.198*	0.158*	0.058**	0.343**	0.302**	0.346**		
Oc4	0.212*	0.192*	0.208*	0.203*	-0.194*	0.205*	0.192	0.204**	0.228**	0.107*	0.108*	
Oc5	0.124*	0.180*	0.101*	0.115*	0.110*	0.213*	0.178	0.192	0.209	0.246	0.136	0.123*

Note : * = Statistically Significant Level at 0.10

** = Statistically Significant Level at 0.05

*** = Statistically Significant Level at 0.01

According to the table of the correlation of the variables, it is found that gender has positive correlation with age, gender identity, gender attitude, household tasks, self-development, time allocation, work experience, and promotion with statistical significance at 0.01, and also has positive correlation with occupation with level of statistical significance at 0.05. Gender has negative correlation with level of education with statistical significance at 0.10, while having positive correlation with marital status, numbers of children with statistical significance at 0.05, and gender has negative correlation with place of highest degree of education, with the statistical significance at 0.05. The research result is similar to previous research that studied on gender differences and found that gender was an important factor that affected the career progress (Ananchai Kongchan, 2000: 77; Silverman, 2004: 9).

Age is another variable that has positive correlations with the highest degree of education, numbers of children, gender identity, household tasks, occupation, self-development, time allocation, work experience, and promotion with statistical significance at 0.10. On the other hand, age has negative correlations with place of highest degree of education and marital status with statistical significance at 0.01 as well. The research outcome corresponds to research on age and found that it was related to career progress, and that those with career success had to work for a certain time to get aged, learned and experienced appropriately. So age of the worker is related to career progress (Naff, 1994: 510).

The highest degree of education has positive correlation with gender attitude, household tasks, occupation, self-development, time allocation, work experience, and promotion with statistical significance at 0.10. Besides, it also has positive correlation with place of highest degree of education, with the statistical significance at 0.05. The research outcome is similar to some research which found that the degree of education was related to gender attitude, especially females with high education who were likely to be accepted in working outside the home more than those finishing with moderate or low education (Umaporn Pattaravanich, 1998: 33; Ackah, 2002: 137; Silverman, 2004: 92), and that those who had high education were able to develop themselves academically and had more likelihood to be entrusted to jobs that needed knowledge which enhanced their full self-development, so they were

likely to have more progress than those with lower education (Ananchai Kongchan, 2000: 77; Miles, 2000: 19).

Place of highest degree of education is another variable positively related to gender identity, gender attitude, household tasks, routine working, work experience and promotion, with the statistical significance at 0.10. On the other hand, it has negative correlations with self-development and time allocation, with the statistical significance at 0.10. The research outcome is similar to some studies on place of education which found that it was related to career progress, the acceptance in society, as well as to certain personal qualifications or special abilities, such as foreign language skill, personal experience, attitude toward work. Especially, those who finished their studies abroad were generally more proficient in foreign language skills than those finishing their studies from inside the country. Furthermore, the different experience and attitude made them more confident in themselves, enthusiast, and bolder in making decision, which resulted in their progress as well (Umaporn Pattaravanich, 1998: 37; Chanya Sethabut, 1998: 42; Ananchai Kongchan, 2000: 79).

Marital status is another variable positively related to gender identity, household tasks, occupation, self-development, and promotion with statistical significance at 0.10. On the other hand it is negatively related to time allocation and work experience with statistical significance at 0.10, but positively related to numbers of children with statistical significance at 0.05. The study outcome is consistent with other studies related to marital status that it affected the work and career progress, and in particular the occupation and self-development that affects career progress. Actually, females had less support for progress or the progress was postponed to later time due to their household tasks and families at the same time as the occupational tasks (Chatsuman Kabilsingha, 1992 : 52; Bundhit Pangniran, 1996: 94; Hursch, 1997: 288). Being married and having children has an effect on women's outside-the-home work more than on single women and married women who had no children. Because married women who have children usually spend most to the time for childrearing, which is their direct responsibility plus the household tasks and looking after the families so they are likely to have less progress than males (Napaporn Havanon, 1978: 56; Dianphen Vornpian, 1988: 42)

Number of children is another factor positively related to gender identity, household tasks, self-development, time allocation, work experience and promotion with statistical significance at 0.10, but it is negatively related to routine working with statistical significance at 0.05. That corresponds with some research studies that showed numbers of children were related to the work outside the home, especially married women having children had to spend part of their time looking after children. If they had many children, they had less time for self-development. If having less children or being childless, they had more time for self-development, which resulted in their career progress as well (Chanya Sethabut, 1998, 44; Nieva, 1981: 87; Priola, 2004: 423).

And gender identity has positive correlation with self-development, work experience, and promotion with statistical significance at 0.10. On the other hand, it has negative correlation with gender attitude with statistical significance at 0.10, and has positive correlation with routine work and time allocation with statistical significance at 0.05. That is similar to some research studies that the self-development enhanced the likelihood to have work experience and promotion, so it can affect the career progress (Lindsey, 1994: 73; Staggenburg, 1998: 82).

Gender attitude is another factor affecting the work. Since the differences in attitudes exist between males and females, so they influence the differences in career progress. The research has found that gender attitude has positive correlation to household tasks and routine work with statistical significance at 0.10, and has positive correlation with time allocation with statistical significance at 0.05. Meanwhile, it has negative correlation with self-development, with the statistical significance at 0.05. That is similar to findings of some research on gender attitude that males and females were different in time allocation time self-development, which resulted in their differences in career progress (Langlberg, 2003:79; Lindsey, 1994: 88).

Household tasks are another factor influencing the women's outside-the-home work. They make the women have two kinds of work at the same time. The research has found that household tasks are positively related to routine work with statistical significance at 0.10, and positively related to self-development, time allocation, and work experience with the statistical significance at 0.05. Similarly,

some research found that household tasks are another duty that females had to do by themselves, which took their time and affected their routine work, self-development, time allocation, and work experience which diminished and affected the career progress that might be put off or sometimes they were even deprived from good opportunity in life (Nieva, 1981: 38; Priola, 2004: 428).

Routine work is another factor related directly to the progress of the ongoing career. It is positively related to self-development, time allocation, and work experience with statistical significance at 0.05. Similarly, some research studies found that routine work was the responsibility everyone had to do because it affected career progress, and they had to develop themselves, allocated their time properly, and to accumulate work experience to be personal expertise, which could enhance the progress in the routine work (Nieva, 1981: 39; Okpara, 2005: 188).

Self-development is another factor affecting the career progress. The research has found that it is positively related to work experience with statistical significance at 0.10, and positively related to time allocation for work with statistical significance at 0.05. Similarly, some research found that self-development was an approach to enhance the personnel's potentiality, their work experience, the ability to allocate their time properly, which had an effect on their career progress as well (Okpara, 2005: 189; Oshagbemi, 2000: 335).

Time allocation is another variable affecting the career progress. The research has found that it is positively related to work experience with statistical significance at 0.10. Similarly, some research found that anyone who could allocate the time for work, personal life and family properly, that person was successful in managing the time and able to work effectively, and had different experiences from work, which enabled that person the achievement in career (Okpara, 2005: 189; Steers, 1979: 81).

Work experience is also another factor related to career progress. It is positively related to promotion with statistical significance at 0.10. Similarly, some research found that work experience, whether owing to doing some particular work for long time, or experiences of different jobs, made them experts or specialists in different aspects. Such properties became a component that the organization used to

promote them to the progress more than the inexperienced or those with less experience (Vijayakumar, 2004: 85; Kelly, 1991: 408; Knowles, 1974: 241).

6.4 The Analysis of Gender Differences and the Objective Career Progress

6.4.1 Objective Career Progress in Terms of Position Promotion

The analysis of objective career progress in terms of position promotion by using the ordinary multiple regression analysis is divided into 5 levels:

1. The position promotion from level 6 to level 7
2. The position promotion from level 7 to level 8
3. The position promotion from level 8 to level 9
4. The position promotion from level 9 to level 10
5. The position promotion from level 10 to level 11

The analysis is shown in table 6.4.1

Table 6.4.1 Gender Differences and Position Promotion at Each Level

Variable	The Result of Regression Coefficient				
	Level 6 - 7	**Level 7 - 8**	**Level 8 - 9**	**Level 9 - 10**	**Level 10 - 11**
Demographic characteristics					
Gender	0.003*	0.007*	0.005***	0.012**	0.009**
Age	0.004*	0.021*	0.026*	0.050**	0.103***
Highest Educational Level	-0.717*	-0.198*	-0.037*	-0.024**	-0.026*
Place of Highest Educational degree	0.122	0.030	0.045	0.249*	0.006**
Marital Status	-0.222*	0.285*	-0.797	0.105	0.112
Number of Children	0.311	0.309*	0.291*	0.154	0.110
Gender Identities	0.096***	0.019**	0.126*	0.158**	0.119*
Gender Attitude	0.023*	0.028**	0.045**	0.014***	0.031*
Household Tasks	0.151***	0.177**	0.098*	0.145*	0.134*
Working in Organization					
Routine Working	-0.007	0.002	-0.106	-0.014	0.032
Self Development	0.009**	0.001**	0.003**	0.002**	0.008**
Time Allocation	-0.104***	-0.013	0.168**	0.038*	0.194
Work Experience	-0.003	-0.005***	-0.108***	-0.010	-0.107
Promotion	0.072	0.004	-0.006**	-0.014***	0.110

Table 6.4.1 (Continued)

Variable	The Result of Regression Coefficient				
	Level 6 - 7	**Level 7 - 8**	**Level 8 - 9**	**Level 9 - 10**	**Level 10 - 11**
Constant	4.112***	1.271*	1.947*	1.789*	-6.780**
R^2	0.088	0.107	0.152	0.308	0.245
SEE	2.221	2.183	2.677	2.588	2.576
F	2.183	1.867	1.473	1.011	1.113
Sig of F	0.003	0.021	0.114	0.105	0.106
N	15	92	164	81	48

Note : * = Statistically Significant Level at 0.10
** = Statistically Significant Level at 0.05
*** = Statistically Significant Level at 0.01

The table shows the result of the analysis of objective career progress classified according to position promotion at each level as follow:

1. From level 6 to level 7. When considering the variables influencing the level promotion from demographic characteristic aspect, it is found that gender and age are positive factors with statistical significance at 0.10, the highest degree of education and marital status are negative factors with statistical significance at 0.10. That is similar to the findings of some research that there are differences in career progress; males are likely to be successful more than females (Ananchai Kongchan, 2000: 78). Age is another important variable. The older who had worked for a long time was usually given more chance to have progress more than the younger ones who had worked for short time (Kim, 1955: 35). The highest degree of education is also related to the progress, because the work is assigned in relevance to educational qualifications. Those with higher degree of education have more chance to achieve the progress than those with lower degree of education. And the singles are usually

more able to devote their time for work fully than married people (Gender and Development Institute, 1997: 47)

When considering from gender identity aspect, the statistical significant is 0.01, which is similar to some research result that gender differences were important factor eligible to enhance career progress (Gender Equity Committee, 2001: 3).

From gender attitude aspect, the statistical significance is 0.10. This variable is still influential in career progress because there is still the belief in gender differences that some types of work are suitable for only a particular gender, which gives more opportunities to males (Dann, 1995: 12).

When considering from household task aspect, the statistical significance is 0.01, showing that it still affects the career progress, especially females who are responsible to household tasks, so they have to allocate their time for this duty as well (Bundhit Pangniran, 1996: 51). Therefore, they cannot take their professional responsibilities fully.

In the occupation aspect, it is found that the self-development is an important factor affecting the career progress with statistical significant at 0.05. Since a university lecturer has to develop the knowledge entity, follows the progress in academic circle to improve his/her own ability, so this factor can result in the lecturer's progress. In addition, the time allocation has the statistical significance at 0.01, because the tasks of university lecturers are various, the proper time allocation as required and suitable for work is essential. When the period for the position promotion arrives and if a lecturer does not have any academic work, he/she is not able to submit for the position promotion as a consequence (Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2006: 7).

2. From level 7 to level 8. When considering the variables influencing the progress in level promotion the aspect of demographic characteristics, it is found that genders, age and marital status are positive factors with statistical significance at 0.10. That corresponds to some research showing that gender, age, and marital status were related to career progress. Including being married and having children that have effect on progress in work; especially during the period when the children are still young, they need close care. As females have to spend a lot of time with their

children, their progress in work is therefore different from males' due to the increase of time for children (Chanya Sethabut, 1998: 32; House, 2001: 42; Kloot, 2004: 479).

When considering from gender identity aspect, it is a positive factor with statistical significance at 0.05, similar to the findings of some research that the personalities were gender outstanding characteristics which varied and affected the differences in career progress (Leach, 2000: 37; Langlberg, 2003: 42; Giorgi, 2004: 310)

In the aspect of gender attitude, it is found that the statistical significance is 0.05, meaning it has an effect on career progress. Since the level 7-8 is the level of expert, so the gender attitude concerns the suitability to the occupation of the position in terms of character, acceptance, reliability, trust. So gender is another factor affecting the career progress (Lindsey, 1994: 125; Miller, 1999: 220).

When considering from the work on household tasks, the statistical significance is 0.05. This variable is still influential in career progress because females have to take care of household tasks and members of the families, together with the outside-the-home work, so this creates the differences in career progress (Nabi, 2001: 459; Chanya Sethabut, 1998: 38).

For the occupation, it is found that the promotion has the statistical significance at 0.10; the self-development has the statistical significance at 0.05, and the work experience has the level of the statistical significance at 0.01. It is similar to some research that factors influencing progress in work were promotion from the organization, self-development to reach the qualification as required, and experience. All these are supplementary components that enhanced the better work outcome which affected the career progress (Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2006: 54; Okpara, 2005: 181).

3. From level 8 to level 9. Variables affecting the progress in this level promotion when considering from demographic characteristics, it is found that gender has level of statistical significance at 0.01; age and number of children are positive factors with the level of statistical significance at 0.10; while the highest degree of education is a negative factor with statistical significance at 0.10. That corresponds to the outcomes of some research showing that gender, age, and highest degree of

education are factors affecting directly the career progress (Silverman, 2004: 32; Priola, 2004: 41)

Gender identity, the level of statistical significance is 0.10, similar to the research outcome revealing that males achieving in career progress normally possess the personalities related to such success. Particularly level 8-9 in administration are high-ranking positions, the holders must have self-confidence, enthusiasm in work, good correlation as important factors (Wood, 2001: 154). In regard to females, the personalities influencing the progress are patience in pursuing the work, meticulousness, and the commitment to work as important factors (Wood, 2001: 157).

Gender attitude, it is found that the level of statistical significance is 0.05, showing that there are still differences between males and females, because the number of Thai civil servant at administrative level or higher are males more than females (Achara Suwapan, 1985: 58; Thipawadee Meksawan, 1994: 34; Office of the Civil Service Commission, 2002: 47; Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2006: 67)

As for household task responsibility, it is found that the level of statistical significance is 0.10. The household tasks are still females' responsibilities, thus they affect their career progress, resulting in their slow progress than males at the same ages (The Research Institute of Gender Role and Development , 1999: 52).

When considering from occupation, the variables related to the work in this aspect are self-development and time allocation that are positive factors with level of statistical significance at 0.05, while the promotion from the organization and work experience are negative factors with the levels of statistical significance at 0.05 and 0.01 respectively. That is similar to the research result showing that the advance from level 8 to level 9 which is the level of expert in the field of work, anyone entering this level must have developed himself/herself, produced academic work to submit for a higher position, and allocated the time to work in each aspect suitably according to the responsibilities. Moreover, other related factors – the promotion and work experience – helped to achieve the career progress (Oshagbemi, 2000: 333).

4. From level 9 to 10. The variables influencing the progress in level promotion when considering from demographic characteristics are gender and age, which are positive factor with level of statistical significance at 0.05, the place of highest degree of education has statistical significance at 0.05, which is similar to the

research that the holders of position 9 – 10 are experts in academic line or high-ranking administrators in administrative line. Gender and age affect the progress at this level, because those who work for a long time gain directly a lot of knowledge and expertise in the work in their responsibility (Ananchai Kongchan, 1998: 68; Tipawadee Meksawan, 1994: 35) In addition, they have high education, or master's or doctoral degree, and most of them finished their studies from abroad so they have foreign language skill and produce clearly the academic work according to their qualifications for holding the positions as well (Chanya Sethabut, 1998: 72)

Gender identity, the level of statistical significance is 0.05, similar to the research that those who hold the positions level 9 – 10 are expert and high-ranking administrators. They must have self-confident, good emotional control, patience in following work, and meticulous quality, as well as the enthusiasm, commitment to work and reconciliation (Flicher, 2004: 59)

In regard to gender attitude, the level of statistical significance is 0.01, meaning there are still gender differences due to the attitude that high-ranking jobs or administrative positions suit males more than females, but in other levels there are not much difference because the number of holders level 9, or the level of Associate Professor, the numbers of both genders are close. And in some departments, there are females more than males, such as in the disciplines of the social sciences and humanities (Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2006: 49)

Considering from household tasks, the level of statistical significance is 0.10, and the gender difference in this aspect still exists, because females have to take care of the household tasks as well as looking after members of the families. Despite holding high-ranking positions or holding the administrative positions of organizations, females are still responsible for household tasks simultaneously (Rapeepan Panthuratana, 2000: 70)

Regarding the occupation, it is found that self-development and the time allocation are positive factors with levels of statistical significance at 0.05 and 0.10, while the promotion is negative factor with level of statistical significance at 0.01. That is similar to the research result that to rise to a higher position, one has to consider his/her qualifications as required and must be able to manage the time for work because there are many responsibilities. In addition, the support is also another

variable related to career progress, especially in order to step to administrative positions, if the organization and colleagues support someone, he/she will be able to rise to the position as well (Amara Pongsapich, 2005: 84; Glover, 2005: 89)

5. From level 10 to level 11. The variables affecting the progress in level promotion when considering from demographic characteristics, it is found that gender and place of highest degree of education are positive factors with level of statistical significance at 0.05, while the highest degree of education is negative factor with level of statistical significance at 0.01. It is similar to some research that those promoted to higher positions were mostly males, finishing their studies from abroad, and mostly aging over than 50, because they must have worked for a long time, with a lot work experience to eligible to be promoted to these positions (Ananchai Kongchan, 2000: 72; Chanya Sethabut, 1998: 64).

Gender identity, it is found that the level of statistical significance is 0.10, which is relevant to the research that for high-ranking positions or level 10 and level 11, which are the Professorship in academic line and high-ranking administrator in the administrative line, the common characteristics of holders are that they are self-confident, enthusiast in work, patient, meticulous which enable them to be successful in the jobs (Priola, 2004: 427; Silverman, 2004: 79).

Considering gender attitude, the level of statistical significance is 0.10, showing that it is still strongly related to the career progress, because the holders of positions level 10 -11 are mostly males in a much larger proportion than females (Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2006:77).

For household tasks, the level of statistical significance is 0.10, meaning that this type of variables is still related to career progress because females are still responsible to housework. Even though they have the outside-the-home work and despite holding high-ranking position jobs, they are still loaded with household tasks at the same time (Umaporn Pattaravanich, 1998: 54).

In regard to the occupation practice, the variables related to this issue is self-development with level of statistical significant at 0.05, similar to some research that the ones who are likely to rise to the high-ranking positions, especially in academic line, must have a continual self-development (National Institute of the Administration Development, 1998: 72; Roloff, 2001: 23), because to enter into an

academic position at the level of Professor, one must have academic product originated from creation, invention, research that create a new knowledge entity and it is a discovery that is useful to academic circle (Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2006: 16). Most importantly, all the mentioned work must originate from the lecturer himself/herself.

6.4.2 The Objective Career Progress in Terms of the Income Promotion

The analysis of gender differences and the objective career progress in terms of the promotion of income is shown in table 6.4.2.

Table 6.4.2 Gender Differences and Income Promotion

Variable	The Result of Regression Coefficient
Demographic Characteristics	
Gender	0.041**
Age	0.170***
Highest Education Level	0.459
Place of Highest Educational Degree	-0.260
Marital Status	0.413*
Number of Children	0.164
Gender Identities	0.045**
Gender Attitude	-0.235*
Household Tasks	0.023***
Working in Organization	
Routine Working	-0.057
Self Development	0.003
Time Allocation	0.041***
Work Experience	-0.005
Promotion	0.001**
Constant	-4.278***
R^2	0.283
SEE	2.445
F	11.545
Sig of F	0.000
N	400

Note : * = Statistically Significant Level at 0.10
** = Statistically Significant Level at 0.05
*** = Statistically Significant Level at 0.01

From the table demonstrating the objective career progress in the aspect of income promotion, it is found that the result from the analysis of variables affecting the raise of income by using the regression coefficient are as follows:

Considering from the demographic characteristics, it is found that marital status, gender, and age have level of statistical significance at 0.10, 0.05 and 0.01 respectively, which is similar to some research results showing that marital status affects the work, especially, married women who have to allocate a part of their time for looking after the families, thus less time for work. Sometimes they have to refuse some work in order to have time for the families, or postpone producing academic work which has an effect their slow career progress. So their incomes are raised more slowly than males' at the same ages (Ananchai kongchan, 2000: 77; Umaporn Pattaravanich, 1998: 36). Genders have an effect on the income raise, especially at the beginning of work during which females have more chance to be promoted to higher level of salary more than males, because females devote themselves fully both to their own work and special assignment, so they are considered well-deserved more than males the special promotion, i.e. 2-step-salary promotion during their superiors' annual consideration of the work merit (Sutheera Thompson and Methinee Pongvej, 1995: 44; Chanya Sethabut, 1998: 55).

Moreover, those entering into academic position from lectureship to Assistant Professorship in all disciplines are females in much larger number than males (Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2000: 55). It is because the unmarried females have more time for work than the married ones. Once getting married, their progress becomes slower, and the special promotion decreases because they have less time for work. Another influential factor is age; the old aged persons have more income promotion than the young ones because the salary increase at each step is different from level to level depending the different of income level. And the jobs that need more skills and expertise require the experienced ones than the young

inexperienced, then the age is another variable affecting different income promotion (Naff, 1994: 510; Bailyn, 2003: 18; Case Western Reserve University, 2004, 68)

Considering from gender identity, the level of statistical significance is 0.05, prominent characteristics of each gender help to create self-development, commitment to work, and support to achieve the goal effectively, which bring directly the career progress (Dann, 1995: 15; House, 2001: 88).

At the gender attitude, it is found that the level of statistical significance is 0.01, it is a negative factor, which is consistent with some research that gender attitude still influences the opinion about the work outside the home is males'; the high-ranking positions, especially the administrative ones, are more suitable to males. So females are given less opportunity than males, and the current work is also affected by the same attitude (Sutheera Thompson and Methinee Pongvej, 1995: 43).

In term of household tasks, it is found that the level of statistical significance still influences the career progress, especially females who are responsible for household task as well, so that they can do less their professional work, which results in the annual income promotion (Bundhit Pangniran, 1996: 58).

When considering from the occupation, it is found that the self-development and promotion have level of statistical significance at 0.05; the time allocation has the level of statistical significance at 0.01, which correspond to some research that the one who is successful in the career must have a continual self-development, and is promoted by the organization that allow him/her to use fully the knowledge and competence to work. And the organization must have regulation that enhances the self-development and the ability to manage properly the time for work, which helps individuals to work systematically (Chanya Sethabut, 1998: 65; Ananchai Kongchan, 1998: 69).

In addition, a university lecturer has an opportunity to have the salary raised directly by his/her self-development by producing academic work in the form of book, textbook, research, academic article, etc. in order to submit for academic promotion which results in the raise of income in accordance with the level of the new position. That means the higher level of new salary and compensation money for the academic position at the same time (Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2000: 17). Furthermore, the support from the organization, such as funds for

conducting research, producing textbooks and academic papers are also factors helping lecturers to have more progress (National Institute of Administration Development, 1998: 77). If the lecturers can manage their time properly for work, and they are allowed by their organization to take sabbaticals to gain more academic progress, these are the promotion for their progress as well.

6.5 The Analysis of Gender Differences and Subjective Career Progress

The result of this topic is shown in table 6.5.1

Table 6.5.1 Gender Differences and Subjective Career Progress

Variable	The Result of Regression Coefficient
Demographic Characteristics	
Gender	0.005**
Age	0.041***
Highest Education Level	0.236*
Place of Highest Educational Level	0.127*
Marital Status	0.018***
Number of Children	0.316*
Gender Identities	0.094*
Gender Attitude	0.027*
Household Tasks	-0.004*
Working in Organization	
Routine Working	-0.001
Self Development	0.026**
Time Allocation	0.019
Work Experience	0.028*
Promotion	0.007**
Constant	2.264*
R^2	0.167
SEE	1.633
F	5.124
Sig of F	0.000
N	400

Note : * = Statistically Significant Level at 0.10
** = Statistically Significant Level at 0.05
*** = Statistically Significant Level at 0.01

According to the table demonstrating the objective career progress, the variables influencing the career progress are as follows:

In regard to demographic characteristics, the influential variables are the highest degree of education, place of highest degree of education, being married and having children, with level of statistical significance at 0.01; age and being childless married have level of statistical significance at 0.05; age and marital status have level of statistical significance at 0.01, which is similar to some research that the highly educated individuals, namely master's degree and doctoral degree, together with graduating from abroad are very interested to be university lecturers, because they find that this career uses directly their knowledge, having freedom in work, and having more opportunities to have progress more than working in other kinds of civil service (National Institute of Development Administration, 1998: 70; Ananchai Kongchan, 1998: 78).

Moreover, gender, age and marital status also affect the career progress; for example, males hold high-ranking positions more than females do; aged people, who naturally work for a long time, are likely to progress and be expert more than the younger ones, the singles and the married without children who can devote their time for work fully have more chance in career progress more than the married ones (Chanya Sethabut, 1998: 56; Bailyn, 2003: 17; Kloot, 2004: 478), because they do not have or have less responsibility in the families than the married ones who have children.

Considering the gender identity, the statistical significance is 0.10 which is similar to some research that the prominent males' traits such as enthusiasm in work for career progress, the ability of emotional control, self-confidence, and bold decision-making enable them to be successful in work. On the other hand, the females' prominent traits are patience in following the work, the commitment to work, and their meticulousness also enhance females to have career progress (Kloot, 2004: 480).

Considering from gender attitude, the level of statistical significance is 0.05, demonstrating the gender differences. Males are likely to have more progress than females. For example, the holders of high-ranking administrative positions, including the high-ranking academic positions or the Professorship and Professorship level 11 are males more than females at the proportion of 9:1 (Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2006: 53). Nevertheless, females are more satisfied with the current positions and with the income received more than males do, because they do not like to change work and prefer to do routine work more than special jobs or the tasks different from the familiar ones. As a result, females like to work as university lecturers because they think that there is more progress than in other careers as well as more freedom in addition to being able to use their knowledge more than in other occupations as well. Therefore, they are satisfied and do not think to change the jobs (National Institute of Development Administration, 1998: 62).

When considering from the household task perspective, the statistical significance is 0.10. It is a negative factor that has an effect on females' outside-the-home work because they have two kinds of responsibilities to do at the same time. If giving more time to household tasks and childcare, especially when children are very young, they have less time for occupational tasks, thus less opportunity in work or slow progress or miss the chance to be promoted for a certain time (Umaporn Pattaravanich, 1998: 53; Chanya Sethabut, 1998: 42).

When considering from the occupation perspective, the variables affecting the career progress are self-development and support with statistical significance at 0.05, and the work experience has the statistical significance at 0.10. That is similar to some research that the career progress is the consequence of self-development. As a university lecturer uses directly his/her knowledge and has opportunities to develop himself/herself academically and this academic work partly enhances his/her progress as being able to be used as reason to be academically promoted (Office of the Higher Education Commission, 1999: 16). In addition, if being supported from the organization, an individual is likely to have more progress, and if gaining different experiences in the organization, the lecturer feels as the advancement in work as well. Because a lecturer is appointed to an academic position or administrative position according to work path, he/she is subsequently promoted to a significant level of progress.

6.6 Recommendations and Opinions from Open-Ended Questionnaire

Concerning the occupation responsibilities, female samples suggested that at present, males and females have equal opportunity for progress. In work regulation, there exists no rule concerning gender restriction. But in practice, there are still some bias values or attitudes toward females, thus preventing females from having equal opportunities as male. At present and in the past, high-ranking administrators are mostly males, so the nominations of their deputies or assistants are usually for males. On one hand, it is for the comfortable co-working and preventing the undesirable incidents between genders. On the other hand, males still think that females are not as suitable to these positions as themselves, especially the administrative ones. However, the academic positions depend on personal capabilities, any male or female can bring directly himself/herself the career progress. At the beginning of the lecturer career, females are generally assigned to other aspects to responsibilities, such as member of committee for special tasks, secretary of committees, coordinator of special projects of faculty or university. These tasks deal with papers work, contact with incoming outsiders and going contact people outside, drawing compensation money. These jobs are full-time work. Sometimes such kind of work that needs the preparation in advance can take the time continually all semester or all academic year. The administrators usually assign such tasks that need meticulousness and permanent stay at the workplace to females owing to their attitudes that the tasks suit females. Hence the occupied females have less time to develop their potentialities. Naturally, many of them are worried because such different responsibilities at the same time make them unable to manage their time properly. As a result, these worries have negative effect on females' personalities, self-confidence, the relationships with colleagues, and the opportunities to be promoted by the organization as well.

6.7 Result of the Study on the Career Progress of Professors Level 11

The data in this section gathered from interviews with 30 Professors level 11, who represented 10 persons for each groups of disciplines of which there were five males and females from each gender. The data are as follows:

6.7.1 Individual Causes of factors of career progress. The highest academic position is a royal grant by His Majesty the King to Professorship level 11, that is the greatest honor in the teaching life of a university lecturer. To deserve this highest position, there are causes or factors as follows:

6.7.1.1 Personal factors. They comprise the lecturer's expectation in life, commitment or determination to achieve the success, and awareness of duty and responsibility. They are essential factors that drive a lecturer to the highest academic position, the Professorship level 11. Each academic position is an indictor of career progress because it is related directly to the promotion of salary level. For example, in the salary structure, the lectureship reaches the highest position at level 7, the highest Assistant Professorship is level 8, the highest Associate Professorship is level 9, the highest Professorship is level 10 – but a Professor is able to submit academic work for level 11. An important task of a university lecturer is to create a new entity of knowledge to academic circle, to be academic leader in different fields, so that the society can benefit the discovery, invention, and research of university lecturers for uses or for further development. A lecturer always hopes to be a learned and expert in his/her field, to initiate or create a new field of knowledge to academic society, and to be rewarded by his/her own creation. The reward can possibly be other things than income or money, but some spiritual value like the pride of having fully done something beneficial to the university and the country worth his/her knowledge and capability.

The determination and commitment to achieve the success. A university lecturer must develop himself/herself in order to have a profound knowledge of the subject to which he/she belongs. The lecturer must have commitment in searching continually for knowledge without feeling discouraged when the success is not yet in sight. For example, to conduct an experiment or research which needs time and continual work, the lecturer must be really determined and commit himself/herself to

the job despite facing many obstacles or difficulties since the beginning –the proposal to conduct research, research undertaking, data collection, conclusion, research presentation. He/she must know how to manage his/her time properly for routine work, research, household tasks, as well as his/her own healthcare in order to be fully ready and suitable to the job. If facing problems, he/she must be confident and able to control himself/herself in finding a solution. Conducting research or an experiment means the confrontation with problems that needs a thorough study to find their causes and means for the solution. The ideas conceived must be systematically organized and subsequently used to solve the problems. Each problem is a useful experience to be used in the future, or in teaching, advising, suggesting directly students about conducting research. That is useful to both the lecturer himself/herself and students. Actually, a university lecturer must really like academic work, be fond of reading, as well as writing textbook, and doing research with pleasure and desire for knowledge. He/she must create the motivation in himself/herself for doing academic work in order to have the determination and commitment to create new body of knowledge and have a thirst for subsequent success in academic work.

The awareness of duty and responsibility. When an individual is employed a university lecturer, he/she must be clearly conscious of his/her duty and responsibility that the way ahead is academic one that involves the utmost creation and searching for knowledge, not a competition to administrative posts which will weaken the academic work. A lecturer must be aware of this academic path rather than heading to the administrative one. The academic work, the direct responsibility of a university lecturer, is teaching, undertaking research, and academic service to the society. If a university lecturer neither performs his/her academic tasks nor improve their knowledge not only he/she does not advance in his/her career, but the new body of knowledge that also need for social development will end up and no progress in the discipline. That will affect the country's development as it is still based on the same old knowledge body and practices that no longer matches to the advancing time because the knowledge is constantly and rapidly changing. The same old body of knowledge may have to be abandoned or suppressed as proven to be an error or outdated. A lecturer has to accept the new adjustments and procedures; he/she must

accede to the newly emerging knowledge that has been already proven methodically in order to improve himself/herself accordingly.

Besides, some of the old generation lecturers were scholars to studies abroad. The scholarship to study abroad is a way to develop human resource in terms of different disciplines to respond the needs of the country. Anyone awarded the scholarship and after completing the studies has to keep in mind, according to the scholarship condition, his/her responsibility as a lecturer to use fully his/her potential and the best of his/her knowledge as means to develop the country, not only just working to repay the scholarship. Being a chosen one is a privilege to such good opportunity, and he/she, on the other hand, is expected by the university and society to use worthily the new body of knowledge acquired. Some lecturers study the disciplines that do not exist in the country' curriculum, but indispensable for the development of the country and to improve directly the country's education, so after their education, they must be conscious dutifully to use their knowledge for social benefit to the most by developing the new generation's knowledge as a compensation to the society and the country as a whole.

6.7.1.2 Organizational factors. Professors level 11 gave in addition some other details that organizations are also essential for the support, promotion, or drive them to the highest academic position. The issues that play important roles in driving the lecturers' work that leads to their career progress are the policy, climate, and culture of the organizations.

The organization' policy is essential. It is the target the university must fixed precisely that it has the policy to promote and support lecturers to create academic work to develop the knowledge body as well as the development of its lecturers. Such target must cover all departments and faculties as well in form of financial support for lecturers to do research either individually or in group, supporting funds for producing academic work like textbooks, books, academic documents used in university's curriculum, annual academic meetings, support for lecturers' presentation of academic work or participation in academic conferences whether at internal or international level, including scholarships for their further studies in order to improve their potentialities. Besides, the university should seek for external financial or supportive resources to achieve such target. The policy must not

be just a written one but really implemented concretely to inspire lecturers' conscience and raise their morale to develop academic work, which subsequently helps to raise their academic positions.

Apart from policy in financial aspect, there are also other aspects of support such as approval for sabbaticals to do research or writing textbooks, occasional alleviation of lecturers' routine work whether the teaching, administrative, or other special tasks of the university, because in order to produce academic work, a lecturer needs full and continual time. If being obliged to do different tasks at the same time, he/she cannot do it to the full extent as a consequence.

Organizational climate. It is another supportive factor. A university is well-equipped organization for lecturers' convenience and comfort to do academic work. For example, there are materials necessary for doing research; laboratories with suitable equipment, chemicals and tools, as well as personnel concerned ready for supporting roles; colleagues interested to work academically on the same problems or cases of study, which helps stimulate or drive the research accordingly. Furthermore, the university's reputation as an academic institution inspires lecturers to create academic work to keep subsequently that good reputation, the acceptance and quality of the organization. Actually, such acceptance and reliability from other organizations help facilitate the requests for funds for conducting research. And the university' annual academic conference also encourage lecturers to produce their work to present in the event and it helps stimulate the academic turn of mind. That responds at the same time the Higher Education Commission's condition that requires lecturers to present their academic work annually, together with the academic work competition event, award to proclaim their academic credentials. This is an academic climate that encourages lecturers to produce more academic work.

Organizational culture. It is another factor that encourages lecturers to produce the work, which leads to career progress. The university is an organization of learning that has academic culture to shape lecturers to be accustomed to constant academic discussion. There are recreation rooms or clubs of faculties for lecturers to meet each other at leisure time, to discuss informally about research, academic work, or to exchange opinions, knowledge or experiences from seminars arranged whether in the country or abroad. Such informal meetings normally take place once a week

and last for about half day such as every Thursday afternoon etc. Moreover, the teaching process of some subjects, especially in the science and technology and health science disciplines, is the research-based instruction. So lecturers in those disciplines can teach students and undertake research at the same time, which turns into an ordinary twin routine-work culture. As a result, the research becomes part of everyday work that increases continually the knowledge entity, and the lecturers themselves can use the achievements from the research to apply directly for academic promotion. As a result, they succeed the career progress, and the organization gain the reputation and more accepted by outsiders as a real academic organization.

6.8 Result of the Study on the Career Progress of Lecturers Level 7

This section present data collected from interviews with 30 lecturers who remained at level 7 for more than 10 years without being promoted to higher position. There were ten lecturers form each of the three main groups of disciplines, of which they were five males and five females. The research result is as follows:

6.8.1 Causes or factors of not being promoted. The interviewee lecturers gave preliminary details about level promotion that a lectureship for an individual with master's degree begins from level 4, and level 5 for the one with doctoral degree. There are possibly some lecturers beginning at level 3 if graduating with bachelor's. If a lecturer still remains in lecturer position without promotion, the lecturer's level can rise to level 7 –the highest level of this position. Then if a lecturer is academically promoted to the position of Assistant Professor, he/she will be raised to level 8; if promoted from Assistant Professorship to Associate Professorship, he/she will be raised to level 9; and if promoted to Professorship, he/she will be raised to level 10. At different levels, salaries and compensation money for academic positions are different. So each academic promotion means another career progress.

The causes or factors for those who had no academic promotion and remained in the lecturer position despite working for more than 10 years, although many of them had produced academic work but did not use their work to submit for academic position were as follows:

6.8.1.1 Individual factors. They consist of attitude toward academic positions, personal attitude, motivation for producing academic work and time management for work. The samples gave details about this issue as follows: in regard to their attitude toward academic promotion, the interviewees did not agree with the procedure for submitting for academic promotion. They thought that it caused lecturers' lack of academic freedom in presenting the academic work because members of the committee or readers who considered the work often used their own attitudes or view points for judging. The submitter lecturers had to adjust their work according to the examiners' opinions in order to get it through while the owner did not have opportunity to explain to give more details. Besides, the appointment of these readers was done by administrators that could possibly be unfair for submitters because some administrators might have certain prejudices against particular submitters. And as some administrators did not have academic positions, so they did not know in detail about the appointed members of the committee whether and to what extent they had knowledge about the matter they had to judge. The criteria for the committee appointment were not clear. They only stated loosely that the readers must hold academic positions higher than the applicants. But in some particular disciplines, none higher-position holders knew about the subjects, so the applicants had to choose the readers who had close qualifications to themselves or who worked for related disciplines, but not really corresponding to the subject to be read. Therefore, the consideration was done from different perspectives that might be incorrect according to the principle of the discipline. The judgment to pass the work on condition that the adjustment had to be done according to the readers' opinions could diverge it from the principle of the discipline or the owners' objectives. Besides, the appointed readers were allowed to know the owners of the work applying for the academic position promotion, but the applicants did not know who were appointed readers as restricted by the regulation. Thus the readers had effect on the applicants as well. Some of lecturers who did not have academic position promotion had submit for it before, but as the work did not pass due to those reasons, then they did not apply for it anymore.

In term of personal attitude some lecturers did not agree with the Ministry of the University Affairs' regulation which stated that lecturers wanting to

have academic position promotion had to submit for it by themselves. These lecturers found that such rule disgraced the lecturers' dignity. They thought that the university should have a systematic method to consider the lecturer's position promotion like universities abroad. That is, a lecturer has academic work published and circulated to the public and widespread cited academically and it is used for improvement and research continually such that it has become a knowledge body for the development of the country, and he/she become generally accepted and well-known. Then the university will establish his/her credentials in order to raise his/her position, or offer him/her an academic position. They thought that it should not be like as it was. That is, lecturers could apply for the promotion whenever they wanted to. The submission was for themselves or for the benefits, i.e. compensation money or money of the position. So when their salaries reached the highest step, they would produce academic work for their position promotion. Some pieces of the academic work did not create a new body of knowledge or a more developed body of knowledge than the old one, but only references from others just to have a piece of work for the submission and they did not produce the academic work continually like real academics. Therefore, knowledge was not improved as it should be.

Motivation to produce the academic work. Some disciplines did not have financial support at all or did have support but just a small sum of money that was insufficient for either small or big research project. Many lecturers could not find financial support from external resources, while some had such support but could not undertake fully the research because they had to do the routine work as well. At the same time, those who had funds from external resources were generally regarded badly by colleagues or superiors. They were often targeted and regarded negatively as working for outsiders, and as if using the civil-service time for personal benefits. When using these kinds of work for applying for academic position promotion, they often received the negative feedbacks or negatively criticized in regard to the origin of the work. Besides, in the past , holding an academic position or not did not make much difference, because at the moment there was no compensation money for positions. Moreover, there was a regulation stating that what academic position could take what responsibility, and the academic titles were not generally used with personal names, therefore, some lecturers felt that these positions had neither effect on

their work nor on their way of living. In fact, being a university lecturer at the moment was already accepted from external society as a dignified, reliable person. If having master's or doctoral degree from abroad, and used to be a scholar students, they were expected from the society who had already confidence in their knowledge in those disciplines without necessarily holding academic positions. But nowadays, such the attitude has changed because academic positions have become a factor determining the qualifications of eligible holders of administrative positions, the assignment of some jobs, the distributions of routine responsibilities, including the compensation benefits, the acceptance from both inside and outside the university. Those who are not promoted to higher academic positions despite having higher degrees of education may be less accepted or regarded as less reliable. And the new regulation of Office of the Higher Education commission about the assignment of jobs may prevent them from taking certain position or doing some tasks as equally as those with high academic position but with lower qualifications. Therefore, this is another motivation that interests more lecturers to apply for the academic positions than before.

Time allocation for work. Lecturers responded that they had lots of teaching responsibilities. They taught many subjects in a semester such as 3 subjects and in some semesters they had to teach 4 subjects. Some subjects had exercises assigned to students as homework, so they had to examine these papers continually and the teaching tasks used a lot of their time. Some subjects, especially in the social sciences and humanities, are taught by class-lecturing method that needs a lot of preparation of content. It needs time for searching, rewriting the additional content for the lectures. And these subjects are lectures on principles, theories, concepts so lecturers cannot do research at the same time while teaching, unlike the science disciplines. To do research of the social sciences, lecturers have to go outside the workplaces, if they do not have supportive funds or university' policy encouraging the conduct of research by reducing their routine work in different aspects, they will not be able to allocate the time fully for doing research. Meanwhile, female interviewees explained that they used some part of their time for looking after children, doing household tasks and taking care of parents who lived with the families. So everyday,

one part of their time was spent for the family responsibilities and the remaining time was for teaching preparation and examining the students' work.

6.8.1.2 Organizational factors. These are also factors lecturers considered as the causes. They are routine work, assignment for special jobs, administrative position holding etc.

Routine work was the principal responsibility directly assigned to each lecturer which was relatively a large amount of work. Apart from teaching tasks that they taught about 3 - 4 subjects for semester, there were also inspections of trainee students that lecturers had to go outside the universities; the supervision of students' work in the laboratories; being academic advisors; and advisors of students' clubs of different activities, which they had to make inspection visits and reported the results to students regularly. These jobs were their responsibilities running along with the subjects of their teaching tasks. These responsibilities were theirs that needed to be done everyday. Teaching jobs could not be considered as academic work. The accepted academic work is presented in the form of textbook or book that must be published in required format, so that the fully occupied lecturers did not have time to do it. Some subjects had lots of students such as subjects of general knowledge which were compulsory for every student of all faculties in the universities. Lecturers had to spend time for content preparation for the teaching and examine the undergraduates' work at nighttime. Therefore, their time was used mostly for routine work.

Assignment for special jobs. Since a university has many aspects of responsibilities, lecturers are then assigned to do jobs concerning different activities such as members of the committee in charge of buildings, committee in charge of materials and purchase, committee in charge of universities' activities in commemoration of anniversaries of different events every year. Some activities have lecturers appointed to hold principal positions to the activities such as Chairman or Secretary. The appointed lecturers have to take responsibilities of those jobs full time since the planning until the assessment and work report presentation. When those activities are finished, some lecturers have to work as coordinators, moderators, presenters. To do these kinds of jobs, the lectures have to work fully and study all work systems and know all schedules, together with staying at the events all the time. Furthermore, those who were appointed to do the special jobs are normally assigned

to these kinds of jobs constantly like doing another work of their own responsibilities. Such activities are arranged constantly, so lecturers have assignment to do continually all year round. They help the universities but cannot use these kinds of work to submit for position promotion because they are not academic work according to the regulation for applying for academic positions.

The holding of administrative positions. Administrative jobs are also responsibilities that university lecturer take normally. But these jobs cannot be used for submitting for academic position promotion because they do not comply with the conditions for such promotion. One reason some lecturers never had academic position promotion because they used to hold these positions or still held these positions at the moment. Since they used to do administrative work continually for a long time, from positions at department level which include Assistant, Secretary, Deputy Head of Department and Head of Department, to faculty level which include Assistant to the Dean, Deputy Dean, Dean, and the positions at university level which include Assistant to the President, Vice President, as well as Head, Director, or Chairman of Projects, Center, Offices equivalent to faculty, and members of committee or different working groups. As a result, they could not do their academic work continually due to the full-time and continual administrative work, and some of them were not interested in producing academic work for position promotion because the administrative positions also provided money of the positions like the academic ones. If their salaries reached the full steps, they could still be raised accordingly, so their salaries were not different from other. Some preferred administrative jobs because they could work for the universities directly while thinking that academic work was beneficial to individuals, even though it is a responsible that should be done as it is useful for academic circle. On the other hand, those who did the academic work continually, were not interested in administrative jobs, thinking that to be selected to administrative positions was less reliable. Those experienced ones who worked in administrative positions for a long time were then reselected continually. However, the implementation of the new regulation in administration increases the importance of academic positions as a kind of qualifications. Consequently, there are more lecturers interested and intend to have their academic positions promoted in the

future, thinking that doing administrative jobs and holding academic positions at the same time will help them to have more reliability and acceptance.

6.9 Summary

From the study on state university lecturers' academic positions and gender differences with career progress, it is found that male lecturers have their academic positions at each level promoted in less time than females, and lecturers graduated from abroad use less time to be promoted than those graduated in the country. Lecturers in the health science disciplines have their academic positions promoted in less time than lecturers in other disciplines at every level. And lecturers in the social sciences and humanities disciplines, whether males or females, use more time to have their positions promoted than lecturers in other disciplines. When collecting additional data by interviewing 30 of those who held the Professorship level 11, and 30 of those who never had academic position promotion or lecturers level 7, of which there were 10 persons, five males and five females from each group of discipline the findings are as follows:

6.9.1 The causes or factors affecting the progress in career by having academic promotion up to the highest position consist of two important factors; firstly, personal factors, they are expectation in work, determination or commitment to work, and the awareness of the duty and responsibilities as university lecturers, and secondly, organizational factor, they are the organization' precise policy to support and promote lecturers, organizational climate that is well-prepared for academic work, and organizational culture, that create the work system that attract lecturers' interest and desire to really produce academic work continually in order to build a new body of knowledge and gain scholastic reputation for the organization.

6.9.2 Causes or factors preventing lecturers from academic position promotion. They are personal causes or factors as follows: attitude toward the method to apply for the academic position promotion. Some lecturers did not agree with the current submission procedure to have the position promotion that obliges lecturers to submit for it by themselves instead of being appointed by the university. And they thought that the submission was rather for academic positions and benefits than really

doing academic work for searching for knowledge. In addition, these lecturers did not have motivation to produce academic work because the lack of financial support. And in the past the money of the positions or compensation money did not exist. And they could not manage their time properly due to lots of teaching tasks, the subject characteristic did not allow them to do research at the same time, and females had to perform their daily responsibilities in the families. In regard to organizational factors, they were teaching task, the work supervision, the inspection of trainee students, which took a lot of time. In addition, they had to do others tasks assigned by the faculties or universities such as members of different committees as well as the holding of different administrative positions that needed full time devotion so that they could not produce academic work for applying for position promotion.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This research aimed to study state university both male and female lecturers' career progress, whether in administrative and academic work line in order to conduct a comparative study on their objective and subjective career progress, as well as to analyze factors affecting this progress. The research methodology comprised of documentary and survey research by means of using questionnaires. The target population was permanent lecturers of 8 state universities in Bangkok and peripheral areas and in the Regions; the consisted of Chulalongkorn University, Kasetsart University, Mahidol University, Sukhothai Thammathirat University, Burapha University, Chiangmai University, Khon Khean University and Prince of Songkhla University. The sample size was 400 lecturers, 200 males and 200 females, categorized into three group disciplines: 168 lecturers in the sciences and technology, 106 lecturers in health sciences, 126 lecturers in the social sciences and humanities. In addition, semi-structure interviews were conducts with 30 Professors level 11 and with 30 lecturers who never had academic promotion. They were 15 males and 15 females, 10 persons from each discipline. The data collected from the surveys were analyzed by means of descriptive statistics : percentages, arithmetic mean, standard deviations, maximum values, minimum values, and inferential statistics, which was multiple regression analysis. The data from interviews were analyzes by means of descriptive essays and calculation into percentage. The research conclusions are as follows.

7.1 Conclusions of the Workforce of State University Lecturers and their Career Progress

The data were gathered by documentary research from annual reports of the Ministry of the University Affairs, Office of the Higher Education Commission, and those of universities concerned. The findings are as follows. In 2548 B.E., there were 24,680 lecturers in 24 state universities, consisting of 11,900 males and 12,780 females. The ratio of male to female was 48 : 51. When classified by groups of disciplines, in the technological science there were 10,362 lecturers, 6,153 of which were males and 4,209 females, with male/female ratio of 59:41. In the health science, there were 6,555 lecturers, 2,682 of which were males and 3,873 females, with male/female ratio of 41:59. And in the social sciences and humanities, there were 7,763 lecturers, 3,065 of which were males and 4,698 females, with male/female ratio of 39:61.

For those holding administrative positions, there were altogether 1,816 persons, 1,245 of which were males and 571 females, with male/female ratio of 68.56 to 31.44. There were 24 Presidents, 22 of which were males and 2 females, with male /female ratio of 91.67: 8.33. There were 183 Vice Presidents, 146 of which were males and 37 females, with male/female ratio of 79.78 to 20.22. There were 74 Assistant Presidents, 46 of which were males and 28 females, with male/female ratio of 62.16 to 37.84. There were 277 Deans, 220 of which were males and 57 females, with male/female ratio of 79.42 to 20.58. There were 1,082 Deputy Deans, 684 of which were males and 398 females, with male/female ratio of 63.22 to 36.78. There were 176 Directors of Centers, Offices, Projects, Institutes equivalent to faculty, and 127 of which were males and 49 females, with male/female ratio of 72.16 to 27.84.

In regard to academic positions, there were altogether 24,680 lecturers in state universities, 11,900 of which were males and 12,780 females, with male/female ratio of 48.21 to 51.79. From the total number, 13,111 of them held the position of lectureship, 6,350 of which were males and 6,761 females, with male/female ratio of 48.43 to 51.57. There were 6,710 Assistant Professors, 3,028 of which were males and 3,682 females, male/female ratio of 45.13 to 54.87. There were 4,559 Associate Professors, 2,333 of which were males and 2,226 females, with male/female ratio of

51.17 to 48.83. There were 300 Professors, 189 of which were males and 111 females, with male/female ratio of 63.00 to 37.00.

In all state universities in Thailand, there were 788 Professors, 536 of which were males and 252 females, which male/female ratio of 68.02 to 31.98. When classified by groups of disciplines; in the sciences and technology, there were 200 Professors, 153 of which were males and 47 females, with male/female ratio of 76.50 to 23.50; in the health sciences, there were 394 Professors, 263 of which were males and 131 females, with male/female ratio of 66.75 to 33.25; and in the social sciences and humanities, there were 194 Professors, 120 of which were males and 74 females, with male/female ratio of 61.85 to 38.15.

When considering the qualifications of Professors, it is found that in the sciences and technology, 4 male Professors (2.62%) had domestic master's degree, others 17 males (11.11%) had foreign master's degree, 5 males (3.27%) had domestic doctoral degree;127 males (83.00%) had foreign doctoral degree, while 3 female Professors (6.38%) had domestic master's degree, 10 females (21.28%) had foreign master's degree, 2 females (4.26%) had domestic doctorate, 32 females (68.08%) had foreign doctoral degree. In the health sciences, 63 male Professors (23.95%) had domestic master's degree, 130 males (49.43%) had foreign master's degree, 5 males (1.91%) had domestic doctoral degree, 65 males (24.71%) had foreign doctoral degree, while 40 female Professors (30.53%) had domestic master's degree, 53 females (40.46%) had foreign master's degree, 5 females (3.82%) had domestic doctoral degree; 33 females (25.19%) had foreign doctoral degree. And in the social sciences and humanities, 6 male Professors (5.00%) had domestic master's degree, 18 males (15.00%) had foreign master's degree; 2 males (1.67%) had domestic doctoral degree 94 males (78.33%) had foreign doctoral degree, while 27 female Professors (36.49%) had foreign master's degree and no female 10% had domestic master's degree; 2 females (2.70%) had domestic doctoral degree; 45 females (60.81%) had foreign doctoral degree.

In regard to holders of Professorship level 11, there were altogether 187 Professors, 144 of which were males and 43 females, with the male/female ratio of 77.00 to 23.00. When classified according to groups of disciplines, it is found that in the sciences and technology, there were 51 Professors, 45 of which were males and 6

females, with male/female ratio of 88.24 to 11.76 . In the health sciences, there were 111 Professors, 83 of which were males and 28 females, with male/female ratio of 74.78 to 25.22 . And in the social sciences and humanities, there were 25 Professors, 16 of which were males and 9 females, with male/female ratio of 64.00:36.00.

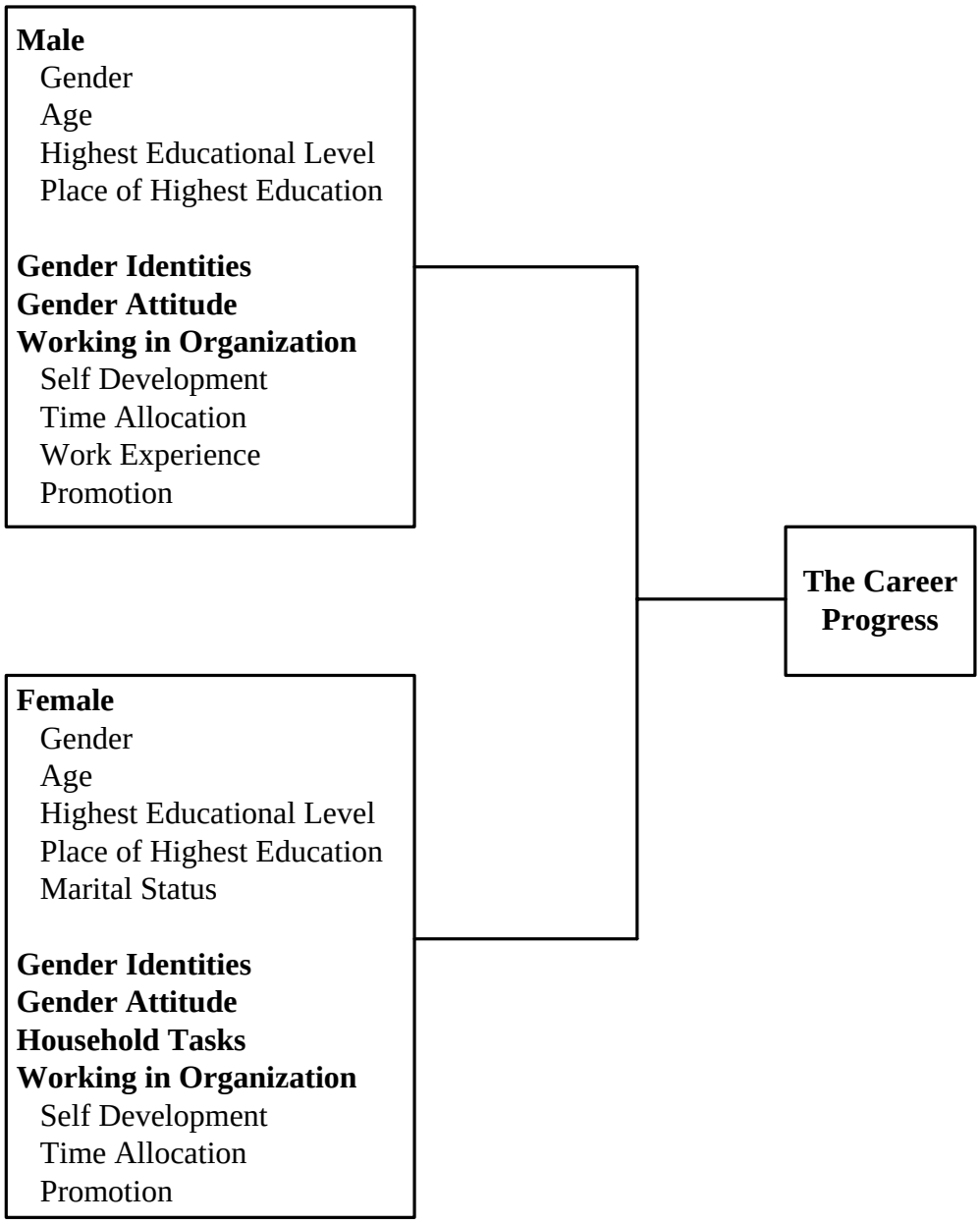
When considering the qualifications of the holders of Professorship level 11, it is found that in the sciences and technology, 1 male Professor level 11 (2.22%) had foreign master's degree, 44 males (97.78%) had foreign doctoral degree, while 2 female Professors level 11 (33.33%) had domestic master's degree, 1 female (16.67%) had foreign master's, 3 females (50.00%) had foreign doctoral degree. In the health sciences, 13 males (15.66%) had domestic master's degree, 25 males (30.12%) had foreign master's degree, 7 males (8.44%) had domestic doctoral degree, 38 males (45.78%) had foreign doctoral degree, while 9 female Professors level 11 (32.14%) had domestic master's degree, 9 females (32.14%) foreign master's degree, 10 females (35.72%) had foreign doctoral degree. In the social sciences and humanities, 1 male Professor level 11 (6.25%) had domestic master's degree, 2 males (81.25%) had foreign master's degree, while 1 female Professor level 11 (11.11%) had foreign master's degree, 1 females (11.11%) had domestic doctoral degree, 7 females (77.78%) had foreign doctoral degree.

The documentary research found that most of holders of Professorship and Professorship level 11 were males. The highest education of most of them was doctoral degree from abroad. The largest number of them worked in the health sciences, followed by those working in the sciences and technology, and those working in the social sciences and humanities was the smallest in number.

7.2 Conclusions on Gender Differences and Factors Affecting Toward the Career Progress of State Universities Lecturers

The data in this section were collected by means of survey research from the sample size of 400 persons, with the equal numbers of males and females or 200 persons each gender. They were lecturers of 8 state universities over the country. Most of them were between 50-54 years old, had highest education with master's degree from abroad, married and had with 2 children. Their academic positions were lecturers (14.50 %), Assistant Professors (35.75 %), Associate Professors (37.75%) and Professors (12.00%) respectively. Their working ages were between 25-29 years, with current average incomes between 30,000-39,999 baht per month. Among the sample members, 6.25% of them did not hold any administrative position, 35.25% held administrative positions at departmental level, 36.75% held administrative positions at faculty level, and 21.75% held administrative positions at university level. In regard to their initial work positions, 43.75% were lecturers in higher educational institutions, 24.50% were lecturers in lower educational institutions, 18.50% were government officials in other organizations, 10.50% worked for private companies or state enterprises, and 2.75% had their own business or worked for families' business.

7.2.1 Factors Affecting Career Progress of State University Lecturers with Statistical Significance at 0.05 are as Follows.



7.2.2 Correlation between Demographic Factors and Career Progress.

The findings from analyzing found that factors affecting state universities lecturers' career progress were gender, age, highest degree of education, marital status, place of highest education, gender identity, gender attitude, household tasks

and occupational work in organization which included self-development, time allocation for work, and support and promotion from the organization.

For subjective career progress in terms of position promotion, the influential factors for the promotion from level 6 to level 7 consisted of gender, age, highest degree of education, marital status, gender identity, gender attitude, household tasks, self-development and time allocation for work.

Factors affecting the promotions from level 7 to level 8 consisted of gender, age, highest degree of education, marital status, being married and having children, childless marriage, self-confidence, enthusiasm, emotional control, boldness in decision-making, patience in work follow-up, meticulousness, gender attitude, occupational work, self-development, work experience, and support and promotion from the organization.

Factors affecting the promotions from level 8 to level 9 consisted of gender, age, highest degree of education, marriage and having children, number of children, gender attitude, household tasks, self-development, time allocation for work, and support and promotion from the organization.

Factors affecting the promotion from level 9 to level 10 consisted of gender, age, highest degree of education, place of highest education, gender identity, gender attitude, household tasks and self-development.

Factors affecting the promotion from level 10 to level 11 consisted of gender, age, highest degree of education, place of highest education, gender identity, gender attitude, household tasks, self-development.

The factors affecting objective career progress in terms of income promotion consisted of gender, age, marital status, gender identity, gender attitude, household tasks, self-development, time allocation for work, and support and promotion from the organization.

The factors affecting subjective career progress consisted of gender, age, highest degree of education, place of highest education, marital status, number of children, gender identity, gender attitude, household tasks, self-development, work experience, and support and promotion from the organization.

7.3 Conclusions of Gender Differences, Academic Positions and the Career Progress of State University Lecturers

The data in this section derived from interviews with Professors level 11 and lecturers level 7 who never had academic position despite having worked for more than 10 years. There were 30 persons from each group, of which there were 10 persons from each discipline, of which there were 5 males and 5 females equally. The research found that the causes or factors affecting the career progress to achieve the Professorship level 11 consisted of: **personal factors** such as expectation; determination and commitment for the success; awareness of the duty and responsibility for work; **organizational factors** which have supportive roles such as clear organizational policy, academic climate in the organization ; preparedness of apparatus and facilities in organization for academic work; and the organizational culture which is appropriate to manage universities to be institution of learning and academic centers and to support lecturers to produce more academic work.

In regard to lecturers level 7 who had worked for 10 years but never had academic position promotion, the study found that influential factors were: personal factors which were their attitudes toward the current promotion method; personal attitude towards the mean of promotion at the present time. They thought that a submission for the promotion was for personal interest rather than for developing body of knowledge continuously. Furthermore, they lacked incentives to produce academic work due to insufficient funds or resource for the work. The former regulation itself did not provide the compensation for position payment, so lecturers did not see any difference between holding and not holding academic positions. The lecturers themselves could not manage their time properly, which was in fact related to organizational factor, because they had many kinds of jobs such as teaching, administration and other assigned special tasks, etc. so they could not produce the academic work at their full extent. Some of them worked in the administrative positions continually for a long time but they could not use these tasks as supportive considerations to apply for the promotion, therefore, some of them were not promoted to higher academic positions.

7.4 Recommendations

From the research study, there are some findings to be proposed for the development of state university lecturers' career progress as follows:

7.4.1 Recommendations for Practical Applications.

1. Gender attitude. It plays an important role in the gender differences which partly affects the career progress, especially in order to hold administrative positions. Important things to be kept in mind are personal qualifications such as knowledge, capability, experience and suitability to the job more than gender.

2. Household tasks. They are still mostly females' responsibilities, though recently males have taken part in doing these tasks more than before. However, the main ones are still females', especially in families where there are children, the elderly parents or close relatives. The teaching about appropriate knowledge and understanding about gender role is necessary to both males and females in order to share household tasks and responsibilities equally.

3. Occupation in organization. Female lecturers should be assigned to the tasks appropriate to their skills, competences and interests, and have suitable courses and number of teaching hours in each semester. They should be given more chance to develop their academic abilities by means of funds for doing research, producing academic work in different forms, or take part in meetings, seminars, presenting papers and study trips or short-term trainings.

4. Develop university to be institution of knowledge and learning. A university should to have clear and practical policy to encourage lecturers to develop themselves, to produce academic work. There must be an atmosphere of learning in the organization. The university should promote, support and stimulate lecturers to realize the importance of producing academic work for the progress of the academic circle which affects directly their career progress. It should create the organizational cultures in which doing academic work becomes part of the routine responsibilities. These factors will help importantly lecturers to produce their academic work, and the university can help them to reach more progress.

5. Each discipline has its own specific characteristics and nature. The administrators should develop the teaching courses of each discipline by encouraging lecturers, in addition to lectures in class, to conduct research, search, or create new body of knowledge in stead of only teaching from textbooks or papers, which will increase the knowledge and develop the research simultaneously.

6. Regulation on promotion. Lecturers' different tasks should be taken into account when considering qualifications for their promotion, because they have to be responsible in different special tasks apart from their teaching, research and administrative job, in order to raise their morale and willpower to work for the organization.

7. As the regulation obliges lecturers to present their research results and they must be published for the distribution, especially in academic journals abroad which is an important problem and obstacle for lecturer graduating form inside the country. Therefore, in order to help these lecturers to develop their language skills, the university should provide funds or foreign language skill development programs for them for a period of time. So they will be able to develop their language skills and have new experiences in order to do more progress in their academic life.

8. The management in providing funds for doing research or producing academic work must be done equally without overlooking certain areas knowledge, especially the social sciences and humanities. The management should includes all kinds of preparedness as well as other components, such as the alleviation of routine work such, equipment, and research assistants , time and facilities to travel to conduct field research, etc. In contrast to researchers in the sciences and technology or health sciences who could conduct their researches in laboratories, researchers in social science and humanities have to conduct it outside the universities, so they need time for the journey and funds for expenses. Therefore, administrators should consider seriously the support for lecturers in the social science and humanities so that they will be able to conduct their research more effectively.

7.4.2 Recommendations for Research in the Future

1. There should be a study on gender differences and accomplishment, or the satisfaction or expectation of university lecturers toward opposite-gender administrators at different levels in universities.

2. There should be a study on factors that create gender differences, especially gender attitude that accepts males' capabilities more than females' in administrative positions in universities.

3. There should be a comparative study on gender differences and the expectation for academic progress among university lecturers in different disciplines, in order to plan the development for the new generation of lecturers.

4. There should be a study on goals or objectives to have career progress of new lecturers who are employees according to the New Regulation in order to devise manpower development plans in different aspects for the future.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Questionnaire

GENDER DIFFERENCE AND FACTORS AFFECTING TOWARDS THE CAREER PROGRESS OF STATE UNIVERSITY LECTURERS

Instruction : Please mark ✓ or fill in the gap

Part 1 : Gender difference and Gender Identities

No.	Item	Level					
		Most	Much	Moderate	Little	Least	Never
1.	Males have more self – confidence than females	5	4	3	2	1	0
2.	Males have more enthusiasm than females	5	4	3	2	1	0
3.	Males have more self – control than females	5	4	3	2	1	0
4.	Males have more decision – making than females	5	4	3	2	1	0
5.	Males have more make an adjustment than females	5	4	3	2	1	0
6.	Females have more patience and endeavor than males	5	4	3	2	1	0
7.	Females have more meticulous and exhaustiveness than males	5	4	3	2	1	0
8.	Females have more human relations than males	5	4	3	2	1	0
9.	Females have more dedication and commitment than males	5	4	3	2	1	0
10	Females have more coordination than males	5	4	3	2	1	0

Part 2 : Gender difference and Gender Attitude

No.	Item	Level					
		Most	Much	Moderate	Little	Least	Never
1.	In the same administrative position, males are more accepted than females	5	4	3	2	1	0
2.	In the same organization, males are more promoted than females	5	4	3	2	1	0
3.	In t he same qualification, males have more opportunities than females	5	4	3	2	1	0
4.	In the same age and experience, males are recognized and reliable than females	5	4	3	2	1	0
5.	In the same job level, males are expected than females	5	4	3	2	1	0

Part 3 : Gender difference and Household Tasks

No.	Item	Level					
		Most	Much	Moderate	Little	Least	Never
1.	Buy food and subsistent things	5	4	3	2	1	0
2.	Prepare food and cooking	5	4	3	2	1	0
3.	Clean kitchen utensil	5	4	3	2	1	0
4.	Clean house and furniture	5	4	3	2	1	0
5.	Clean and decorate lawn, garden, sidewalk etc.	5	4	3	2	1	0
6.	Clean clothes	5	4	3	2	1	0
7.	Manage household expenditure	5	4	3	2	1	0
8.	Take care of young children	5	4	3	2	1	0
9.	Take care of old parents or relatives	5	4	3	2	1	0
10	Take care of sickly parents or relatives	5	4	3	2	1	0

Part 4 : Gender Difference and Responsibilities in Organization

No.	Item	Level					
		Most	Much	Moderate	Little	Least	Never
	4.1 Routine Working						
1.	You teach appropriately in course subject and your qualification	5	4	3	2	1	0
2.	You teach in course subject with your competence and interest	5	4	3	2	1	0
3.	You teach as will as research in each course subject	5	4	3	2	1	0
4.	Your are invited by others organization to be a special lecturer	5	4	3	2	1	0
5.	You get appropriately the total of course subject and teaching hour in each semester	5	4	3	2	1	0
	4.2 Self - Development						
1.	In each year, you joined the academic conference in Thailand	5	4	3	2	1	0
2.	In each year, you joined the academic conference in abroad	5	4	3	2	1	0
3.	In each year, you presented your research result in Thailand	5	4	3	2	1	0
4.	In each year, you presented your research result in abroad	5	4	3	2	1	0
5.	In each your, you published your text, book, article or other academic outcome	5	4	3	2	1	0

Part 4 : (Continued)

No.	Item	Level					
		Most	Much	Moderate	Little	Least	Never
	4.3 Time - Allocation						
1.	Your arrive early at office for preparing your teaching or research	5	4	3	2	1	0
2.	You take back your subject matter or your research to do at home	5	4	3	2	1	0
3.	You take back your student's exercises to correct at home	5	4	3	2	1	0
4.	You take your time after office hour in each day to do research or further academies	5	4	3	2	1	0
5.	You take your time in holiday to do additional works	5	4	3	2	1	0

4.4 Working Experience

1. You ever acted in the department administration (secretary of department, deputy of department, head of department)

   ☐ never ☐ once ☐ twice

   ☐ Third ☐ fourth ☐ more than fourth

2. You ever acted in the faculty administration (Dean, Vice Dean, Assistant Dean)

   ☐ never ☐ once ☐ twice

   ☐ Third ☐ fourth ☐ more than fourth

3. you ever acted in the university administration (President, Vice President, Assistant President, Executive Director, Vice Executive Director, Assistant Executive Director of Center or Institute)

   ☐ never ☐ once ☐ twice

   ☐ Third ☐ fourth ☐ more than fourth

4. You ever acted in the other faculty or university administration (Chairman of Center or academic program or special project)

☐ never ☐ once ☐ twice

☐ Third ☐ fourth ☐ more than fourth

5. You ever acted in the others committees in faculty or university (Examination Committee, faculty committee, university committee)

☐ never ☐ once ☐ twice

☐ Third ☐ fourth ☐ more than fourth

4.5 Promotion and Supported

1. You ever got the financial supported to study abroad

☐ never ☐ once ☐ twice

☐ Third ☐ fourth ☐ more than fourth

2. You ever got the financial supported to study in Thailand

☐ never ☐ once ☐ twice

☐ Third ☐ fourth ☐ more than fourth

3. You ever got the financial supported to publish academic works

☐ never ☐ once ☐ twice

☐ Third ☐ fourth ☐ more than fourth

4. You ever got the research fund for your own

☐ never ☐ once ☐ twice

☐ Third ☐ fourth ☐ more than fourth

5. You ever got the research fund for group

☐ never ☐ once ☐ twice

☐ Third ☐ fourth ☐ more than fourth

6. You ever got the scholar short course training, visiting exchange program both in Thailand and abroad

☐ never ☐ once ☐ twice

☐ Third ☐ fourth ☐ more than fourth

7. You ever got the sabbatical leave permission

☐ never ☐ once ☐ twice

☐ Third ☐ fourth ☐ more than fourth

Part 5 : The Subjective Career Progress

No.	Item	Level					
		Most	Much	Moderate	Little	Least	Never
1.	Universities members get the career progress more than others careers	5	4	3	2	1	0
2.	Universities where you work, make you progress in this career	5	4	3	2	1	0
3.	Position which you act, indicate you progress in this career	5	4	3	2	1	0
4.	Salary which you get, indicate you progress in this career	5	4	3	2	1	0
5.	You intend to get higher position in the future	5	4	3	2	1	0
6.	You intend to work at this university, not change the place	5	4	3	2	1	0
7.	You intend to be universities members, not change the career	5	4	3	2	1	0

Part 6 : The Demographic Characteristics of Samples

6.1 Sex ☐ male ☐ female

6.2 Age…….years

6.3 Educational Background

Educational Level	Status	Discipline	Place
☐ Bachelor Degree or Equivalence	☐ Completed	☐ Science and Technology ☐ Health Science ☐ Social Science and Humanities	☐ Thailand ☐ Abroad
☐ Master Degree or Equivalence	☐ Completed ☐ Studying	☐ Science and Technology ☐ Health Science ☐ Social Science and Humanities	☐ Thailand ☐ Abroad
☐ Doctoral Degree or Equivalence	☐ Completed ☐ Studying	☐ Science and Technology ☐ Health Science ☐ Social Science and Humanities	☐ Thailand ☐ Abroad
☐ Post – Doctoral Degree	☐ Completed ☐ Studying	☐ Science and Technology ☐ Health Science ☐ Social Science and Humanities	☐ Thailand ☐ Abroad

6.4 Martial Status

☐ Single ☐ Married

☐ Widowed ☐ Divorced or Separated

6.5 Number of Children……..

Part 7 : The Objective Career Progress

7.1 Academic Position (At Present)

☐ Lecturer	☐ Level 4	☐ Level 5
	☐ Level 6	☐ Level 7
☐ Assistant Professor	☐ Level 6	☐ Level 7
	☐ Level 8	
☐ Associate Professor	☐ Level 7	☐ Level 8
	☐ Level 9	

☐ Professor ☐ Level 9 ☐ Level 10

☐ Level 11

7.2 Total income……Bath per month

7.3 Official Duration (till present)……..years

7.4 Your Faculty's name (At present) .....

Your Department's Name (At present).....

Your University's name.....

7.5 Administrative Position (in university).....

Office's name.....

7.6 Position at Start Working.....

7.7 Start at lecturer B.E.....

7.8 Start at assistant professor B.E. .....

7.9 Start at associate professor B.E.....

7.10 Start at professor B.E. .....

7.11 Start at professor 11 B.E. .....

7.12 Official Duration at current office (Till Present).....years

Part 8 : Further Suggestions

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.....

.....

.....

Thank Your very much for your assistance

Researcher

APPENDIX B

Interview Form

For

Professor Level 11 and Lecturer level 7

Part 1 : Demographic Characteristics of the Samples

1. Sex ☐ male ☐ female
2. Age…….years
3. Educational Background

Level	Status	Discipline	Place
☐ Bachelor Degree or Equivalence	☐ Completed	☐ Science and Technology ☐ Health Science ☐ Social Science and Humanities	☐ Thailand ☐ Abroad
☐ Master Degree or Equivalence	☐ Completed ☐ Studying	☐ Science and Technology ☐ Health Science ☐ Social Science and Humanities	☐ Thailand ☐ Abroad
☐ Doctoral Degree or Equivalence	☐ Completed ☐ Studying	☐ Science and Technology ☐ Health Science ☐ Social Science and Humanities	☐ Thailand ☐ Abroad
☐ Post – Doctoral Degree	☐ Completed ☐ Studying	☐ Science and Technology ☐ Health Science ☐ Social Science and Humanities	☐ Thailand ☐ Abroad

4. Martial Status

   ☐ Single ☐ Married

   ☐ Widowed ☐ Divorced or Separated

5. Number of Children……..

Part 2 : The Objective Career Progress

1. Academic Position (At Present)
   - ☐ Professor Level 11
   - ☐ Lecturer Level 7
2. Approximately income.....Baht per month
3. Official Duration.....years (At Present)
4. Your faculty's name.....
5. Administrative Position (At Present)
   ☐ no ☐ yes Position .....
6. Position at Start Working.....
   Office's name.....
7. Start at lecturer B.E.....
8. Start at assistant professor B.E. .....
9. Start at associate professor B.E.....
10. Start at professor B.E. .....
11. Start at professor 11 B.E. .....
12. Official Duration at this University .....years

Part : 3 Responsibilities in Working

	Yes	No
3.1 Routine Working		
1. You teach appropriately in course subject and your qualification	☐	☐
2. You teach in course subject with your competence and interest	☐	☐
3. You teach as will as research in each course subject	☐	☐
4. You are invited by others organization to be a special lecturer	☐	☐
5. You get appropriately the total of course subject and teaching hour in each semester	☐	☐
3.2 Time Allocation		
1. You arrive early at office for preparing your teaching or research	☐	☐
2. You take back your subject matter or your research to do at home	☐	☐
3. You take back your student's exercise to correct at home	☐	☐
4. You take your time after office hour in each day to do research or further academics	☐	☐
5. You take your time in holiday to do additional works	☐	☐

	Yes	No
3.3 Self Development		
1. You joined the academic conference in Thailand twice/once per year	☐	☐
2. You joined the academic conference in abroad twice/once per year	☐	☐
3. You presented your research result in Thailand twice/once per year	☐	☐
4. You presented your research result in abroad twice/once per year	☐	☐
5. You published your text, book, article or other academic outcome twice/once per year	☐	☐
3.4 Working Experience		
1. You ever acted in the departed administration such as secretary of department, deputy of department, head of department	☐	☐
2. You ever acted in the faculty administration such as Dean, Vice Dean, Assistant Dean	☐	☐
3. You ever acted in the university administration such as President, Vice President, Assistant President, Executive Director, Vice Executive Director, Assistant Executive Director of center or Institute	☐	☐
4. You ever acted in the other faculty or university administration such as chairman of center or academic program or special project	☐	☐
5. You ever acted in the others committees in faculty or university such as Examination Committee, Faculty committee, university committee	☐	☐

	Yes	No
3.5 Promotion and Supported		
1. You ever got the financial supported to study abroad	☐	☐
2. You ever got the financial supported to study in Thailand	☐	☐
3. You ever got the financial supported to publish academic works	☐	☐
4. You ever got the research fund for your own	☐	☐
5. You ever got the research fund for group	☐	☐
6. You ever got the scholar for short course training, visiting exchange program both in Thailand and abroad	☐	☐
7. You ever got the sabbatical leave permission	☐	☐
3.6 Household Tasks		
1. Buy food and subsistent things	☐	☐
2. Prepare food and cooking	☐	☐
3. Clean Kitchen utensil	☐	☐
4. Clean house and furniture	☐	☐
5. Clean and decorate lawn, garden, sidewalk etc.	☐	☐
6. Clean Clothes	☐	☐
7. Manage household expenditure	☐	☐
8. Take care of young children	☐	☐
9. Take care of old parents or relatives	☐	☐
10. Take care of sickly parents or relatives	☐	☐

Part 4 : The Subjective Career Progress

	Yes	No
1. Universities members get the career progress more than others careers	☐	☐
2. Universities where you work, make you progress in this career	☐	☐
3. Position which you act, indicate you progress in this career	☐	☐
4. Salary which you get, indicate you progress in this career	☐	☐
5. You intend to get higher position in the future	☐	☐
6. You intend to work at this university, not change the place	☐	☐
7. You intend to be universities members, not change the career	☐	☐

Part 5 : Causes on Factors toward Career Progress

1. Individual Factors .....
2. Organizational Factors
   - 2.1 Organizational Policy .....
   - 2.2 Organizational Climate .....
   - 2.3 Organizational Culture .....
3. Additional Comments .....

.....

.....

.....

Thanks for your kind

Researcher

Record :
1. Name/Family name of Interviewee…….
2. Day……Month……..year……..for Interview
3. Time at start……
4. Place……
5. Time at finish…….

APPENDIX C

Questionnaire Testing

Discrimination and Item – Total Correlation by Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient after try out was 0.62 – 0.94 and reliability of the questionnaire testing by α - Coefficient was 0.97. The items of question are as follow:

1. Gender Identity : GI 10 items
2. Gender Attitude : GA 5 items
3. Household Tasks : HT 10 items
4. Occupation : OC 27 items
5. Subjective Career Progress : SCP 7 items

1. GI	$\overline{X}$	SD	MIN	MAX	Item	r
- GI 1	4.48	0.71	0	5	1	0.87
- GI 2	4.64	0.53	0	5	1	0.90
- GI 3	3.89	1.04	0	5	1	0.74
- GI 4	4.27	0.81	0	5	1	0.72
- GI 5	3.63	1.16	0	5	1	0.63
- GI 6	3.98	1.00	0	5	1	0.81
- GI 7	4.77	0.62	0	5	1	0.84
- GI 8	4.13	0.49	0	5	1	0.80
- GI 9	4.26	0.82	0	5	1	0.75
- GI 10	4.32	0.54	0	5	1	069
Total	**4.24**	**0.77**	**0**	**5**	**10**	**0.77**

Reliability Coefficients10 items Alpha = 0.77

2. GA	$\overline{X}$	SD	MIN	MAX	Item	r
- GA 1	3.99	1.02	0	5	1	0.73
- GA 2	4.12	0.95	0	5	1	0.88
- GA 3	4.67	0.74	0	5	1	0.91
- GA 4	3.98	1.00	0	5	1	0.77
- GA 5	4.21	0.70	0	5	1	0.82
Total	**4.18**	**0.88**	**0**	**5**	**5**	**0.82**

Reliability coefficients 5 items Alpha = 0.82

3. HT	$\overline{X}$	SD	MIN	MAX	ITEM	r
- HT 1	3.45	0.72	0	5	1	0.78
- HT 2	2.70	0.34	0	5	1	0.62
- HT 3	2.66	0.47	0	5	1	0.74
- HT 4	2.97	0.42	0	5	1	0.81
- HT 5	3.05	0.66	0	5	1	0.67
- HT 6	2.92	0.39	0	5	1	0.79
- HT 7	4.37	0.93	0	5	1	0.89
- HT 8	2.63	0.49	0	5	1	0.71
- HT 9	3.30	0.88	0	5	1	0.75
- HT 10	2.92	0.58	0	5	1	0.63
Total	**3.05**	**0.59**	**0**	**5**	**10**	**0.74**

Reliability Coefficients 10 items Alpha = 0.74

4. OC	$\overline{X}$	SD	MIN	MAX	Item	r
- OC 1	4.37	0.72	0	5	1	0.84
- OC 2	4.61	0.58	0	5	1	0.89
- OC 3	3.95	0.83	0	5	1	0.80
- OC 4	3.98	0.77	0	5	1	0.77
- OC 5	3.33	0.89	0	5	1	0.72
- OC 6	3.80	0.64	0	5	1	0.79
- OC 7	3.11	0.42	0	5	1	0.78
- OC 8	3.70	0.63	0	5	1	0.75
- OC 9	2.76	0.78	0	5	1	0.71
- OC 10	3.26	0.62	0	5	1	0.82
- OC 11	34.9	0.54	0	5	1	0.84
- OC 12	3.71	0.42	0	5	1	0.78
- OC 13	3.95	0.30	0	5	1	0.89
- OC 14	4.36	0.85	0	5	1	0.91
- OC 15	4.12	0.94	0	5	1	0.90
- OC 16	4.12	0.89	0	5	1	0.90
- OC 17	3.82	0.68	0	5	1	0.81
- OC 18	3.13	0.57	0	5	1	0.75
- OC 19	3.70	0.33	0	5	1	0.79
- OC 20	3.95	0.46	0	5	1	0.88
- OC 21	3.05	0.67	0	5	1	0.70
- OC 22	2.94	0.77	0	5	1	0.68
- OC 23	4.08	0.80	0	5	1	0.83

4. OC	$\overline{X}$	SD	MIN	MAX	Item	r
- OC 24	4.44	0.72	0	5	1	0.92
- OC 25	4.49	0.65	0	5	1	0.94
- OC 26	4.23	0.79	0	5	1	0.89
- OC 27	3.06	0.71	0	5	1	0.75
Total	**3.76**	**0.67**	**0**	**5**	**27**	**0.82**

Reliability Coefficients 27 items Alpha = 0.82

5. SEP	$\overline{X}$	SD	MIN	MAX	Item	r
- SEP 1	4.62	0.57	0	5	1	0.92
- SEP 2	4.38	0.81	0	5	1	0.87
- SEP 3	3.19	0.72	0	5	1	0.79
- SEP 4	3.31	0.84	0	5	1	0.74
- SEP 5	4.34	0.85	0	5	1	0.85
- SEP 6	4.51	0.63	0	5	1	0.89
- SEP 7	4.23	0.76	0	5	1	0.82
Total	**4.19**	**0.74**	**0**	**5**	**7**	**0.84**

Reliability Coefficients 7 items Alpha = 0.84

Total Reliability Coefficients 59 items Alpha = 0.97

APPENDIX D

1. Demographic Characteristic of Professor Level 11

Demographic Characteristics	Male (n=15)		Female(n=15)		Total (n=30)	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
1. Age						
1.1 50 – 54 years	4	26.67	1	6.67	5	16.67
1.2 55 – 59 years	9	60.00	13	86.66	22	73.33
1.3 ≥ 60 years	2	13.33	1	6.67	3	10.00
2. Highest Educational Level						
2.1 Master	3	20.00	6	40.00	9	30.00
2.2 Doctoral	12	80.00	9	60.00	21	70.00
3. Place of Highest Educational Level						
3.1 Thailand	0	0	3	20.00	3	10.00
3.2 Abroad	15	100	12	80.00	27	90.00
4. Are of Concentration						
4.1 Science and Technology	5	33.33	5	33.33	10	33.33
4.2 Health Science	5	33.33	5	33.33	10	33.33
4.3 Social Science and Humanities	5	33.33	5	33.33	10	33.33
5. Marital Status						
5.1 Single	0	0	2	13.33	2	6.67
5.2 Married	13	86.67	11	37.34	24	80.00
5.3 Widowed, Separated	2	13.33	2	13.33	4	13.33
6. Number of Children						
6.1 None	3	20.00	5	33.33	8	26.67
6.2 One	4	26.67	5	33.33	9	30.00
6.3 Two	5	33.33	3	20.00	8	26.67
6.4 ≥ Three	3	20.00	2	13.33	5	16.66
7. Academic Position						
7.1 Professor Level 11	15	50.00	15	50.00	30	100.00
8. Income per Month						
8.1 30,000 – 39,999 Bath	2	13.33	3	20.00	5	16.67
8.2 40,000 – 49,999 Bath	9	60.00	10	66.67	19	63.33
8.3 ≥ 50,000 Bath	4	26.67	2	13.33	6	20.00
9. Official Duration						
9.1 20 – 24 years	2	13.33	1	6.67	3	10.00
9.2 25 – 29 years	10	66.67	5	33.33	15	50.00
9.3 ≥ 30 years	3	20.00	9	60.00	12	40.00
10. Administrative Position						
10.1 None	3	20.00	8	53.33	11	36.67
10.2 At Department	4	26.67	2	13.33	6	20.00
10.3 At Faculty	6	40.00	4	26.67	10	33.33
10.4 At University	2	13.30	1	6.67	3	10.00

1. Demographic Characteristic of Professor Level 11 (Continued)

Demographic Characteristics	Male (n=15)		Female(n=15)		Total (n=30)	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
11. Position of Start Working						
11.1 Private Companies or Authorities	0	0	0	0	0	0
11.2 Other Government Service	6	40.00	3	20.00	9	30.00
11.3 Teacher in Primary or Secondary School	0	0	0	0	0	0
11.4 Lecturer in Universities	9	60.00	12	80.00	21	70.00
11.5 Owner or Business family	0	0	0	0	0	0

2. Working Behavior of Professor Level 11

Working Behavior	Male (n=15)	Female (n=15)	Total (n=30)
1. Working in Organizational			
1.1 You teach appropriately in course subject and your qualification	92.75	90.14	91.45
1.2 You teach in course subject with your competence and interest	91.86	90.05	90.96
1.3 You teach as well as research in each course subject	80.24	75.22	77.73
1.4 You are invited by others organization to be a special lecturer	83.39	82.47	82.93
1.5 You get appropriately the total of course subject and teaching hour in each semester	87.72	85.84	86.78
1.6 You joined the academic conference in Thailand twice per year	72.44	70.89	71.67
1.7 You joined the academic conference in abroad twice per year	70.11	68.92	69.52
1.8 You presented your research result in Thailand twice times per year	84.49	83.34	83.92
1.9 You presented your research result in abroad twice times per year	80.57	79.68	80.13
1.10 You published your text, book, article twice items per year	85.94	84.59	85.27
1.11 Your arrived early at office for preparing your teaching or research	71.78	80.93	76.36
1.12 Your take back your subject matter or your research to do at home	77.82	81.44	79.63

2. Working Behavior of Professor Level 11 (Continued)

Working Behavior	Male (n=15)	Female (n=15)	Total (n=30)
1.13 You take back your student's exercises to correct at home	55.63	57.71	56.67
1.14 You take your time after office hour in each day to do research or further academies	70.54	69.12	69.83
1.15 You take your time in holiday to do additional works	54.95	53.56	54.26
1.16 You got the financial supported to study abroad	10.00	20.00	15.00
1.17 You got the financial supported to study in Thailand	74.82	86.79	80.81
1.18 You got the financial supported to publish academic works	85.65	82.41	84.03
1.19 You got the research fund for your own	92.27	94.38	93.33
1.20 You got the research fund for group	97.34	96.97	97.16
1.21 You got the scholar for short course training, visiting exchange program both in Thailand and abroad	62.98	58.29	60.64
1.22 You got the sabbatical leave permission	90.11	92.33	91.22
2. Household Tasks			
2.1 Buy food and subsistent things	67.88	81.09	74.49
2.2 Prepare food and cooking	43.21	64.38	53.80
2.3 Clean kitchen utensil	31.15	58.74	44.95
2.4 Clean house and furniture	33.47	57.96	45.72
2.5 Clean and decorate lawn, garden, sidewalk etc.	44.92	32.11	38.52
2.6 Clean clothes	30.06	41.27	35.67
2.7 Manage household expenditure	90.41	85.43	87.92
2.8 Take care of young children	22.86	18.74	20.80
2.9 Take care of old parents or relatives	40.63	52.95	46.79
2.10 Take care of sickly parents or relatives	29.14	41.52	35.33

3. Gender Identities of Professor Level 11

Gender Identities	Male (n=15)	Female (n=15)	Total (n=30)
1. Males have more self confidence than females	84.71	89.93	87.32
2. Males have more enthusiasm than females	90.11	92.84	91.48
3. Males have more self control than females	82.35	85.41	83.88
4. Males have more decision making than females	86.27	88.75	87.51
5. Males have more make an adjustment than females	81.89	86.85	84.37
6. Females have more endeavor and patience than males	89.43	90.32	89.88
7. Females have more exhaustiveness and meticulous than males	92.86	95.91	94.39
8. Females have more human relations than males	80.71	84.46	82.59
9. Females have more dedication and commitment than males	72.34	79.83	76.09
10. Females have more coordination than males	81.45	83.67	82.56

4. Gender Attitude of Professor Level 11

Gender Attitude	Male (n=15)	Female (n=15)	Total (n=30)
1. In the same administrative position, males are more accepted than females	80.74	82.89	81.82
2. In the same organization, males are more promoted than females	72.82	88.64	80.73
3. In the same qualification, males have more opportunities than females	90.53	95.77	93.15
4. In the same age and experience, males are recognized and reliable than females	90.26	94.12	92.19
5. In the same job level, males are expected than females	83.05	90.10	86.58

5. Opinions of Professor Level 11 concerning Subjective Career Progress

Subjective Career progress	Male (n=15)	Female (n=15)	Total (n=30)
1. Universities members get the career progress more than others careers	95.54	98.72	97.13
2. University where you work, make you progress in this career	92.13	95.19	93.66
3. Position which you act, indicate you progress in this career	96.78	97.86	97.32
4. Salary which you get, indicate you progress in this career	71.68	82.48	77.08
5. You intend to get higher position in the future	83.47	51.93	67.70
6. You intend to work at this university, not change the place	93.82	96.64	95.23
7. You intent to be universities members, not change the career	94.73	99.45	97.09

6. Demographic Characteristics of Lecturer Level 7

Demographic Characteristics	Male (n=15)		Female(n=15)		Total (n=30)	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
1. Age						
1.1 35 – 39 years	1	6.67	2	13.33	3	10.00
1.2 40 – 44 years	2	13.33	4	26.67	6	20.00
1.3 45 – 49 years	3	20.00	5	33.33	8	26.67
1.4 50 – 54 years	6	40.00	3	20.00	9	30.00
1.3 55 – 59 years	3	20.00	1	6.67	4	13.33
2. Highest Educational Level						
2.1 Master	8	53.33	11	73.33	19	63.33
2.2 Doctoral	7	46.67	4	26.67	11	36.67
3. Place of Highest Educational Level						
3.1 Thailand	9	60.00	10	66.67	19	63.33
3.2 Abroad	6	40.00	5	33.33	11	36.67
4. Are of Concentration						
4.1 Science and Technology	5	33.33	5	33.33	10	33.33
4.2 Health Science	5	33.33	5	33.33	10	33.33
4.3 Social Science and Humanities	5	33.33	5	33.33	10	33.33

6. Demographic Characteristics of Lecturer Level 7 (Continued)

Demographic Characteristics	Male (n=15)		Female(n=15)		Total (n=30)	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
5. Marital Status						
5.1 Single	2	13.33	4	26.67	6	20.00
5.2 Married	12	80.00	9	60.00	21	70.00
5.3 Widowed, Divorced	1	6.67	2	13.33	3	10.00
6. Number of Children						
6.1 None	4	26.67	5	33.33	9	30.00
6.2 One	2	13.33	3	20.00	5	16.67
6.3 Two	6	40.00	4	26.67	10	33.33
6.4 ≥ Three	3	20.00	3	20.00	6	20.00
7. Academic Position						
7.1 Lecturer 7	15	100	15	100	30	100
8. Income per Month						
8.1 20,000 – 29,999 Bath	1	6.67	2	13.33	3	10.00
8.2 30,000 – 39,999 Bath	11	73.33	12	80.00	23	76.67
8.3 40,000 – 49,999 Bath	3	20.00	1	6.67	4	13.33
9. Official Duration						
9.1 10 – 14 years	1	6.67	2	13.33	3	10.00
9.2 15 – 19 years	7	46.67	3	20.00	10	33.33
9.3 20 – 24 years	5	33.33	7	46.67	12	40.00
9.4 25 – 29 years	2	13.33	3	20.00	5	16.67
10. Administrative Position						
10.1 None	3	20.00	8	53.33	11	36.66
10.2 At Department	5	33.33	4	26.67	9	30.00
10.3 At Faculty	6	40.00	2	13.33	8	26.67
10.4 At University	1	6.67	1	6.67	2	6.67
11. Position of Start Working						
11.1 Private Companies or Authorities	1	6.67	0	0	1	3.33
11.2 Other Government Service	5	33.33	3	20.00	8	26.67
11.3 Teacher in Primary or Secondary School	3	20.00	4	26.67	7	23.33
11.4 Lecturer in Universities	6	40.00	7	46.67	13	43.33
11.5 Owner or Business family	0	0	1	6.67	1	3.33

7. Working Behavior of Lecturer Level 7

Working Behavior	Male (n=15)	Female (n=15)	Total (n=30)
1. Working in Organizational			
1.1 You teach appropriately in course subject and your qualification	74.92	70.13	72.53
1.2 You teach in course subject with your competence and interest	78.45	72.36	75.41
1.3 You teach as well as research in each course subject	75.38	75.79	75.59
1.4 You are invited by others organization to be a special lecturer	62.27	51.42	56.85
1.5 You get appropriately the total of course subject and teaching hour in each semester	73.84	71.33	72.59
1.6 You joined the academic conference in Thailand once per year	54.45	56.78	55.62
1.7 You joined the academic conference in abroad once per year	30.76	22.14	26.45
1.8 You presented your research result in Thailand once times per year	29.25	27.58	28.42
1.9 You presented your research result in abroad once per year	21.62	14.83	18.23
1.10 You published your text, book, article or other academic work once per year	31.71	27.87	29.79
1.11 Your arrived early at office for preparing your teaching or research	39.48	42.57	41.03
1.12 Your take back your subject matter or your research to do at home	35.92	40.11	38.02
1.13 You take back your student's exercises to correct at home	41.34	49.82	45.58
1.14 You take your time after office hour in each day to do research or further academies	43.71	36.65	40.18
1.15 You take your time in holiday to do additional works	42.86	34.73	38.80
1.16 You got the financial supported to study abroad	11.44	8.45	9.95
1.17 You got the financial supported to study in Thailand	13.82	10.15	11.99
1.18 You got the financial supported to publish academic works	8.31	5.24	6.78
1.19 You got the research fund for your own	12.07	9.32	10.70
1.20 You got the research fund for group	35.93	44.67	40.30

7. Working Behavior of Lecturer Level 7 (Continued)

Working Behavior	Male (n=15)	Female (n=15)	Total (n=30)
1.21 You got the scholar for short course training, visiting exchange program both in Thailand and abroad	7.18	4.23	5.71
1.22 You got the sabbatical leave permission	2.09	1.28	1.69
2. Household Tasks			
2.1 Buy food and subsistent things	64.79	79.52	72.16
2.2 Prepare food and cooking	58.47	83.48	70.98
2.3 Clean kitchen utensil	60.65	85.67	73.16
2.4 Clean house and furniture	59.22	78.46	68.84
2.5 Clean and decorate lawn, garden, sidewalk etc.	67.81	62.33	65.07
2.6 Clean clothes	55.09	75.54	65.32
2.7 Manage household expenditure	92.40	88.92	90.66
2.8 Take care of young children	72.89	81.54	77.22
2.9 Take care of old parents or relatives	57.78	74.82	66.30
2.10 Take care of sickly parents or relatives	44.81	63.27	54.04

8. Opinion of Lecturer Level 7 concerning Gender Identities

Gender Identities	Male (n=15)	Female (n=15)	Total (n=30)
1. Males have more self confidence than females	88.34	90.21	89.28
2. Males have more enthusiasm than females	90.13	92.49	91.31
3. Males have more self control than females	85.72	87.64	86.68
4. Males have more decision making than females	89.81	91.73	90.77
5. Males have more make an adjustment than females	82.46	84.68	83.57
6. Females have more endeavor and patience than males	80.91	86.34	83.63
7. Females have more exhaustiveness and meticulous than males	87.19	91.32	89.26
8. Females have more human relations than males	71.26	75.81	73.54
9. Females have more dedication and commitment than males	62.15	73.95	68.05
10. Females have more coordination than males	70.78	81.74	76.26

9. Gender Attitude of Lecturer Level 7

Gender Attitude	Male (n=15)	Female (n=15)	Total (n=30)
1. In the same administrative position, males are more accepted than females	82.66	90.43	86.55
2. In the same organization, males are more promoted than females	85.17	91.82	88.50
3. In the same qualification, males have more opportunities than females	83.25	88.70	85.98
4. In the same age and experience, males are recognized and reliable than females	84.74	87.39	86.07
5. In the same job level, males are expected than females	71.43	79.85	75.64

10. Opinions of Lecturer Level 7 Concerning the Subjective Career Progress

The Subjective Career progress	Male (n=15)	Female (n=15)	Total (n=30)
1. Universities members get the career progress more than others careers	90.75	94.22	92.49
2. University where you work, make you progress in this career	82.32	89.71	86.02
3. Position which you act, indicate you progress in this career	80.14	82.26	81.20
4. Salary which you get, indicate you progress in this career	50.98	55.64	53.31
5. You intend to get higher position in the future	62.62	58.45	60.54
6. You intend to work at this university, not change the place	91.78	94.19	92.99
7. You intent to be universities members, not change the career	93.81	95.33	94.57

BIOGRAPHY

NAME	Suwichai Kosaiyawat
ACADEMIC BACKGROUND	Bachelor of Education Chulalongkorn University, 1984. Bachelor of Arts (Political Science in International Relations) Ramkhamhaeng University,1990 Master of Education (Foundations of Education) Chulalongkorn University, 1990
PRESENT POSITION	Associate Professor Faculty of Education Burapha University Bangsaen Chon Buri.

สัญญาอนุญาตให้เผยแพร่วิทยานิพนธ์

ทำที่ สถาบันบัณฑิตพัฒนบริหารศาสตร์
คลองจั่น บางกะปิ กรุงเทพฯ

วันที่ 2 เดือน พฤศจิกายน พ.ศ. 2552

สัญญาฉบับนี้ทำขึ้นระหว่าง นายสุริยัน โกสัยยะวัฒน์
ที่อยู่เลขที่ 2001/68 หมู่ - ถนน ประดิษฐ์มนูธรรม แขวง ลาดพร้าว
เขต ลาดพร้าว จังหวัด กรุงเทพฯ ซึ่งต่อไปในสัญญานี้เรียกว่า "ผู้อนุญาต"
ฝ่ายหนึ่ง กับ สถาบันบัณฑิตพัฒนบริหารศาสตร์ โดย
คณบดีคณะ สุกัญญา ประยูรกาศ สถาบันบัณฑิตพัฒนบริหารศาสตร์
ที่อยู่เลขที่ 118 หมู่ ถนน เสรีไทย แขวง คลองจั่น
เขต บางกะปิ จังหวัด กรุงเทพฯ ซึ่งต่อไปในสัญญานี้เรียกว่า "ผู้รับอนุญาต"
อีกฝ่ายหนึ่ง คู่สัญญาทั้งสองฝ่ายได้ตกลงทำสัญญามีข้อความดังต่อไปนี้

1. ผลงานลิขสิทธิ์

ผู้อนุญาตเป็นเจ้าของลิขสิทธิ์งานวิทยานิพนธ์ เรื่อง ความแตกต่างของปัจจัยที่มีผลต่อการตัดสินใจซื้อสินค้าประเภทเครื่องสำอางของผู้บริโภคในเขตกรุงเทพมหานคร
ซึ่งสร้างสรรค์ โดย นายสุริยัน โกสัยยะวัฒน์ ผู้อนุญาตรับรองว่า เป็นผู้สร้างสรรค์งานขึ้นเอง

2. เงื่อนไขการอนุญาต

ผู้อนุญาต ตกลงให้ผู้รับอนุญาตใช้สิทธิดังต่อไปนี้

2.1 ผู้รับอนุญาตมีสิทธิเผยแพร่ต่อสาธารณชน ซึ่งงานวิทยานิพนธ์ตามข้อ (1) เพื่อประโยชน์ในการวิจัย หรือศึกษา อันมิได้มีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อหากำไร

2.2 ผู้อนุญาตอนุญาตให้ผู้รับอนุญาตใช้สิทธิตาม 2.1 เพื่อใช้ในห้องสมุดและเครือข่ายอินเทอร์เน็ตของห้องสมุด สถาบันบัณฑิตพัฒนบริหารศาสตร์ รวมทั้งเครือข่ายอินเทอร์เน็ตของโครงการพัฒนาเครือข่ายห้องสมุดในประเทศไทย (ThaiLIS)

3. การโอนสิทธิและ / หรือหน้าที่ตามสัญญานี้

ผู้อนุญาตและผู้รับอนุญาตไม่สามารถโอนสิทธิและหรือหน้าที่ ความรับผิดชอบของตนตามสัญญาฉบับนี้ให้แก่บุคคลภายนอกได้ เว้นแต่จะได้รับความยินยอมเป็นลายลักษณ์อักษรจากอีกฝ่ายก่อน

4. สิทธิของเจ้าของลิขสิทธิ์

ภายใต้บังคับแห่งสัญญาฉบับนี้ ผู้อนุญาตยังคงเป็นเจ้าของลิขสิทธิ์ในงานวิทยานิพนธ์ตามสัญญานี้ทุกประการ

สัญญานี้ทำขึ้นเป็นสองฉบับมีข้อความถูกต้องครบถ้วน คู่สัญญาได้อ่านและเข้าใจข้อความในสัญญาโดยตลอดดีแล้ว จึงลงลายมือชื่อพร้อมทั้งประทับตรา (ถ้ามี) ไว้เป็นสำคัญต่อหน้าพยานและเก็บไว้ฝ่ายละหนึ่งฉบับ

ลงชื่อ.....ผู้อนุญาต
(.....)

ลงชื่อ.....ผู้รับอนุญาต
(.....)

ลงชื่อ.....พยาน
(.....)

ลงชื่อ.....พยาน
(.....)