

THE FACTORS INFLUENCING CAREER CHOICE
OF EXPERIENCED WORKERS

by

Ms. Jirapan Chienpairoj

A Final Report of the Three-Credit Course
CE 6998 Project

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Master of Science
in Computer and Engineering Management
Assumption University

July 2002

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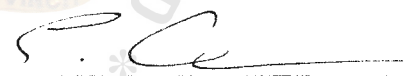
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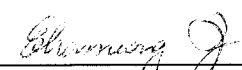
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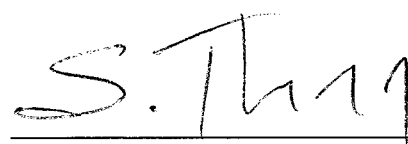
The Graduate School of Assumption University has approved this final report of the three-credit course, CE 6998 PROJECT, submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science in Computer and Engineering Management.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research is to study the factors which influence career choice for experienced workers and use the result of the study as a guideline creating the motivation factors that lead to long-time work and suitable matching.

Methodology of this research is based upon descriptive method and questionnaires to collect information. This research has been conducted on the sample limited in terms of age, education and work location. The researcher has set the sample size by using statistical formula and collected questionnaires to gather information. After getting the rough data, it is transformed into numeric data by using SPSS P/C software to calculate. Frequency, Mean, Standard Deviation, Correlation Spearman Rho and ANOVA are used as the tools for statistical analysis.

The researcher justifies the hypothesis by setting independent variables such as age, education, experience, gender and income, whereas, salary, position, parent / closed up's opinion, organization and location are set as dependent variables.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This research could not have been complete without the help and guidance mainly from my advisor and from many others.

I express my sincere gratitude and deep appreciation to my advisor, Dr. Thanatphong Pratheepthaweephon for his assistance and guidance throughout the study. I also would like to express my appreciation to the committee members for the research acceptance.

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All the correspondents who devoted their time to complete the questionnaires.

I am deeply grateful to my parents and my family, for their life long support. Their willingness to invest for my future has enabled me to achieve my educational goal.

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I. INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Background

Having a career is something significant in life since it generates an income and brings many things to life---- economical status, social status as well as mental health. Careers desired by each person are different, depending on various factors: family background, social status, economic status and personal desire. Some may dream for a career with high income. Some may look for a stable career with dignity and regular income while others want an independent career.

To secure a career various correlated factors should be taken into consideration. Economic condition is one of them and it seems to be an outstanding one with the current economic slump in Thailand.

In July 1997, when the Thai government made an announcement of a devaluation of the Thai baht after which the country suffered an economic crisis. Business enterprises started to cut costs. Some downsized and laid off some of their employees while others became out of business which still affects until present.

At present, most employees hold only a Bachelor's Degree. It is difficult for people with the first degree only to find a job in this economic situation. Thus, more and more employees try to upgrade by furthering their studies in higher levels for example Master's Degree, taking language courses, and computer course, etc. . . to generate more money or to obtain better jobs.

We can observe that every employment relationship is a pair of a job slot with an individual who holds the job. So, it is possible to study the jobs by studying the individuals who hold them. Conversely, it is possible to study the individuals by studying their occupations.

Based on the above mentioned, the reseacher is interested in factors influence career choice for experienced workers: whether they have a plan for their future career, how they choose their career and what factors involves in choosing the career.

1.2 The Importance of the Study

Human being is the most important resource in an organization. A company needs to invest in upgrading them to fulfill the company's requirements and achieve the objectives. The result of this study can identify the factors influence career choice for experienced workers. In addition, the result can be beneficial as follows:

- (1) The employers can understand what factors influence career choice of the experienced workers.
- (2) It can save the company's cost and time in recruiting & training process and keep the potential employees.
- (3) The company can use the result as the guidelines to motivate the employees to work for the company longer and to be more productive.
- (4) The employers or the executive management level can apply the result to improve the standard of their work place. It will satisfy the employees so that the employees will be more efficient & loyal to their organization.
- (5) The employees can develop themselves to improve their job in the future.

1.3 The Objectives of the Study

- (1) To study the factors involved in choosing the career.
- (2) To use the result of the study as a guideline creating the motivation factors that lead to long-time work and suitable matching

1.4 Hypothesis

- (1) There is a significant relationship between age and salary toward experienced worker's career choice
- (2) There is a significant relationship between education and salary toward experienced worker's career choice
- (3) There is a significant relationship between experience and salary toward experienced worker's career choice
- (4) There is a significant relationship between gender and position toward experienced worker's career choice
- (5) There is a significant relationship between age and position toward experienced worker's career choice
- (6) There is a significant relationship between education and position toward experienced worker's career choice
- (7) There is a significant relationship between experience and position toward experienced worker's career choice
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- (12) There is a significant relationship between income and organization toward experienced worker's career choice

- (13) There is a significant relationship between education and organization toward experienced worker's career choice
- (14) There is a significant relationship between income and location toward experienced worker's career choice

1.5 Scope and Limitation

The researcher collects the information based on the following:

- (1) Employee: working in Bangkok in private sectors.
- (2) Education : from Diploma to Master's degree in any field.
- (3). Age: from 18 years to 55 years old

1.6 Research Methodology

This research is a descriptive study. The methodology is defined below:

- (1) Data Collection
 - (a) The researcher will use the questionnaires to find the answers
 - (b) The type of the questionnaire is close-ended
- (2) Sampling Method
 - (a) The researcher collects samples from employees age 20-50 years who work in private sectors in Bangkok
 - (b) Plans to collect 200 samples
 - (c) Uses random sampling
- (3) Data Analysis
 - (a) Use the SPSS/PC software program as a statistic interpretation to analyze the data
 - (b) Scoring of the questionnaire is as follows:

<u>Response Choice</u>	<u>Scoring Weight</u>
Strongly disagree	1 point

Disagree	2 points
Neither disagree nor agree	3 points
Agree	4 points
Strongly agree	5 points

1.7 Definition of the Terms

- (1) Experienced worker: The people who are employed by private sectors in Bangkok
- (2) Organization: The private company in the Bangkok
- (3) Private sector: The company owned by a businessman not by the government
- (4) Random Sampling: The process of selecting a sample in such a way that all individuals in the defined population have an equal and independent chance of being selected for the sample
- (5) Career Choice: Act of choosing occupations with more possible opportunities for advancement
- (6) Business area: Silom, Sathorn, Sukhumvit, RamaIV and Petchburi

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

This study has referred to the following related concepts and theories in setting hypotheses in this research. There are several theories that can be used to describe how experienced workers decide to choose career choice as follows:

2.1 Maslow's Motivation and Personality Theory

Maslow says human behavior is driven by a need and one will be satisfied when one's need is fulfilled. He believes that these needs can be arranged in order of hierarchy. Once a need is satisfied, it no longer acts as a motivator. Therefore, to motivate that person again, we have to arouse the need of the next level. However, each level of needs may overlap. The hierarchy of needs is as follows:

- (1) **Physiological needs:** are the most basic needs, not created by learning, such as hunger, thirst, sleepiness, etc. Therefore, needs for food, sleep and residence are elemental necessities which sustain and perpetuate life. These basic needs are much available among needy people with low income who earn to satisfy their hunger, etc.
- (2) **Safety needs:** When physiological needs are satisfied, people will desire for protection from danger or threat at the same time as seeking stability, property and career to ensure that they have a permanent career or have an income after retirement. Career is the source of income to sustain life and satisfy physiological needs.
- (3) **Love needs:** These are related to people's desire for companionship, for belonging, acceptance, friendship, and love, referred to as "social needs". People join social and professional clubs or organizations to meet their social needs.

- (4) Esteem needs: This higher-order need refers to need for power, success, high status, fame, recognition, etc. It consists of the need for self esteem and the need for esteem from others. This kind of needs is very significant among people of any groups, often found in people in high positions or with high education.
- (5) Self Actualization needs: The highest level of needs after other needs are satisfied. The need is described as the need for self-fulfillment, creative expression and a sense of realization of one's potential which will be used to satisfy one's needs.



Figure 2.1. Hierarchy of Human Needs.

From Maslow's theory, we can see that the first basic needs are physiological needs such as appropriate wages, welfare benefits as well as stability in a job, considered an economic return. Therefore, an influential factor for career choice is economic return. Then a hypothesis can be fixed as economic return influences career choice.

2.2 ERG Theory

Closely related to Maslow's theory is the ERG theory developed by Clayton Alderfer. Instead of populating five types or levels of need, Alderfer suggests three basic human needs: Existence needs, Relatedness needs, and Growth needs. They encompass Maslow's needs and can be satisfied by some aspects of the job or work environment (Alderfer 1972).

Existence needs are the lowest level needs and are concerned with physical survival. They include the obvious needs for food, water, shelter, and physical safety. An employer can satisfy these needs through salary, fringe benefit, a safe working environment, and some measure of job security. Existence needs relate to tangible environmental goals such as being able to buy food and shelter.

Relatedness needs involve interactions with other people and the satisfactions they can bring in the form of emotional support, respect, recognition, and a sense of belonging. These needs can be satisfied on the job by social relationships with co-workers and off the job by friends and family.

Growth needs focus on the self and include the need for personal growth and development, which can be satisfied only by using one's capabilities to the fullest. This conception includes Maslow's self-esteem and self-actualization needs. Both aspects, esteem and growth, must be satisfied. A job can provide satisfaction of the growth needs if it involves challenge, autonomy, and creativity.

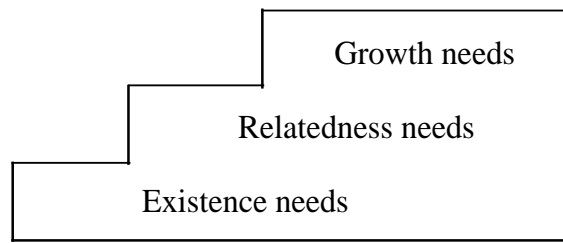


Figure 2.2. ERG Theory Dimension (Aamodt 1991).

Although Alderfer's theory is concerned with the same needs as Maslow's, it views the needs as operating in different ways. The ERG needs as Maslow's are hierarchical. More than one of the ERG needs can operate at the same time. Satisfaction of one need does not lead automatically to the emergence of higher need.

Another difference between Maslow's theory and Alderfer's theory is that frustration of one of Alderfer's higher needs (relatedness and growth) may lead to a reversion to a lower need. Maslow stated that a person will persevere to satisfy a need. For example, in Alderfer's theory, if a worker's relatedness need is not being satisfied, he or she may give up on it and focus instead on existence needs. In practical terms, this means that the worker may demand higher pay or fringe benefits as compensation for failing to satisfy the relatedness needs.

Maslow believed that once a need is satisfied it no longer motivates the individual. Alderfer suggests that satisfaction of a need may increase its intensity. If, for example, a job affords a great deal of challenge, autonomy, and creativity, the growth needs, instead of being fulfilled, might become stronger, necessitating additional autonomy and challenge for satisfaction.

Alderfer's theory is appealing on intuitive and logical grounds and is seen as more directly applicable to the motivation of people at work. Despite its promise, however,

relatively little research has been conducted on it. The theory does have more empirical support than Maslow's theory, but not all the studies, not even those by Alderfer himself, have been positive (Wanous & Zwany 1977).

2.3 Motivator-hygiene Theory

The motivator-hygiene theory, combining motivation and job satisfaction, was proposed by Frederick Herzberg in 1959. Although controversial, the theory is a simple one and has stimulated vast amounts of research yielding important implications for the structure of some jobs. It also had ramifications on actual job design, the way in which various jobs are performed (Herzberg 1966-1974).

Herzberg's theory is similar, in part, to Maslow's needs-hierarchy formulation. The premise of the motivator-hygiene theory is that lower level needs have generally been satisfied in contemporary society. Where they have not, job dissatisfaction is the result. However, the reverse is not true. The fulfillment of basic needs does not produce job satisfaction. Only higher order needs such as self-actualization are capable of producing satisfaction. But, failure to find self-actualization in a job does not necessarily lead to dissatisfaction.

Thus, there are two sets of needs: those that produce job satisfaction and those that produce job dissatisfaction. They are separate, the presence or absence of one set of needs does not produce the opposite condition.

Herzberg calls the factors that produce job satisfaction motivator needs — they motivate the worker to the highest possible level of performance. These motivators are intrinsic to or inherent in the work itself and include the nature of the work and the person's sense of achievement, level of responsibility, and personal development and advancement. Notice the similarity between these factors, Maslow's self-actualization needs, and Alderfer's growth needs. The motivator needs can be satisfied only by

stimulating, challenging, and absorbing work.

The factors that produce job dissatisfaction are the hygiene (or maintenance) needs. They have little power to produce satisfaction. They have nothing to do with the nature of the work itself but rather involve administrative practices, type of supervision, interpersonal relations, company benefits, and working conditions. Thus, they are extrinsic to or outside of the actual job tasks.

The hygiene needs are roughly analogous to Maslow's lower order needs (physiological, safety, and love needs). Just as Maslow's needs hierarchy theory postulates that lower order needs must be satisfied before one is affected by higher order needs, so in Herzberg's theory, hygiene needs must be satisfied before attention is paid to motivator needs. It is important to remember, however, that satisfaction of hygiene needs will not produce job satisfaction, merely and absence of dissatisfaction.

Herzberg's theory is controversial. Although it was influential in the world of work in the 1970s and led to the redesign of many jobs, it has also been criticized. Research by I/O psychologists both supports and contradicts the theory, but overall its scientific validity is low and it is declining in popularity in both academic and applied circles.

Three primary criticism of Herzberg's theory is directed against the alleged mutual independence of the two factors or needs, motivator and hygiene, in Herzberg's view, only motivator needs can produce job satisfaction and only hygiene needs can produce job dissatisfaction. Critics suggest that some of Herzberg's hygiene factors — for example, praise from a supervisor could also act as motivators because they provide recognition for achievement. And, as we discussed, achievement is a motivator and hygiene factors are not as rigid as Herzberg indicated. Some extrinsic aspects of work may serve as motivators in addition to the intrinsic aspects of the job.

There is ample evidence to suggest, for example, that at least one hygiene factor, physical working condition, is related to job satisfaction. The physical environment in which a job is performed-plus the variety of environment factors such lighting, temperature, and noise level have been shown to be capable of affecting job satisfaction (Sundstrom 1986).

As we shall see, pay and extrinsic factor, has been positively related to job satisfaction. Thus, it can be suggested that the changing values of the American worker have rendered Herzberg's theory less appropriate today. "The assumption that intrinsic satisfactions are better than extrinsic ones is one that varies with current social mores. In time of social commitment such as the 1960s, was to pursue your true self in your work. In more materialistic periods such as today, extrinsic motives seem to be more important and desirable to many people" (Osipow 1986, p.144).

Despite these criticisms, Herzbergs' theory did help to focus interest on the importance of the intrinsic aspects of the job and their ability to motivate workers. It also spawned the concept of job enrichment.

According to Herzberg, much of a person's satisfaction and motivation derive from the intrinsic nature of work. It follows that a job could be redesigned to maximize the motivator factors. This effort, known as job enrichment, was a major impact of Herzberg's theory. Herzberg suggested the following ways of enriching a job:

- (1) Remove some of the controls over employees and increase their personal accountability or responsibility for their own work.
- (2) Provide employees with complete or natural units of work where possible. For example, instead of having them make one component of a unit, let them produce the whole unit.

- (3) Give employees additional authority and freedom in their work.
- (4) Provide reports on production on a regular basis directly to the workers instead of to their supervisors.
- (5) Encourage workers to take on new and more difficult tasks.
- (6) Assign highly specialized tasks so that workers can become expert in a particular task or operation.

All of these proposals have the goal of increasing personal growth and advancement, enhancing the sense of achievement and responsibility, and providing recognition; in other words, they all facilitate the satisfaction of the motivator needs.

Initial reports on the application of job enrichment told of impressive increases in production and morale and decreases in turnover and absenteeism. Unfortunately, many of these accounts were misleading and were based on poorly designed research, which often did not utilize control groups. Sometimes, changes said to have occurred on the job did not, in fact, take place. Also, some reports omitted mention of other changes introduced in the workplace that could have been responsible for any improvements in job performance.

Because it provides an example of the pitfalls of unscientific research, let us consider one of the most frequently cited cases of the successful implementation of a job enrichment program, that involving the janitorial employees at the Texas Instruments Company (Work in America 1973). The company fired the firm that had been contracted to provide maintenance services and hired its own janitorial staff instead.

Texas Instruments enriched the jobs of its new employees by giving full responsibility and accountability to each worker. Instead of having a supervisor delegate and oversee the work, the janitors decided among themselves how the work

would be divided and scheduled. They were also responsible for setting approach, it was reported, the facilities were kept cleaner than before and the work force was reduced from 120 to 71 persons. Also, turnover declined from a staggering 100% to a mere 10%.

However, the research report neglected to mention two important changes that were made in the working conditions at the same time, changes that had nothing to do with job enrichment. The company raised the starting pay for the janitorial jobs by 46% and added fringe benefits such as health insurance, sick leave, paid vacations, and profit sharing, benefits that had not been available to workers' pay. Further, by providing such incentives, the company was able to recruit more qualified workers (Fein 1974).

We can not conclude that the ways in which the janitorial jobs were enriched contributed nothing to the increase in performance and the reduction in turnover. But neither can we ignore the possible impact of the extrinsic factors, that is, the better pay and fringe benefits. Because the research did not control for these additional variables, we cannot be certain that the changes in employee behavior resulted solely from the job enrichment program.

Herzberg maintains that job enrichment is "the key to designing work that motivates employees" (Herzberg 1987, p.120) in the workplace today, his approach to redesigning jobs is rarely applied, but the principles on which it was based can be seen in newer attempts to change the nature of work. Also the motivator-hygiene theory has led to consideration of the question. What specific characteristics of the job are being enriched?

To help answer this question another theory of motivation was proposed. It is called the job-characteristic theory and it focused on job characteristics and individual differences in growth needs among workers.

Table 2.1. Examples Rom Herzberg's Two Factors Theory (Aamodt 1991).

<u>Hygiene Factors</u>	<u>Motivators</u>
Pay	Responsibility
Security	Growth
Co-workers	Challenge
Working Conditions	Stimulation
Company policy	Independence
Work schedule	Variety
Supervisors	Achievement
	Control
	Interesting work

2.4 McClelland's Need Theory

We consider focuses on personality, as opposed to satisfaction-dissatisfaction or a hierarchy of needs. Henry Murray developed a long list of motives and manifest needs in his early studies of personality. David McClelland was an psychologist inspired by Murray's early work. McClelland identified three learned or acquired needs he called manifest needs. These manifest needs were the needs for achievement, for power, and for affiliation. Individuals and national cultures differ in their levels of these needs.

Some individuals have a high need of achievement, whereas others have a moderate or low need for achievement. Each need has quite different implications for people's behavior. The Murray Thematic Apperception (TAT) was used as an early measure of the achievement motive and was further developed, both qualitatively and quantitatively, by McClelland and his associates.

(1) Need for Achievement

The need for achievement concerns issues of excellence, competition, challenging goals, persistence, and overcoming difficulties. A person with a high need for achievement is one who seeks excellence in performance, enjoys difficult and challenging goals, and is persevering and competitive in work activities.

McClelland found that people with a high need for achievement perform better than those with a moderate or low need for achievement, and he has noted national differences in achievement motivation. Individuals with a high need for achievement have three unique characteristics. First, they set moderately difficult goals, yet ones that are achievable, because they want both challenge and good chance for success. Second, they like to receive feedback on their progress toward these goals. Because it is important to them, they like to know how they are doing. Third, they do not like having external events or other people interfere with their progress toward the goals. They are most comfortable working on individual tasks and activities that they control.

High achievers often hope and plan for success. They may be quite content to work alone or with other people—whichever is most appropriate

to their task. High achievers like being very good at what they do, and they establish expertise and competence in their chosen endeavors.

People with moderate and low needs for achievement will be satisfied with less challenging goals, lower levels of excellence, and less persistence in the face of difficulty. However, these same people may have high needs for power or affiliation.

(2) Need for Power

The need for power is concerned with making an impact on others, the desire to influence others, the urge to change people or events, and the desire to make a difference in life. The need for power is interpersonal, because it involves influence attempts directed at other people. People with a high need for power are people who like to be in control of people and events. McClelland makes an important distinction between socialized power, which is used for the social benefit of many, and personalized power, which is used for the personal gain of the individual. The former is a constructive force in organizations, whereas the latter may be a very disruptive, destructive force in organizations.

A high need for power was one distinguishing characteristic of managers rated the "best" in McClelland's research. Specifically, the best managers had a very high need for socialized power, used for the collective well-being of the group, as opposed to personalized power. These managers are concerned for others; have an interest in the organization's larger goals; and have a desire to be useful to the larger group, organization, and society.

Social and hierarchical status are important considerations for people with a high need for power. The more they are able to rise to the top of their organizations, the greater is their ability to exercise power, influence, and control so as to make an impact.

(3) Need for Affiliation

The **need for affiliation** is concerned with establishing and maintaining warm, close, intimate relationships with other people. People with a high need for affiliation are motivated to express their emotions and feelings to others while expecting other people to do the same in return. They find conflicts and complications in their relationships disturbing and are strongly motivated to work through any such barriers to closeness. The relationships they have with others are therefore close and personal, emphasizing friendship and companionship.

People who have moderate to low needs for affiliation are more likely to feel comfortable working alone for extended periods of time. Modest or low levels of interaction with others are likely to satisfy these people's affiliation needs, allowing them to focus their attention on other needs and activities. People with a high need for affiliation, in contrast, always hope to be included in a range of interpersonal activities, in or away from work. They may play important integrative roles in group or intergroup activities because they work to achieve harmony and closeness in all relationships.

Over and above these three needs, Murray's manifest needs theory included the need for autonomy. This is the desire for independence and freedom from any constraints. People with a high need for autonomy like to

work alone and to control the pace of their work. They dislike bureaucratic rules, regulations, and procedures.

	Maslow	Alderfer		Herzberg	McClelland
Higher order needs	Self-actualization	Growth	Motivational factors	The work itself: *Responsibility *Advancement *Growth	Need for achievement
	Esteem				
	Belongingness (social and love)	Relatedness		Achievement Recognition	Need for power
Lower Order needs	Safety and Security	Existence	Hygiene factors	Quality of inter-personal working relationship	Need for affiliation
	Physiological			Job security Work conditions Salary	

Figure 2.3. Four Need Theories of Motivation.

2.5 McGregor's Theory X, Theory Y

One important organizational implication of the need hierarchy concerns how to manage people at work. Douglas McGregor understood people's motivation using Maslow's need theory. He grouped the physiological and safety needs as "lower-order" needs and the social, esteem, and self-actualization needs as "upper-order" needs. McGregor proposed two alternative sets of assumptions about people at work based

upon which set of needs were the motivators. He labeled these sets of assumptions Theory X and Theory Y. Regardless of people's motivation to work, McGregor saw the responsibility of management as being the same. Specially, "management is responsible for organizing the elements of productive enterprise—money, materials, equipment, people — in the interest of economic ends."

According to McGregor, people should be treated differently according to whether they are motivated by lower-order or higher-order needs. Specifically, McGregor believed that Theory X assumptions are appropriate for employees motivated by lower-order needs. Theory Y assumptions, in contrast, are appropriate for employees motivated by higher-order needs, and Theory X assumptions are then inappropriate. In addition, McGregor believed that in the 1950s, when he was writing, the majority of American workers had satisfied their lower-order needs and were therefore motivated by higher-order needs.

Employee participation programs are one consequence of McGregor's Theory Y assumptions. Ford Motor Company's first step in revitalizing its workforce through an employee involvement (EI) program is based on Theory Y assumptions about human nature. However, some companies, such as Lincoln Electric, use money as the chief source of employee motivation.

Table 2.2. Theory X and Theory Y.

Theory X	Theory Y
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ People are by nature indolent. That is, they work as little as possible. ▶ People lack ambition, dislike responsibility, and prefer to be led. <p>0.- People are inherently self-centered and indifferent to organizational needs.</p> <p>People are by nature resistant to Change.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ People are gullible and not very the ready dupes of the charlatan and the demagogue 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ People are not by nature passive or resistant to organizational needs. They have become so as a result of experience in organizations. ▶ The motivation, the potential for development, the capacity for assuming Responsibility, and the readiness to direct behavior toward organizational goals are all present in people. Management does not put them there. It is a responsibility of to make it possible for people to recognize and develop these human characteristics for themselves. ▶ The essential task of management is to arrange conditions and methods of operation so that people can achieve their own goals best by directing their own effort toward organizational objectives

Source: D.M.McGregor, "The Human Side of Enterprise," Management Review, November 1957: 22-28, 88-92. Reprinted by permission of the publisher, from Management Review, November 1957, Copyright 1957, American Management Association, New York. All right reserved.

2.6 Expectancy Theory of Motivation

Whereas Adam's theory of inequity focuses on a social process, Vroom's expectancy theory of motivation focuses on personal perceptions. His theory is founded on the basic notions that people desire certain outcomes of behavior, which may be thought of as rewards or consequences of behavior, and that they believe there are relationships between the effort they put forth, the performance they achieve, and the outcomes they receive. Expectancy theory is a cognitive, process theory of motivation.

The key constructs in the expectancy theory of motivation are the valence of an outcome, expectancy, and instrumentality. Valence is the value or importance one places on a particular reward. Expectancy is the belief that effort leads to performance (for example, "If I try hard, I can do better"). Instrumentality is the belief that performance is related to the rewards (for example, "If I perform better, I will get more pay"). A model for the expectancy theory notions of effort, performance, and rewards is depicted in Figure 2.4.

Valence, expectancy, and instrumentality are all important to a person's motivation. Expectancy and instrumentality concern a person's beliefs about how effort, performance, and rewards are related. For example, a person may firmly believe that an increase in effort has a direct, positive effect on improved performance and that a reduced amount of effort results in a commensurate reduction in performance. Another person may have a very different set of beliefs about the effort-performance link. The person might believe that regardless of possible. Therefore, the perceived relationship between effort and performance varies from person to person and from activity to activity.

Valence-Instrumentality-Expectancy (VIE) Theory, asserts that people make

choices based on their perceived expectancy that certain rewards will follow if they behave in a particular way (Vroom 1964). In the workplace, employees will choose to perform to some degree that results in the greatest payoff or benefit. They will be motivated to work hard if they believe that this effort leads to positive outcomes, such as, a promotion or higher pay and if those outcomes will be instrumental in leading to other desired outcomes.

The psychological value, or valence, of the reward varies with the individual. In other words, employees' perceptions of the importance of the outcomes determines its strength as a motivator. A high salary and increasing responsibility have a positive valence for many people. Dangerous working conditions have a negative valence for most people. The outcomes may not be as satisfying as we expected, but it is the level of expectancy that determines whether we will work hard to obtain those outcomes.

The three facets of the VIE theory are as follows:

- (a) First, employees must decide whether they expect certain job behaviors, such as, coming to work on time, following safe procedures, or increasing productivity to have a high probability of leading to a particular outcome (expectancy). Expectancy theory is Vroom's formula, which states that $\text{motivation} = \text{expectancy} \times \text{valence}$. In Victor Vroom's theory, motivation depends on how much people want something, and how likely they are to get it. The theory is based on the following assumptions:

- (1) Both internal (needs) and external (environment) factors affect behavior.
- (2) Behavior is the individual's decision
- (3) People have different needs, desires, and goals.

- (4) People make behavioral decisions based on their perceptions of the outcome.

There are two important variables in Vroom's formula which must be met before motivation can take place.

Expectancy: Expectancy refers to the person's perception of his or her ability (probability) to reach an objective. Generally, the higher one's expectancy is, the better the chance for motivation is. When employees do not believe that they can accomplish the task, they will not be motivated to try.

Equally important is the perception of the relationship between worker's performance and the outcome or reward, which increase the strength of motivation. If employees are certain to get the reward, they probably will be motivated. When not sure, employees may not be motivated. For example, Dan believes he could be a good supervisor and wants to get promoted. However, Dan has an external locus of control and believes that hard working will not result in a promotion anyway. Therefore, he will not be motivated to work for the promotion.

- (b) Second, employees must decide whether those outcomes are valuable enough to motivate them to behave in a certain ways (valence).

Valence: Valence refers to the value a person places on the outcome or reward is, the better the chance of motivation is. For example, the supervisor, Jean, wants an employee, Sim, to work harder. Jean talks to Sim and tells him that hard working will result in a promotion. If Sim

wants a promotion, he will probably be motivated. However, if a promotion is not something of importance to Sim, it will not motivate him.

(c) Third, employees must determine whether that outcome will lead to other outcomes: for example, whether a good attendance record leads to a bonus (instrumentality).

Expectancy theory has an intuitive appeal to the management people because of its rational and quantifying approach (Porter and Lawler 1968). The theory has stimulated a lot of discussion and researches among psychologists, resulting in some support and a lot of criticism, pretty much along the lines of their reaction to Behaviorism in fact, from which it is not a million miles removed. That is, while the VIE theory can explain a lot of the immediate motivation behind the workplace behavior that has been studied, there is also a lot that it can't explain (Schwab, Olian-Gottlieb, and Heneman 1979).

Motivation with Expectancy Theory: expectancy theory can accurately predict a person's work effort, satisfaction level, and performance, but only if the correct values are plugged into the formula. Therefore, this theory works in certain contexts but not in others. The following conditions should be implemented to make the theory result in motivation:

- (1) Clearly define objectives and the necessary performance needed to achieve them.
- (2) Tie performance to rewards. High performance should be rewarded. When one employee works harder and produces more than other employees and is not rewarded, he or she may slow down productivity.

- (3) Make sure that rewards are of value to the employee. The supervisor should get to know his or her employees as individuals. Develop good human relations.
- (4) Make sure that your employees believe you will do as you promise. For example, if they do work hard, they must believe you will promote them. And you must do as you promise, so employees will trust you.

Equity theory also works best with employees who have the internal locus of control. Because if they believe they can control their destiny, their efforts will result in success. Expectancy theory does not work well with employees who have an external locus of control because they do not believe in their own efforts. Believing that success is due to fate or chance doesn't motivate them to work harder.

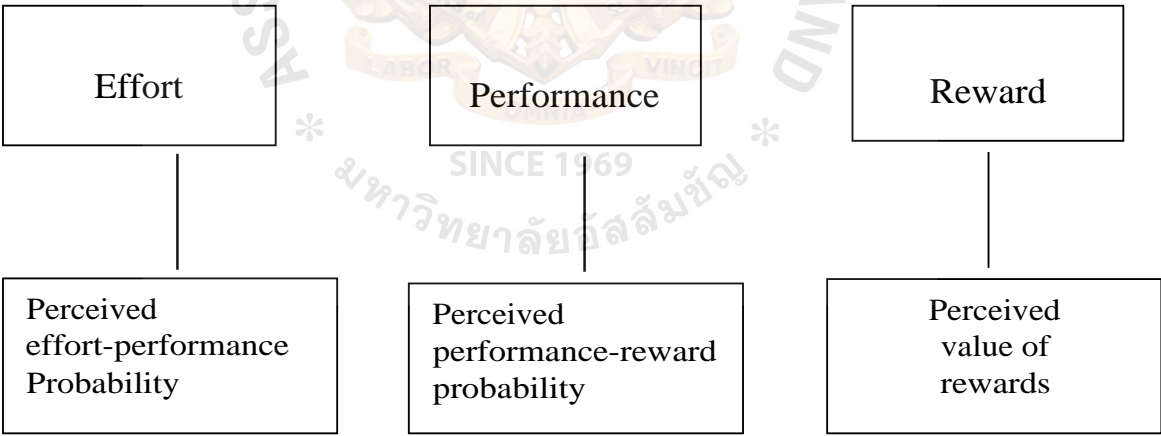


Figure 2.4. An Expectancy Model for Motivation.

2.7 Equity Theory

Equity theory is another example of the theory concerned with the process of motivation, in particular, the cognitive factors involved in the way an individual deals with motivational forces. The cognitive factors emphasized in this case are those that we use, it is suggested, in making social comparisons between the situations of other people and our own.

Comparing our personal situation with that of other individuals and groups is fundamental of the way we make sense of our lives (Statt 1977). Our behavior in the world of work is one aspect of that process. Equity theory is specifically concerned with our senses of fairness and justice about the way we and others are treated at work in terms of the ratios of inputs (like experience, qualifications and effort) to outcomes (like pay, promotion and status). The theory holds that we are pushed psychologically to equalize the two, that means, we perceive quality.

Other psychologists extended the equity theory, suggesting three behavioral response patterns to situations of perceived equity or inequity (Huseman, Hattfield, & Miles 1987). These three types are benevolent, equity sensitive, and entitled patterns. The level of reward received by each type affects motivation, job satisfaction, and job performance.

Benevolent persons: described as altruistic, are satisfied when they are under-rewarded compared with co-workers and feel guilty when they are equitably rewarded or over-rewarded.

Equity-sensitive persons: the type described by the equity theory, believe that everyone should be rewarded fairly. They feel distressed when under-rewarded and guilty when over-rewarded.

Entitled persons: believe that everything they receive is their due. They are satisfied only when they are over-rewarded and distressed when under-rewarded are equitably rewarded.

2.8 Goal-setting Theory

Developed by Edwin Locke, goal-setting theory also has a commonsense appeal and is clearly relevant to the workplace. Locke argued that our primary motivation in a work situation is defined in terms of our desire to achieve a particular goal (Locke 1968; Lock & Latham 1990b). The goal represents what we intend to do at a given time in the future. For example, we may set the goal of graduating from college with honors, that achieving the highest sales record in the company or getting a pay raise within a year so we can buy a new house.

Setting specific and challenging goals can motivate and guide our behavior, spurring us to perform in more effective ways. The research has shown that setting goals leads to better performance than not setting goals. Specific goals are more powerful motivating forces than general goals. Goals that are difficult to attain are greater motivators than goals that are easy to attain. However, difficult goals may spur greater achievement motivation toward attaining the goals at the expense of other behaviors, such as helping co-workers; this response has the potential to reduce the overall organizational effectiveness. In addition, goals that are too difficult, perhaps beyond our capabilities, are worse than having no goals in terms of their impact on motivation and job performance (Wright, George, Farnsworth, & McMahan 1993).

An important aspect of the goal-setting theory is individual goal commitment; that is, the strength of our determination to reach our goal. That commitment is influenced by external factors, interactive factors, and internal factors (Locke, Latham, & Erez 1988). The external factors that affect goal commitment are authority,

peer influence, and external rewards. The interactive factors that influence our commitment to reach our goals are competition and the opportunity to participate in setting goals. These factors have been shown to be an inducement to setting higher goals and to working harder to reach them. Internal cognitive factors that facilitate goal commitment are self-administered rewards and our expectation of success. Commitment to the goal is reduced when our expectation of achieving it declines.

Other personal and situational influences on goal commitment have been suggested. The need for achievement, endurance, aggressiveness, **and** competitiveness (so called Type A behavior), success in achieving difficult goals, high self-esteem, and an internal locus of control have all been related to high goal commitment include the extent to which others are aware of our goals and information about the performance of others in pursuit of the same or similar goals (Hollenbeck & Klein 1987).

Reviews of the research about the effects of goal-setting on performance, whether by Locke and his colleagues or by others, have found a lot of support for the theory, which has been applied to group as diverse as professors and lumberjacks (Locke and Latham 1990; Tubbs 1986; Mento, Steel, and Karren 1987). The theory seems to work best where these three conditions are present. They are:

- (a) Feedback: We have noted that how crucially important feedback is to the learning process. This is a particular example of that process in which having knowledge of results provides someone with the information necessary of judge how he is doing in the pursuit of his goal. Moreover having that information may itself help to strengthen his motivation to make further progress (Locke et al. 1981). Adding feedback like this to the setting of goals has been found to be the most effective in improving

performance; more than either factor by itself and much more than using neither factor (Nemeroff and Cosentino 1979).

- (b) Setting specific goals: Setting specific goals for people is a more effective way of improving their performance than simply asking them to do their best. Having target to aim at seems to be psychologically helpful for people.
- (c) Setting difficult goals: Provided that people accept difficult goals for themselves, they will lead to better performance than easy goals. (In psychology that kind of provision, however, is always a crucial one).

There are other findings from this huge body of research that have achieved widespread support:

- (a) People must have the necessary ability first before goal-setting can affect their performance. This is not quite as obvious as it sounds. In a "can-do" environment where the social noun is that you can do anything if you only want it badly enough, it is a salutary reminder that there are some things you may not be able to do, no matter how clear your intention or how steely your resolution, or how great the reward. If you have trouble distinguishing your left hand from your right one, you are not going to become a concert pianist no matter how motivated you may be.
- (b) Material incentives, like money, may improve performance by increasing commitment to a particular goal. (But keep in mind the first suggestion)
- (c) Participation in decision making about setting goals does not appear to have any more effect on performance than assigned goals which have been justified to, and accepted by, the people in question. But the justification is

apparently necessary. Simply assigning goals to people is less effective (Latham, Erez and Locke 1988).

- (d) People who are confident of their ability to perform a particular task are more likely to be successful at it, than people who are not. This dimension of individual difference is often referred to as self-efficacy (Bandura 1986). This concept should be distinguished from the two factors we have already encountered; "self-esteem" (a sense of one's own worth) and "locus of control" (a belief about the nature of causality in one's life).

2.9 Trait and Factor Theory

The theory says a person decides to choose a career out of his judgment based on self analysis and career analysis. The theory is based on psychology of human differences and applied psychology.

The principles of career choice are as follows:

- (1) Self analysis: The theory delves deep into human characteristics and factors influencing career choice:
- (a) Aptitude and intelligence influence not only career choice but also career success and progress
 - (b) Interest factors, which influence career choice and endeavor in the career.
 - (c) Near persons such as father, mother, relatives, teachers and counselors.
 - (d) Educational effectiveness influences career choice. A person with high marks in a subject often chooses a career about that subject.
 - (e) Family influences career choice. Some children choose a career similar to their fathers or mothers. Their family economic status quo

influences children's career choice.

(f) Community and value of the community influence career choice. For instance, rural children are often seen choosing a career with less honor and rather low income since the cost of living in rural areas is lower than that in town. Though they have low income, their life style is not affected. Value in the community also influences career choice. It's noted that rural people like their children to become teachers, nurses, military men since these careers are highly respected.

(2) Career analysis: People strive to learn about each career, labor demand, time and expenses required to prepare themselves to have that career, income, stability and promotion opportunities from that career.

(3) Judgement for a career choice is based on self analysis and career analysis

2.10 The Definition of Job Satisfaction

Varieties of the meaning of job satisfaction had been described by many psychologists. This study focuses on the meaning fo job satisfaction stated by Spector Paul E. and P. Schultz, Duane as follows:

According to Spector, Paul E., 1996, job satisfaction is an attitudinal variable that reflects how people feel about their jobs overall as well as various aspects of them. In simple terms, job satisfaction is the extent to which people like their jobs; job dissatisfaction is the extent to which they dislike them.

There have been two approaches to the study of job satisfaction: the global approach and the facet approach which treats job satisfaction as a single, overall feeling toward the job.

Table 2.3. Common Job Satisfaction Facets.

Pay	Job conditions
Promotion opportunities	Nature of the work itself
Fringe benefits	Communication
Supervision	Security
Co-workers	

The alternative approach is to focus on job facets or different aspects of their job such as rewards (pay or fringe benefits) other people on the job (supervisors or coworkers), job conditions and the nature of the work itself. The list of the most often studied facets appears in Table 2.3.

The advantage of the facet approach is that it shows a more complete picture of job satisfaction. An individual typically has different levels of satisfaction with the various facets. He or she might be very dissatisfied with pay and fringe benefit but at the same time be very satisfied with the nature of the work and supervisors.

In addition, P. Schultz, Duane, 1990 said that it is sometimes difficult to distinguish between motivation and job satisfaction because of their high degree of interrelationship. There is also such a relationship between job satisfaction and morale; many writers use these terms interchangeably. Basically, job satisfaction refers to a set of attitudes that employees have about their jobs — how they feel about the work and this involves a collection of numerous attitudes or feelings. Thus, job satisfaction or dissatisfaction depends on a large number of factors, ranging from where employees have to park their cars and whether the boss calls them by their work.

Additional factors can influence job satisfaction, personal factors that are not directly part of the job or work climate. For example, job satisfaction varies according to age, health, number of years worked, emotional stability, social status, leisure and recreational activities, family relationships and other social outlets and affiliations. Also, personal motivations and aspirations and how well these are fulfilled can influence the attitude we have toward our work.

Recent research also suggests that for some employees, job satisfaction may be a stable, enduring, individual characteristic, independent of the features of the job. For these workers, changes in job status, pay, or working conditions may have little or no effect on their level of job satisfaction. Their tendency to be happy (satisfied) or unhappy (dissatisfied) may vary little over time and circumstances (Staw 1984).

Other research suggests the possibility that different satisfaction profiles, involving both work and nonwork satisfaction, may characterize different people. A study of 390 male college graduates, tested after they had been out of college and working for 5 or 6 years, revealed the existence of five such satisfaction profiles (Shaffer 1987).

- (1) Generally satisfied high in both work and nonwork factors.
- (2) Nonwork compensators — high in nonwork satisfaction, low in work satisfaction.
- (3) Work compensators — generally dissatisfied with both work and nonwork activities, satisfied with the job and the pay.
- (4) Materially dissatisfied — low in satisfaction with pay and environment.
- (5) Generally dissatisfied — low on all work and nonwork factors.

The generally satisfied employees were found to be more likely to remain with

Their present employers but the work compensators were more likely to leave their present jobs because of dissatisfaction with the work.

Job satisfaction — and satisfaction with all aspects of one's life — is not a simple or unitary concept. It is a highly complex variable that encompasses a wide range of individual differences and presents continuing challenges for I/O psychologists.

2.11 Concepts and Theories Related to Decision to Choose a Career

Decision to choose a career is a topic of interest of many persons.

Hoppook said man chooses a career to satisfy his own desire. His theory called, "A Composite Theory" can be summarized as follows:

- (1) Choosing a career is an act to satisfy one's desire: physical desire such as food, clothes, etc. and mental desire such as fame, recognition, love, respect from others. Everyone has different desires at different levels.
- (2) One chooses a career because he believes that a career will most satisfy his desire.
- (3) One's desire may be clear and certain but for others their desires may be vague. Whichever it may be, it has influence over one's choice of career.
- (4) The concept of a career starts when one realizes that career can satisfy his/her need.
- (5) Development of the concept of a career and the process of choosing a career will grow as soon as he/she realizes his/her expected career can satisfy his/her desire. Fulfillment of his/her desire depends on how much he/she knows himself/herself, knowledge about various careers and rationale thinking.

- (6) Personal data have an influence over choice of career, helping one to realize what he/she wants from that career and what qualifications he/she has appropriate for that career.
- (7) Data about various careers such as characteristics of careers, income from those careers and number of people required for each career, have influence over the choice of career since the data indicate what human personalities are required for that career and how that career can satisfy one's need.
- (8) Satisfaction in a career depends on how much that career can satisfy one's desire. The level of satisfaction in the career is the ratio of what one receives from that career to what he/she wants from that career.
- (9) Satisfaction in a job is most likely to result from the fact that the job satisfies his/her present need or has a tendency to satisfy his need in the future or from the job he hopes to help him step to the job he desires.
- (10) The choice of a job of a person can change when he believes that the new job can satisfy him better than the present one.

Anne Roe, a clinical psychologist, stated her concept on the choice of a career in "A Personality Theory of Career Choice" that the difference of careers of each person is resulted from experience in childhood, especially how he/she was raised up by his/her parents. Roe said factors influencing career choice are:

- (1) Genetics which specify the limits of development of human characteristics.
- (2) Culture and social environment comprising particular experience of each person which will set the direction of the development of the genetic characteristics.
- (3) Satisfaction or discontent experience which will specify a person's interest.
- (4) A clear interest pattern will be set by spiritual power.

- (5) Motivation to effectiveness depends on the level of need and ability to meet the need.

Roe applies her understanding of Maslow's theory of needs and hierarchy of human needs to her theory and explains that needs are related to motivation to achieve objectives, saying,

Such basic needs as hunger and thirst are not motivators in human subconsciousness.

While needs which are hardly satisfied are most likely to have no more effect if they are high level of need (for instance, amenities). But if a low level of need and it's not satisfied, it may become an obstacle to higher levels of needs.

Needs that are significant motivators to human are those which take time to be satisfied.

Eli Ginzberg, an academic who has developed a Theory of Vocational Development, suggests that career choice is influenced by the following factors:

- (1) Reality such as ability, aptitude, social opportunities.
- (2) Educational factors related to scope of career choice. The higher one is educated, the wider the scope of career choice.
- (3) Emotional factors also relate to career choice. For instance, one wants to be an actor because he dreams to be linked by the public.
- (4) Value makes people choose different careers. For instance, if one likes to risk, he may run a business, etc.

In the initial stage of his theory development, Ginzberg felt that career choice is an irreversible process. In other words, choosing a career depends on the person's age. He has divided a person's thought about career into 3 periods. When one passes from the first to the second period, he cannot reverse to think similarly to the first period. (But later Ginzberg changed his concept, not emphasizing the irreversibility any more.)

Eli Ginzberg has divided a person's career choice into 3 periods:

- (1) Fantasy Period, age 0-11 years, children have a fantasy what they want to be when they grow up. Their thinking may be influenced by the environment, regardless of reality, ability and potential of oneself.
- (2) Tentative Period, age 11-17 years, is a period when one chooses a career but not committed to it, starting from the time when one can sort out some activities he is interested in and likes more than others. Later he may start to feel that he can do an activity of his interest better than other activities, compared with his friends, bringing pride to him and appreciating the value of that activity more than the others. Later his interest, aptitude and value of the activity are harmonized, conceiving an initial choice of career. However, appreciation of a career of persons of this age does not include other factors concerning that career. For instance, one wishes to become a nurse, but disregards her health whether it fits the career. Ginzberg has divided this tentative period into 4 stages as follows:

- (a) Interest Stage, age 11-12 years. Career choice depends on interest which is related to the desire at the Fantasy Period. Such questions as what career are you interested in or what kind of job do you want to get, may be asked.
- (b) Capacity Stage, age 12-14 years. At this stage, children start to realize their capacity, assessing themselves what they can do better than others.
- (c) Value Stage, age 15-16 years. Children start to realize their value is related to their career choice.
- (d) Transition Stage, age 17-18 years. At teenage, their career choice

comes from their interest, 'capacity and value. They start to plan for their future, but their decision is not yet certain.

(3) Realistic Period, age 17-21 years. At this period, they look at themselves and career together to decide their career choice, based on reality, not fantasy any more. This period is divided into 3 stages:

- (a) Exploration: At this stage, persons explore what career fits them. They will evaluate themselves in terms of behavior of a career, more closely to reality.
- (b) Crystallization: They start to have a pattern of their career choice. Their choice depends on the success or failure they meet at the exploration stage.
- (c) Specification: They become more specific in the career choice, not a generalization. For instance, they don't study in the field of education but they will specify clearly what branch, physical education, for example.

Ginzberg believes that the decision process for a career choice runs along with a person's working life. If the career selected in the initial period of life does not satisfy a person, he may choose another career. Whether to get a new job depends on various factors such as family responsibility, promotion opportunities and aptitude.

Donal E. Super is a writer, compiler and researcher on a most extensive career. He wrote the Theory of Vocational Development with application to his own development psychology and conceptual theories and concepts influenced by other psychologists and philosophers. Super writes 10 points of the basis of his theory as follows:

- (1) Human beings are different in terms of ability, interest and personality.

- (2) Personal differences fit each person to different careers. In other words, each person will always be qualified for a job.
- (3) A certain job may require a specific qualification of a person but it may also fit another person with similar personality. Therefore, a certain job may require a person's qualifications and if that person gets that job, he's most likely to be satisfied with the job. But if another person has lower or higher qualifications, he may be able to do it and is satisfied with it.
- (4) A person's satisfaction, interest, situation in which he lives, as well as concept about himself may change according to time and experience, having an impact on his decision to choose a career. For instance, he had no computer knowledge. But one day he gains computer knowledge, he may change his job to a new job or career.
- (5) Life is a changing process, never a stand still. It can be divided into 5 stages:
 - (a) Growth Stage: This is the stage of physical and mental growth, which normally stops at the age of 14-15 years. In this growth stage, a person gathers attitude and other factors to form self concept. At the same time, experience in his life makes him learn about the world of career, which he will utilize in career choice decision in later stages.
 - (b) Exploratory Stage: At the age of 15-24 years, persons explore general careers and at the same time learn from their work experience. They start to realize that a career is part of their life. At the start of this stage, a desire for a career is still a fantasy. For instance, a boy wants to become a pilot, a fantasy in almost everybody. Their desire for a

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career will gradually change in later stages because they start to understand reality more and more. However, persons who have not developed to understand themselves, may continue to cling to their fantasy career even when they grow up. Later in the exploratory stage, they delete impossible options, leaving only careers of their interest, fitting them. When they understand themselves more, realize their own ability for instance, how possible to get a hold of a job, their options for a career will be narrowed down, close to reality.

- (c) Establishment Period: Age 25-44 years, the start to have an experience in the working world. Persons of this stage can try the career he has chosen whether it satisfies their expectation. If it does, they may continue with the career. But if it doesn't, they may have to adjust themselves. If they can't adjust themselves, they may have to find a new job.
- (d) Maintenance Stage: Age 45-60 years, the state of maintenance in their career. They continue to work and keep adjusting themselves and their career, seeking satisfaction in their career and avoid things that dissatisfy them.
- (e) Decline Stage: Age 60 or more, which is a retirement age or a bit earlier than retirement age, the final stage of working life with salary. In tell. is of career, persons go to work just to hold their positions rather than devote themselves to creativity. They often prepare themselves for retirement and withdraw themselves from the working world.

(6) Factors that influence persons' career pattern are parents' economic and

social status, intelligence, personality and job opportunities. For instance, a child whose father and mother often talk to him about work experience, travelling to various places, seeing people in different careers and with the child having intelligence, the child may have a better realistic career pattern than other children.

- (7) Career development is actually mental and physical development in harmony with concept expression process. In other words, when one grows up, he has a self concept which influences his career choice, education choice and expectation to his job. For example, if one has a self concept that one is honest and fair, he will hold to his concept and choose a career to uphold his concept. He may wish to become a judge and decide to study law since he expects that his career will uphold fairness to which he himself clings.
- (8) Entering into a career is often set by a compromise between oneself and social variables. For instance, between one's concept and reality.
- (9) Career satisfaction depends on:
 - (a) how much one's ability, interest, personality and value can be expressed in one's career.
 - (b) how much his work experience correspond with his self concept. In other words, how much his career provides an opportunity for him to be a person he imagines.

In addition, Super believes that at every stage of human development, vocational tasks are developed along. He proposes the following stages:

- (1) Crystallization of Vocational Preference: Age 14-18 years, persons start to

think some careers fit them more than others. They start to develop self concept and look to proper education and factors that will lead them to get that career and start to plan their own career pattern.

- (2) Specification: Age 18-20 years, they have more specific interest in a career. For instance, in the past they wanted to study science but now they can specify in particular to study ophthalmology. They realize their own ability, and whether they can get a job of their desire. They are more confident of their options.
- (3) Implementation: Age 21-24 years, they want to implement their set career plan.
- (4) Stabilization: Age 23-35 years, they secure stability in their chosen career, maximizing implementation of their ability and creating stabilization in their career.
- (5) Consolidation: Age 35 years or more, they want progress in their career, have a plan for their development to their set goal.

Super's theory and concept on career extensively influence professional counselors and psychologists. A main point of his theory is that he believes that "man expresses his personality through his career." Based on that, a person, whether male or female, steps to his/her goal through his/her career where he/she can express his/her concept. Counselors may help students to have an opportunity to express their concept because according to the theory it will satisfy them and their working life.

2.12 Career Planning and Development

This is the deliberate process through which a person becomes aware of personal career-related attributes and the lifelong series of stages that contribute to his or her career fulfillment. As summarized in Table 2.4, the individual, the manager, and the organization all have roles in the individual's career development. It is the individual who must accept responsibility for his or her own career, assess interests, skills, and values; seek out career information and resources; and generally take those steps that must be taken to ensure a happy and fulfilling career. Within the organization the individual's manager plays a role, too. The manager should provide timely and objective performance feedback, offer development assignments and support, and participate in career development discussions, for instance. The manager acts as a coach, appraiser, advisor, and referable agent by listening to and clarifying the individual's career plans, giving feedback, generating career options, and linking the employee to organization resources and career options.

A career is a general course that a person chooses to pursue throughout his or her working life. Usually, a career is a sequence of work-related positions an individual occupies during a lifetime, although probably not with the same company. In today's world, however, the days are numbered for relatively static jobs that required infrequent training and virtually no development for maintaining acceptable productivity levels. Such jobs are going overseas in great numbers. Because jobs are no longer static, neither can be the workers performing these jobs. One of the primary responsibilities of HR is to develop employees so they can accomplish organizational goals more effectively.

Career planning is an ongoing process whereby an individual sets career goals and identifies the means to achieve them. The major focus of career planning should be

on matching personal goals and opportunities that are realistically available. Career planning should not concentrate only on advancement opportunities, as the present work environment has reduced many of these opportunities. Also, from a practical standpoint, there have never been enough high-level positions to make upward mobility a reality for everyone. At some point, career planning needs to focus on achieving successes that do not necessarily entail promotions.

Through career planning — the process by which individuals plan their life's work — a person evaluates his or her own abilities and interests, considers alternative career opportunities, establishes career goals, and plans practical developmental activities. According to trend analyst Arnold Brown, more responsibility is shifting from employers to individuals. This trend is also true in career planning, "where people are being asked to take more control of their own careers and act like entrepreneurs". As previously discussed, organizational career planning involves the identification of paths and activities for individual employees as they develop. Career planning, at the individual level, and organizational career planning are interrelated and interdependent; therefore, success requires parallel planning at both levels.

Career planning should begin with a person's placement in an entry-level job and initial orientation. Management will observe the employee's job performance and compare it with job standards. At this stage, strengths and weaknesses will be noted, enabling management to assist the employee in making a tentative career decision. Naturally, this decision can be altered later as the process continues. This tentative career decision is based on number of factors, including the person's needs, abilities, and aspirations and the organization's needs. Management can then schedule human resource development programs that relate to the employee's specific needs. For

instance, a person who wants a career in human resources may require some legal training.

Remember that career planning is an ongoing process. It takes into consideration the changes that occur in people, in organizations, and in the environment. This type of flexibility is absolutely necessary in today's dynamic organizational environment. Not only do the firm's requirements change, but individuals may choose to revise their career expectations. Some prefer the old-fashioned way-up; but in today's less vertical corporate world, workers may have to consider other directions that may eventually lead to a higher plan. For example, they can move sideways, with no change salary or title, to a more dynamic department; leave the company perhaps for a more rewarding career elsewhere; remain in the same position and try to enhance their skills and explore new horizon; or move down to a job that may carry less weight but promises more growth.

Career development is a formal approach used by the organization to ensure that people with the proper qualifications and experiences are available when needed. The career development tools, which are specified during career planning and utilized in the career development program, most notably include various types of training and the application of organizational development techniques. Career planning and development benefit both the individual and the organization and must therefore be carefully considered by both.

As previously mentioned, a career path is a flexible line of movement through which an employee may travel during employment. Career development is a formal approach taken by the organization to ensure that people with the proper qualifications and experiences are available when needed. Career development benefits both the organization and the employee because properly developed employees are better

prepared to add value. Thus, career development includes exposure to any and all activities that prepare a person for satisfying the needs of the firm both now and in the future.

Career development tools consist of skills, education, and experiences as well as behavioral modification and refinement techniques that allow individuals to work better and add value. The methods can apply to employee training at all levels, even nonmanagerial. Once, only managers were allowed to participate in many of these developmental methods, but with the current move toward a team-based environment, where the line between manager and employee is blurring, such developmental methods are important for nonmanagerial employees as well as managerial. Nonmanagerial can no longer be considered hands, without brains. Developmental efforts, therefore, are often quite important for nonmanagerial workers.

Although skills, education, and experiences are very important, the behaviors that accomplish work are becoming more important as the workforce diversifies. Therefore, the need for organizational development of employees is often essential. Organizational development is important because it helps develop appropriate employee behaviors. Organizational development efforts include survey feedback quality circles, sensitivity training, and team building.

Many key individuals must work together if an organization is to have an effective career development program. Management must first make a commitment to support the program by making policy decisions and allocating resources to the program. Human resource professionals are then responsible for implementing the career development program by providing the necessary information, tools, guidance, and program liaison with top management.

The worker's immediate supervisor is responsible for providing support, advice, and feedback. Through the supervisor, a worker can find out how supportive of career development the organization actually is. Finally, individual employees are ultimately responsible for developing their own careers. "You can lead a horse to water but you can't make it drink" is an appropriate analogy for career development. However, without career development, good-paying jobs will not be forthcoming in the future, something more and more employees now realize.

Organizations can assist individuals in career planning and development in numerous ways. Some currently utilized methods, most of which are used in various combinations, are listed here:

- (1) Superior / Subordinate Discussions. The superior and subordinate jointly agree on career planning and development activities. The resources made available to achieve these objectives may well include development programs. Human resource professionals are often called on for assistance, as are psychologists and guidance counselors. Colleges and universities often provide such services.
- (2) Company Material. Some firms provide material specifically developed to assist their workers in career planning and development. Such material is tailored to the firm's special needs.
- (3) Performance Appraisal System. The firm's performance appraisal system can also be a valuable tool in career planning. Noting and discussing an employee's weaknesses can uncover development needs. If overcoming a particular weakness seems difficult or even impossible, an alternate career path may be the solution.

- (4) Workshops. Some organizations conduct workshops lasting two or three days for the purpose of helping workers develop careers within the company. Employees define and match their specific career objectives with the needs of the company.

Table 2.4. Roles in Career Development (Otte and Hutcheson 1992).

<p>Individual</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Accept responsibility for your own career. • Assess your interests, skills and values. • Seek out career information and resources. • Establish goals and career plans. • Utilize development opportunities. • Talk with your manager about your career. • Follow through on realistic career plans.
<p>Manager</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide timely performance feedback. • Provide developmental assignments and support. • Participate in career development discussion. • Support employee development plans.
<p>Organization</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communicate mission, policies, and procedures. • Provide training and development opportunities. • Provide career information and career programs. • Offer a variety of career options.

Source: Otte, Fred L. and Peggy G. Hutcheson. Helping Employees Manage Careers. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, 1992: 56.

Stages of Career Development

Knowledge, skills, abilities and attitudes, as well as career aspirations, change as one matures. While the work that individuals in different occupations perform can vary significantly, the challenges and frustrations that they face at the same stage in their careers are remarkably similar A model describing these stages is shown in Table 2.5.

In this model Stoner sets out two variables — promotability and current performance — resulting in four possible career stages.

- (1) Learners: considered to have advancement potential, but have not yet fully matured in their jobs. Additional development must be provided to this group.
- (2) Stars: seen as performing outstanding work and with high advancement potential. Often placed on "fast track" where available.
- (3) Solid citizens: are often doing good or even outstanding work, but have little chance of advancement. They have "plateaued". Will often need assistance to cope with their situation.
- (4) Deadwood: have little or no chance of advancement. Current performance inadequate or at best marginal. They have also plateaued.

Table 2.5. Stages of Career Development.

Stage 1:	Preparation for work
Typical age range:	0-18
Major tasks:	Develop occupational self image, assess alternative occupations, develop initial occupational choice, pursue necessary education.
Stage 2:	Organisational entry
Typical age range:	18-25
Major tasks:	Obtain job offer(s) from desired organisation(s), select appropriate job based on accurate information.
Stage 3:	Early career
Typical age range:	25-40
Major tasks:	Learn job, learn organisational rules and norms, fit into chosen occupation and organisation, increase competence pursue goals.
Stage 4:	Mid-career
Typical age range:	40-55
Major tasks:	Re-appraise early career and early adulthood, reaffirm or modify goals, make choices appropriate to middle adult years, remain productive in work.
Stage 5:	Late career
Typical age range:	55-retirement
Major tasks:	remain productive in work, maintain self esteem, prepare for effective retirement.

Source: Grenhau J. H. 1987, Career Management, 'The Dryden Press, a division of Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.

Develop Personal Skills

In planning a career, one should not attend only to acquiring specific job knowledge and skills. Job know-how is clearly essential, but there are other skills one must develop to be successful as an employee. To succeed as a manager or supervisor, one must achieve a still higher level of proficiency in such major areas as communication, time management, organisation of work, interpersonal relationships, and the broad area of leadership.

Hundreds of self help books have written on these topics, and a myriad of opportunities to participate in workshops is available, often under the sponsorship of one's employer. One should not overlook sources of valuable information such as articles in general interest magazines and professional journals. For example, the following pointers on the basic skills of successful career management are take form a personnel journal article:

- (1) Develop a positive attitude
- (2) Take responsibility for your own career
- (3) Establish goals
- (4) Be aware of success factors
- (5) Present yourself in a positive manner
- (6) Be in the right place at the right time
- (7) Establish a relationship with a mentor or guide
- (8) Adopt the mindset of your superiors

In addition, Graham Andrewartha has suggested seven significant factors impacting on career transition in the Australian workplace.

- (1) No career is certain any longer
- (2) Loyalty to one employer and long-term employment are things of the past.
- (3) Employees and employers will negotiate career changes of a five- to six-year duration.
- (4) Continuous planned career transition will become a regular occurrence.
- (5) Part-time, contract and transitory employment will become the norm in both public and private sectors.
- (6) Ongoing education and training are essential to maintain employability.
- (7) Achieving personal employment needs will be dependent on your ability to

market your skills.

2.13 How Career Decisions Are Made: Five Decision — Making Stages

- (1) Identifying problems: the needs to make a decision usually come from information that an individual receives. Sometimes it may be self-initiated or it may arise because of a sudden opportunity that an individual does not seek but he or she decides to consider it.
- (2) Exploring alternatives: people attempt to survey the alternatives and these alternatives may become the sources of the decision.
- (3) Evaluating alternatives: It is the process of weighing and comparing alternatives. Finding the best can satisfy an individual's requirement.
- (4) Making a choice: People have to make a choice that is not always the best alternative and it may not be the one that people really want.
- (5) Making a commitment: It is a force that causes people to stick to the decision. When people work for the company and have a chance to do important tasks and to be recognized by the company, the commitment will happen.

What Is Decision Making?

A decision is a commitment — a resolution to do or stop doing an act, or to adopt or reject an attitude. Because attitudes often develop unconsciously, they are hard to see as part of the decision-making process until decisions are actually made. Decision making is a process of several steps, including choosing among alternatives, not a single step of deciding. The first step is correctly defining the problem. It is a discovery process.

Traits That Influence Decisions

Decisions may be helped or hindered by the basic philosophies that decision

makers have about life and how they interrelate with the people around them. Other traits affecting decision making include the following:

- (1) Intelligence of management and other employees
- (2) Level of personal commitment
- (3) Tradition
- (4) External environment
- (5) Requirements of task at hand
- (6) Power structure involved
- (7) Openness of communication channels

People react to problems in many different ways; the solutions chosen reflect some of the assumptions that the person makes. Some of the personality traits that are particularly influential in the decision-making process are discussed next.

(1) Taking Risk

There is no such thing as a riskless decision, but the degrees to risk vary. Many decision makers have an aversion to risk taking. Most people, when offered a 50:50 chance that a gamble will succeed, would choose not to gamble, even if winning would bring in many times what the risk is worthy. Most people do not want to jeopardize the gains they have made in the past.

A graphic way in which to illustrate the degree of risk would be to offer a decision maker a high payoff on an even-chance gamble. A majority would turn down such a proposition even if the payoff were ten times as high as the sum at risk. If the sum at risk involved all or most of the corporate resources, this attitude would be entirely rational. Mature

corporations are not in business to gamble their corporate existences on a 50 percent chance of high returns.

Most decisions, however, involve only a small fraction of total corporate resources, and the opportunities for decisions to be made occur dozens of times every year. Taking several 50 percent chances every month to risk a small percentage of total resources for tenfold return would appear to be very good business practice indeed and should pay off handsomely in the long run. Nevertheless, each decision maker tends to behave as though his or her own fate or that of the company is at stake with each decision.

(2) Decisiveness

The failure to make decisions and to act is responsible for many of our national productivity problems, in both the private and public sectors. Some people are indecisive because they don't think they have adequate information. But we will never have enough information for most major decisions. Others just don't like to take the responsibility; the moment they see a problem, they become hopelessly confused.

To make a decision might be the first step to failure, so decisions may be delayed. Until a decision is made, judgements on individuals are often deferred. As a result of the lack of decisions, little growth or experience can be obtained concerning success or failure.

(3) Personal Biases and Experience

Systems of reason are influenced by habits, reflexes, prejudices, appetites, And emotions. All logic is biased by personal feelings and affinities. Sometimes These feelings are appropriate to the situation;

sometimes they are not. When making decisions, it helps to know your personal biases.

Knowledge gained by experience is a helpful guide to decision making. The greater the number of successful decisions, the greater the confidence one has when making decisions. On the other hand, it is dangerous to follow experience blindly. It is too easy for the person with "many years of experience" to fail to listen to innovative ideas from others.

Personal biases insulate the individual from anything new. For experience to be useful, a person must be flexible enough to see that it is just one of the many ingredients that goes into the decision-making process.

(4) **Intuition**

Intuition and hunches also help to determine decisions. **Intuition** is a way of knowing and recognizing the possible consequences of something without conscious reasoning. It is largely experiential; intuition and hunches are based on information or experience recorded in the subconscious.

Intuition can often provide the essential direction for solving a problem in a certain way, with the justification coming later. Decisions based on intuition gain much more credibility when they are also supported by logic and experience. Unfortunately, it is often difficult to tell the difference between intuition and bias.

Most executives will not admit to being clairvoyant, but they may see ways to solve business problems that defy computer logic. The bottom-line profit can be spectacular.

Who Makes the Decisions?

The connection between individual decisions and organizational policy isn't always simple. A person who tries to shape an organization entirely to his or her way of thinking can expect to meet resistance. A strongly motivated person will form factions and cliques to work for the desired change. Those opposed will also band together. Adopting a policy is by no means the same thing as putting it into effect.

Keeping an Open Mind

How do you make good decision as often as possible? Good decision result from collecting information. You need to be well informed. Five key steps to approaching a decision are:

- (1) Be truly open-minded. Don't take sides or make judgements until you can examine all the information. Be aware that in many cases, you will be required to make a decision without complete information. Make the best possible decision with as much information as you can get.
- (2) Avoid taking sides. Don't assume that because one side in a dispute has a better track record than the other, that side will always be right. Taking sides is not only unfair to everyone involved, but it can often lead to a poor decision.
- (3) Recognize your own biases. What seems obvious to you as a supervisor may not be obvious to your employees. Your perspective is different. If we all saw things the same way, there would be no disputes or issues to resolve. The reality is that "obvious truths" are only obvious to those who believe them to be true.

- (4) **Don't let titles or prestige influence your decision.** An individual's title may not be indicative of a person's skill or experience. Decisions must be made on the merit of the situation, not the title or image of the people involved.
- (5) **Avoid "absolute" wording in your decision.** Words such as always or never should be avoided. Rarely are situations that permanent. Qualify the conditions that affect your decisions.

Questions to Ask When Making a Decision

Ask yourself these four critical questions as you set out to make a decision:

- (1) Do I have enough information to make a decision?
- (2) Does the problem require a decision?
- (3) Am I the best person to make this decision?
- (4) What will be the worst possible result if I make an incorrect decision?

Choosing a Career

When asked about career choice, Peter Drucker said "The probability that the first job choice you make is the right one for you is roughly one in a million. If you decide your first choice is the right one, chances are that you are just plain lazy."

The implications of this statement are that one must often do a lot of searching and changing to find a career path that is psychologically and financially satisfying.

Paul Stevens argues in a similar way. Young employees should keep their options open by establishing a flexible life plan as, on average, they will change careers 4.5 times during their working life.

Use of Available Resources

A variety of resources is available to aid in the process of choosing a satisfying career. Counsellors at colleges and universities, as well as those in private practice,

are equipped to assist individuals in evaluating their aptitudes, abilities, interests and values as they relate to career selection. There is a broad interest among business schools in a formal instructional program in career planning and development, and other units in the institutions, such as placement offices and continuing education centres, offer some type of career planning assistance.

In the past, networking has played a significant role in developing both job and developmental opportunities. Olson claims that successful networking in the 1990s means assembling a highly select group who can assist in refining strategies and making decisions. Networking is a long-term, two-way interaction, which involves shared ideas and a personal relationship based on common experience.

Accuracy of Self Evaluation

Successful career development depends in part on an individual's ability to conduct an accurate self evaluation. In making a self evaluation, one needs to consider those factors that are personally significant. An open model for career decision-making, shown in Figure 2.5, includes the most important factors to be considered in career decisions. It is "open" in that it provides spaces for additional factors. Note that it is divided into internal and external factors. On a scale of 0 to 5, the individual is to give a personal weighting to indicate the relative importance of each factor to career decisions. Models such as this one help to ensure that an individual does not overlook factors that may be critical in the process of choosing a career.

<p>Internal factors</p> <p><i>Aptitudes and attributes</i></p> <p>Academic aptitudes and achievement</p> <p>Occupational aptitudes and skills</p> <p>Social skills</p> <p>Communication skills</p> <p>Leadership skills</p> <p><i>Interests</i></p> <p>Amount of supervision</p> <p>Amount of pressure</p> <p>Amount of variety</p> <p>Amount of work with data</p> <p>Amount of work with people</p> <p><i>Values</i></p> <p>Salary</p> <p>Status / Prestige</p> <p>Advancement opportunity</p> <p>Growth on the job</p>	<p>External factors</p> <p><i>Family influence</i></p> <p>Family values and expectations</p> <p>Socio-economic level</p> <p><i>Economic Influence</i></p> <p>Overall economic conditions</p> <p>Employment trends</p> <p>Job market information</p> <p><i>Social Influence</i></p> <p>Perceived effect of race, sex, or ethnic background on success</p> <p>Perceived effect of physical or psychological handicaps on success.</p>
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Source: Stair Lila B 1980, Careers in Business: Selecting and Planning your Career Path, Richard D Irwin, Homewood, IL.

Figure 2.5. Career Decision-making Model.

2.14 Employee Preferences for Various Benefits

Two researches conducted a study that provides some insight into employee preferences for various benefits. They mailed questionnaires listing seven possible benefit options to 400 employees of a midwestern public utility company. Completed questionnaires were received from 149 employees (about 38% of those surveyed). The seven benefit options were as follows:

- (1) A five-day workweek with shorter working days of 7 hours and 35 minutes.
- (2) A four-day workweek consisting of 9 hours and 30 minutes each day.

- (3) Ten Fridays off each year with full day. This includes ten three-day weekends per year in addition to any three-day weekends previously scheduled.
- (4) Early retirement through accumulation of ten days per year until retirement age. The retirement age will be 65 minus the number of accumulated days. Full pay will continue until 65.
- (5) Additional vacation of two weeks per year with full day, added to the present vacation.
- (6) A pension increase of \$75 per month
- (7) Family dental insurance fully paid for by the company

Finally, employees were also asked to show their relative preference for a pay Increase of 5% in addition to any general wage increase negotiated.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This research defines the research methodology, sample, data collection, data analysis and procedure in the study as follows:

3.1 Research Methodology

This research study descriptive models, involving data collection in order to test hypothesis or to answer the questions concerning the current status of the subject of the study.

- H1: There is a significant relationship between age and salary toward experienced worker's career choice
- H2: There is a significant relationship between education and salary toward experienced worker's career choice
- H3: There is a significant relationship between experience and salary toward experienced worker's career choice
- H4: There is a significant relationship between gender and position toward experienced worker's career choice
- H5: There is a significant relationship between age and position toward experienced worker's career choice
- H6: There is a significant relationship between education and position toward experienced worker's career choice
- H7: There is a significant relationship between experience and position toward experienced worker's career choice
- H8: There is a significant relationship between age and parent/closed up person's opinion toward experienced worker's career choice

- H9: There is a significant relationship between gender and parent/closed up person's opinion toward experienced worker's career choice
- H10: There is a significant relationship between age and organization toward experienced worker's career choice
- H11: There is a significant relationship between gender and organization toward experienced worker's career choice
- H12: There is a significant relationship between income and organization toward experienced worker's career choice
- H13: There is a significant relationship between education and organization toward experienced worker's career choice
- H14: There is a significant relationship between income and location toward experienced worker's career choice

The researcher has to generate the variables to analyze these hypotheses, both independent and dependent variables. Therefore, the researcher takes various variables to study as follows:

- (a) Independent variables are age, education, experience, gender and income
- (b) Dependent variables are salary, position, parent/closed up person's opinion, organization and location

3.2 Research Sample

The researcher selects the populations based on the following criteria:

- (1) The employees (either male or female) working in Bangkok
- (2) The employees are employed by private sectors
- (3) The employees whose education level varies from Diploma to Master's degree in any field
- (4) The employees from 20 years to 50 years old

Random sampling is selected to be a method to select the sample. This technique gives an equal and independent opportunity for the population to be selected as the sample.

3.3 Data Collection

The researcher collects data for this study by using "Questionnaire" as a technique. The closed-end questionnaire is selected in this study because it is convenient to collect information, easy for grouping the answers and there is no bias.

Questionnaire is divided into 2 parts:

- (a) Part I questionnaire is designed to collect the personal, bio data form the sample and also this part is used to identify the right sample.
- (b) Part II - questions that is used to survey general data and ideas. The researcher uses questions divided into 5 factors that are parent or closed up person, position, location, salary, and organization and uses the technique to measure for 5 levels as followed:

Level	Score
Strongly disagree	
Disagree	2
Neither disagree nor agree	3
Agree	4
Strongly agree	5

3.4 Sample Size

The information required for this study will come from the respondents who

respond to the questionnaire. From the above geographic classification, it is under the infinite population, so required sample size is :

$$\frac{(pq)z^2}{n}$$

Where n = Sample size

- Proportion with attribute

- 1.00 — p

- Number of standard deviation above and below sel

selected p containing the required proportion of cases

Confidence interval (or confidence limits)

For this research, the researcher can get the sample size from:

50% or 0.50

- 1.00 — p

1.00 — 0.50

- 98% level of confidence

2.17

+ 8% or + 0.08

$$= \frac{(0.5)(0.5)(2.17)^2}{(0.08)^2}$$

- 183.973

Therefore, the sample size is 200 random samples.

3.5 Data Analysis

SPSS 10.0 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) for Windows is used as a tool to analyze data. The questionnaire was pre-coded, it contains a number code for each alternative response to each structured question. Correlation Spearman Rho and

ANOVA is used to represent the results.

- (1) The Spearman's rank correlation coefficient is a non parametric test used to measure the strength of association between two variables when both variables are measured by ordinal scale. The Spearman's rank correlation, symbolized as r_s is represented by the computational formular mentioned below:

$$r_s = \frac{1-6\sum D^2}{n_p(n_p-1)}$$

Where

D^2 = the squared difference between a pair of ranks

n = the number of pairs

- (2) Analysis of Variance (ANOVA F-test) is the analysis of the effects of one treatment variable on an interval scale or ratio scaled dependent variable, a technique to determine if statistically significant differences of means occur between two or more groups.(Zikmund, 2000). This method will be used to test hypothesis nine. The ANOVA is the ratio as shown below:

$$F = \frac{\text{MS between}}{\text{MS within}}$$

The level of statistics significant in this research is at $\alpha = 0.05$ with 95% confidence in order to test the hypothesis.

Questionnaire part II is done by Likert Scale Method which has rating scale as followed:

Level	Score
Strongly disagree	1
Disagree	2

Neither disagree nor agree	3
Agree	4
Strongly agree	5

3.6 Procedure in the Study

- (1) The researcher decided to select 5 factors to study. They are parent/closed up person's opinion, position, location, salary and organization.
- (2) Closed-ended questionnaire is selected to use in this study because the
- (3) researcher needs to control the answer or the results. The researcher used random sampling method for distributed 200 questionnaires by hand to the private sector employees in Bangkok.
- (4) After the researcher gets the questionnaire back, the researcher transforms the text data into numeric data. All numeric data are put into SPSS for windows for data calculation, analysis and interpretation. The results are represented in percentage to find the relationship. Correlation Spearman Rho and ANOVA is used to present the results and answer the hypothesis.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the analysis discussion of the finding of the study. Analysis and results are tabulated in sequence which are divided into analysis and test hypothesis. The data from returned questionnaires could be defined as follows:

4.1 Analysis

Part I Personal data of respondents

Table 4.1. The Background of the Respondents According to Gender, Age, Education, Income, Work Location, Work Experience and Position.

Demographics	Total No.of Respondents	Percentage (%)
1) Gender		
Male	128	64.0
Female	72	36.0
Total	200	100.0

2) Age		
Lower than 20 years	2	1.0
20 — 30 years	131	65.5
31 — 40 years	57	28.5
41 — 50 years	8	4.0
51 years old and up	2	1.0
Total	200	100.0

Table 4.1. The Background of the Respondents According to Gender, Age, Education, Income, Work Location, Work Experience and Position. (Continued)

Demographics	Total No.of Respondents	Percentage (%)
3) Education		
Diploma	26	13.0
Bachelor's Degree	145	72.5
Master's Degree	29	14.5
Doctorial Degree	0	0.0
Total	200	100.0

4) Income		
Less than 15,000 baht/month	68	34.0
15,001 — 30,000 baht/month	82.	41.0
30,001 — 45,000 baht/month	35	17.5
More than 45,000 baht/month	15	7.5
Total	200	100.0

Table 4.1. The Background of the Respondents According to Gender, Age, Education, Income, Work Location, Work Experience and Position. (Continued)

Demographics	Total No.of Respondents	Percentage (%)
5) Work Location		
Business area in Bangkok	159	79.5
Others (area in Bangkok)	41	20.5
Total	200	100.0

6) Work Experience		
0 — 2 years	58	29.0
3 — 5 years	52	26.0
6 — 9 years	54	27.0
10 years up	36	18.0
Total	206	100.0

7) Position		
Officer	142	71.0
Senior officer	28	14.0
Middle management	21	10.5
Top management	2	1.0
Others	7	3.5
Total	200	100.0

Gender:

Table 4.1 shows that there are 128 males which is 64% and 72 females which is 36% among the respondents. There are more males than females in the respondent's group.

Age:

Table 4.1 shows the age of all respondents in this study. The age lower than 20 years of the respondents is 1%, the age of 20 — 30 years is 65.5%, the age of 31 — 40 years is 28.5%, the age of 41 — 50 years is 4.0% and the age of 51 years old and up is 1.0%. Most of the respondents are between 20 — 30 years old.

Education:

Table 4.1 shows the educational attainment of the respondents in this study. Diploma is 13.0%, Bachelor's degree is 72.5%, Master's degree is 14.5%. None of the respondents graduated in Doctor's degree. Most of the respondents finish their study in Bachelor's degrees.

Income:

Table 4.1 shows that the respondent's income can be divided into 4 ranges. The first range is less than 15,000 bahts/month which equals 34.0%. The second range is 15,001 — 30,000 bahts/month which equals 41.0%. The third range is 30,001 — 45,000 bahts/month which equals 17.5% and the last range is more than 45,000 bahts/month equal 7.5%. It shows that most of the respondents have income between 15,001 — 30,000 bahts/month.

Work Location:

Table 4.1 shows that most of the respondents work in business area in Bangkok (such as, Silom, Sathorn, Sukhumvit, RamaIV and Petchburi.) equals 79.5%. And 20.5% of the remainder of the respondents work in out of business areas in Bangkok.

Work Experience:

Table 4.1 shows the years of experience of the employees who work in private sectors in Bangkok in this study. The respondents who work 0 — 2 years experience which is 29%, the following is 3 — 5 years experience which is 26%, 6 — 9 years experience is 27% and 10 years up is 18%. It shows that most of the respondents have 0 — 2 years experienced which has little difference from 3 — 5 years experience and 6 — 9 years experience.

Position:

Table 4.1 shows the position of respondents who work in private sectors in Bangkok. Most of the respondents are officers 71.0%, 14.0% are senior officers, 10.5% are middle management, 1.0% are top management and others are 3.5% accordingly.

Part II Factors which influence career choice for experienced worker

Table 4.2. Indication of the Priority Factor for Finding a Job (1 — least important, 5- most important).

Priority Factor	Frequency	Percentage(%)
1) Parents or Closed up person		
1 – Least important	149	74.5
2	23	11.5
3	10	5.0
4	8	4.0
5 — Most important	10	5.0
Total	200	100.0

Table 4.2. Indication of the Priority Factor for Finding a Job (1 — least important, 5- most important). (Continued)

Priority Factor	Frequency	Percentage(%)
2) Position		
1 – Least important	6	3.0
2	30	15.0
3	49	24.5
4	60	30.0
5 — Most important	55	27.5
Total	200	100.0

3) Location		
1— Least important	18	9.0
2	71	35.5
3	62	31.0
4	24	12.0
5 — Most important	25	12.5
Total	200	100.0

Table 4.2. Indication of the Priority Factor for Finding a Job (1 — least important, 5 - most important). (Continued)

Priority Factor	Frequency	Percentage(%)
4) Salary		
1— Least important	6	3.0
2	25	12.5
3	32	16.0
4	70	35.0
5 — Most important	67	33.5
Total	200	100.0

5) Organization		
1 — Least important	20	10.0
2	52	26.5
3	47	23.5
4	39	19.5
5 — Most important	42	21.0
Total	200	100.0

From Table 4.2. it can be summarized that the most important factor which influences career choice for experienced workers is salary 33.5%. The rest are position 27.5%, organization 21%, Location 12.5% and the least important is parents/closed up persons 5% accordingly.

4.2 Test Hypothesis

There are 14 hypothesis in this study. Descriptive statistics is applied to analyze the data. Correlation Spearman's Rho and ANOVA is used to represent data and results. The findings of the study are presented as follows:

Hypothesis 1:

There is a significant relationship between Age and Salary toward experienced worker's career choice

Table 4.3. Correlation Spearman's Rho of the Significant Relationship between Age and Salary.

Correlation Coefficient	Sig.(2-tails)	
.167	.018	200

Table 4.4. Description of the Significant Relationship between Age and Salary.

Age	N	Mean	Std Deviation
Lower than 20 years	2	4.0000	1.4142
20 — 30 years	131	3.0196	.6078
31— 40 years	57	3.0877	.5558
41— 50 years	8	3.8036	.3410
51 years old and up	2	3.9286	.3030
Total	200	3.0893	.6181

Table 4.5. ANOVA of the Significant Difference between Age and Salary.

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between groups	7.785	4	1.946	5.562	.000
Within groups	68.233	195	.350		
Total	76.018	199			

Table 4.3 shows the significant relationship between Age and Salary toward experienced worker's career choice at Correlation Coefficient value .167, 2-tailed sig 0.018 and $\alpha = .05$. From Table 4.5 ANOVA shows the difference between Age and Salary at F value 5.562, significant level at 0.000. From Table 4.4 most of the respondents are between 20-30 years old, this group considers salary less than others (mean = 3.0196, standard deviation = 0.6078) while lower than 20 years considers salary more than others (mean = 4.0000, standard deviation = 1.4142).

As the result, there is a significant relationship and difference between Age and Salary. The hypothesis is accepted.

Hypothesis 2:

There is a significant relationship between education and salary toward experienced worker's career choice

Table 4.6. Correlation Spearman's Rho of the Significant Relationship between Education and Salary.

Correlation Coefficient	Sig.(2-tails)	
.012	.861	200

Table 4.7. Description of the Significant Relationship between Education and Salary.

Education	N	Mean	Std Deviation
Diploma	26	3.1154	.5911
Bachelor's degree	145	3.0798	.6339
Master's degree	29	3.1133	.5782
Doctor's degree			
Total	200	3.0893	.6181

Table 4.8. ANOVA of the Significant Difference between Education and Salary.

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between groups	.047	2	.024	.062	.940
Within groups	75.970	197	.386		
Total	76.018	199			

Table 4.6 shows the significant relationship between Education and Salary toward experienced worker's career choice at Correlation Coefficient value .012, 2-tailed sig .861 and $\alpha = .05$. From table 4.7, it is noted that most of the respondents have a bachelor's degree ($N = 145$, mean = 3.0798 and standard deviation = .6339). Table 4.8 ANOVA shows the difference between Education and salary with F value .062, significant level at .940.

Therefore, there is no significant relationship and difference between Education and Salary. The hypothesis is not accepted.



Hypothesis 3:

There is a significant relationship between Experience and Salary toward experienced worker's career choice

Table 4.9. Correlation Spearman's Rho of the Significant Relationship between Experience and Salary.

Correlation Coefficient	Sig.(2-tails)	
.209	.003	200

Table 4.10. Description of the Significant Relationship between Experience and Salary.

Work Experience	N	Mean	Std Deviation
0 — 2 years	58	2.9778	.6404
3 — 5 years	52	3.0907	.5921
6 — 9 years	54	3.0291	.6114
10 years up	36	3.3571	.5719
Total	200	3.0893	.6181

Table 4.11. ANOVA of the Significant Difference between Experience and Salary.

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between groups	3.499	3	1.166	3.152	.026
Within groups	72.519	196	.370		
Total	76.018	199			

Table 4.9 shows the significant relationship between Experience and Salary toward experienced worker's career choice at Correlation Coefficient value .209, 2-tailed sig .003 and $\alpha = .05$. From Table 4.10, the results in the table shows that most of the respondents are the employees who has 0 — 2 years experience (mean = 2.9778, standard deviation = .6404) followed by the employees who has 6 — 9 years experience, 3 — 5 years experience and 10 years up respectively. From Table 4.11 ANOVA shows the difference between Experience and Salary at F value 3.152, significant level .026

As a result, there is a significant relationship and difference between Experience and Salary. The hypothesis is accepted.



Hypothesis 4:

There is a significant relationship between Gender and Position toward experienced worker's career choice

Table 4.12. Correlation Spearman's Rho of the Significant Relationship between Gender and Position.

Correlation Coefficient	Sig.(2-tails)	
-.020	.783	199

Table 4.13. Description of the Significant Relationship between Gender and Position.

Gender	N	Mean	Std Deviation
Male	128	3.4978	.6996
Female	71	3.4668	.7348
Total	199	3.4867	.7107

Table 4.14. ANOVA of the Significant Difference between Gender and Position.

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between groups	.044	1	.044	.086	.769
Within groups	99.957	197	.507		
Total	100.001	198			

Table 4.12 shows the significant relationship between Gender and Position at Correlation Coefficient value $-.020$, 2-tailed sig $.783$ and $\alpha = .05$. Table 4.13 shows most of the respondents are male (mean = 3.4978 , standard deviation = $.6996$). Male and female are not concern about positions. Table 4.14, ANOVA shows the difference between Gender and Position at F value $.086$ and significant level $.769$.

Therefore, there is no significant relationship and difference between Gender and Position. The hypothesis is not accepted.



Hypothesis 5:

There is a significant relationship between Age and Position toward experienced worker's career choice

Table 4.15. Correlation Spearman's Rho of the Significant Relationship between Age and Position.

Correlation Coefficient	Sig.(2-tails)	
.181	.010	199

Table 4.16. Description of the Significant Relationship between Age and Position.

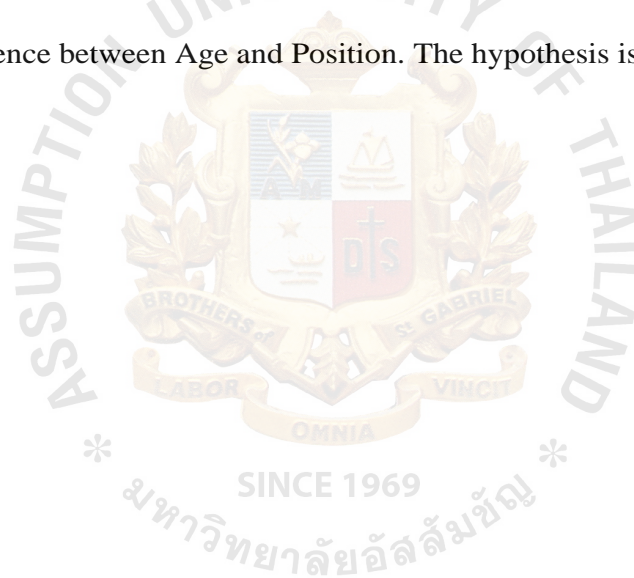
Age	N	Mean	Std Deviation
Lower than 20 years	2	3.6429	.3030
20 — 30 years	131	3.4122	.7296
31— 40 years	56	3.5638	.6708
41— 50 years	8	4.1071	.4934
51 years old and up	2	3.5714	.2020
Total	199	3.4867	.7107

Table 4.17. ANOVA of the Significant Difference between Age and Position.

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between groups	4.202	4	1.051	2.127	.079
Within groups	95.798	194	.494		
Total	100.001	198			

Table 4.15 shows the significant relationship between Age and Position toward experienced worker's career choice at Correlation Coefficient value .181, 2-tailed sig .010 and $\alpha = .05$. Table 4.16, it is noted that most of the respondents are between 20 — 30 years old. The mean of this group is 3.4122 and standard deviation is .7296. This group is less concerned about position than others while employees who are age between 41-50 years (mean = 4.1071, standard deviation = .4934) considers position more than other groups. Table 4.17 shows the difference between Age and Position at F value 2.17, significant level .079 and $\alpha = .05$

As a result, there is a significant relationship between Age and Position but no significant difference between Age and Position. The hypothesis is accepted.



Hypothesis 6:

There is a significant relationship between Education and Position toward experienced worker's career choice

Table 4.18. Correlation Spearman's Rho of the Significant Relationship between Education and Position.

Correlation Coefficient	Sig.(2-tails)	
.074	.299	199

Table 4.19. Description of the Significant Relationship between Education and Position.

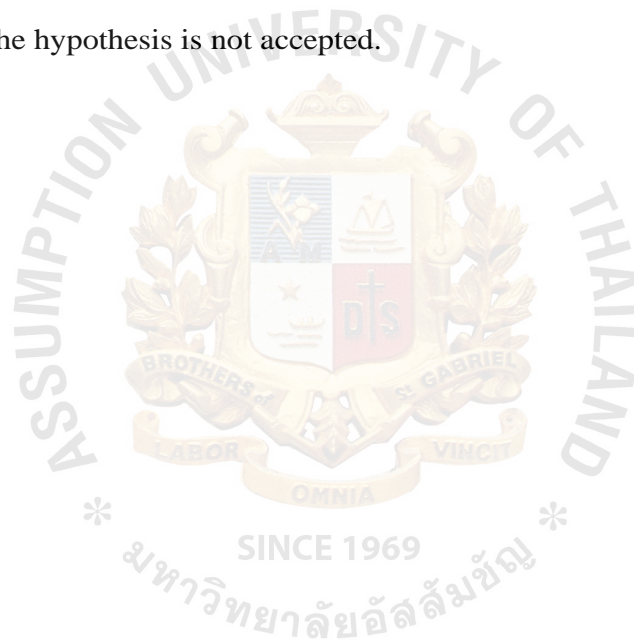
Education	N	Mean	Std Deviation
Diploma	26	3.3352	.6939
Bachelor's Degree	145	3.4995	.7171
Master's Degree	28	3.5612	.6976
Doctor's Degree			
Total	199	3.4867	.7107

Table 4.20. ANOVA of the Significant Difference between Education and Position.

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between groups	.776	2	.388	.767	.466
Within groups	99.224	196	.506		
Total	100.001	198			

Table 4.18 shows the significant relationship between Education and Position toward experienced worker's career choice at Correlation Coefficient value .074, 2-tailed sig. .299 and $\alpha = .05$. Table 4.19, most of the respondents have bachelor's degrees (mean = 3.4995, standard deviation = .7171) followed by master's degrees (mean = 3.5612, standard deviation = .6976) and diploma (mean = 3.3352, standard deviation = .6939). Table 4.20, ANOVA shows the difference between Education and Position at F value .767 and significant level .466

As a result, there is no significant relationship and difference between Education and Position. The hypothesis is not accepted.



Hypothesis 7:

There is a significant relationship between Experience and Position toward experienced worker's career choice

Table 4.21. Correlation Spearman's Rho of the Significant Relationship between Experience and Position.

Correlation Coefficient	Sig.(2-tails)	
.212	.003	199

Table 4.22. Description of the Significant Relationship between Experience and Position,

Work Experience	N	Mean	Std Deviation
0 — 2 years	58	3.2882	.7103
3 — 5 years	52	3.5412	.6821
6 — 9 years	53	3.4717	.7400
10 years up	36	3.7500	.6346
Total	199	3.4867	.7107

Table 4.23. ANOVA of the Significant Dfference between Experience and Position.

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between groups	4.948	3	1.649	3.384	.019
Within groups	95.053	195	.487		
Total	100.001	198			

Table 4.21 shows the significant relationship between Experience and Position toward experienced worker's career choice at Correlation Coefficient value .212, 2-tailed sig .003 and $\alpha = .05$. From Table 4.22, the results in the table shows that most of the respondents are the employees who has between 0-2 years experience (mean = 3.2882, standard deviation = .7103) followed by the employees has 6-9 years experience, 3-5 years experience and 10 years up respectively. Table 4.23 ANOVA shows the difference between Experience and Position with F value 3.384, significant level .019.

Therefore, there is a significant relationship and difference between Experience and Position. The hypothesis is accepted.



Hypothesis 8:

There is a significant relationship between Age and Parent / Closed up Person's Opinion toward experienced worker's career choice

Table 4.24. Correlation Spearman's Rho of the Significant Relationship between Age and Parent / Closed up Person's Opinion.

Correlation Coefficient	Sig.(2-tails)	
-.120	.090	200

Table 4.25. Description of the Significant Relationship between Age and Parent / Closed up Person's Opinion.

Age	N	Mean	Std Deviation
Lower than 20 years	2	3.9000	.9899
20 — 30 years	131	3.0611	.7064
31— 40 years	57	2.8491	.8309
41 — 50 years	8	2.9250	.8746
51 years old and up	2	3.1000	1.2728
Total	200	3.0040	.7600

Table 4.26. ANOVA of the Significant Difference between Age and Parent Closed up Person's Opinion.

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between groups	3.468	4	.867	1.516	.199
Within groups	111.489	195	.572		
Total	114.957	199			

Table 4.24 shows the significant relationship between Age and Parent / Closed up Person's Opinion toward experienced worker's career choice at Correlation Coefficient value $-.120$, 2-tailed sig $.090$ and $\alpha = .05$. From Table 4.25, it is noted that most of the respondents are 20-30 years old (mean = 3.0611 , standard deviation = $.7064$) followed by 31-40 years old (mean = 2.8491 , standard deviation = $.8309$), 41-50 years old (mean = 2.9250 , standard deviation = $.8746$) and no.of employees who are lower than 20 years (mean = 3.9000 , standard deviation = $.9899$) equals no.of employees are in 51 — and up age group (mean = 3.1000 , standard deviation = 1.2728). Table 4.26 ANOVA shows the difference between Age and Parent / Closed up person's opinion at F value 10.439 , significant level $.199$

Therefore, there is no significant relationship and difference between Age and Parent / Closed up Person's Opinion. The hypothesis is not accepted.

Hypothesis 9:

There is a significant relationship between Gender and Parent / Closed up Person's Opinion toward experienced worker's career choice

Table 4.27. Correlation Spearman's Rho of the Significant Relationship between Gender and Parent / Closed up Person's Opinion.

Correlation Coefficient	Sig.(2-tails)	
-.246	.000	200

Table 4.28. Description of the Significant Relationship between Gender and Parent / Closed up Person's Opinion.

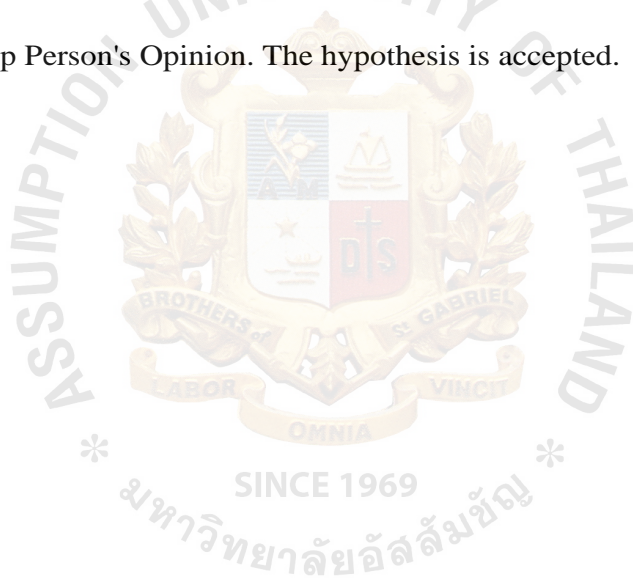
Gender	N	Mean	Std Deviation
Male	128	3.1313	.7345
Female	72	2.7778	.7570
Total	200	3.0040	.7600

Table 4.29. ANOVA of the Significant Difference between Gender and Parent / Closed up Person's Opinion.

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between groups	5.757	1	5.757	10.439	.001
Within groups	109.199	198	.552		
Total	114.957	199			

Table 4.27 shows the significant relationship between Gender and Parent / Closed up Person's Opinion toward experienced worker's career choice at Correlation Coefficient $-.246$, 2-tailed sig $.000$ and $\alpha = .05$. From Table 4.28, it is noted that although most of the respondents are male (mean = 3.1313 , standard deviation = $.7345$) while female (mean = 2.7778 , standard deviation = $.7570$) we cannot summarize that more male takes parent / closed up person's opinion than female because correlation coefficient is $-.246$. Table 4.29 ANOVA shows the difference between Gender and Parent / Closed up person's opinion at F value 10.439 and significant level $.001$

As a result, there is a significant relationship and difference between Gender and Parent / Closed up Person's Opinion. The hypothesis is accepted.



Hypothesis 10:

There is a significant relationship between Age and Organization toward experienced worker's career choice

Table 4.30. Correlation Spearman's Rho of the Significant Relationship between Age and Organization.

Correlation Coefficient	Sig.(2-tails)	
.208	.003	200

Table 4.31. Description of the Significant Relationship between Age and Organization.

Age	N	Mean	Std Deviation
Lower than 20 years	2	4.1429	1.2122
20 — 30 years	131	3.2552	.6413
31— 40 years	57	3.4236	.6156
41 — 50 years	8	3.8214	.3307
51 years old and up	2	4.0000	.0000
Total	200	3.3421	.6430

Table 4.32. ANOVA of the Significant Difference between Age and Organization.

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between groups	5.354	4	1.339	3.393	.010
Within groups	76.927	195	.394		
Total	82.282	199			

Table 4.30 shows the significant relationship between Age and Organization toward experienced worker's career choice at Correlation Coefficient value .208, 2-tailed sig .003 and $\alpha = .05$. The result from the Table 4.31 shows that most of the respondents are between 20 —30 years old. This group considers organization less than others (mean = 3.2552, standard deviation = .6413) while lower than 20 years old considers organization more than others (mean = 4.1429, standard deviation = 1.2122). From Table 4.32 ANOVA shows the difference between Age and Organization at F value 3.393 and significant level at .010.

Therefore, there is a significant relationship and difference between Age and Organization. The hypothesis is accepted.



Hypothesis 11:

There is a significant relationship between Gender and Organization toward experienced worker's career choice

Table 4.33. Correlation Spearman's Rho of the Significant Relationship between Gender and Organization.

Correlation Coefficient	Sig.(2-tails)	
-.094	.183	200

Table 4.34. Description of the Significant Relationship between Gender and Organization.

Gender	N	Mean	Std Deviation
Male	128	3.4018	.5808
Female	72	3.2361	.7332
Total	200	3.3421	.6430

Table 4.35. ANOVA of the Significant Difference between Gender and Organization.

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between groups	1.265	1	1.265	3.091	.080
Within groups	81.017	198	.409		
Total	82.282	199			

Table 4.33 shows the significant relationship between Gender and Organization toward experienced worker's career choice at Correlation Coefficient value $-.094$, 2-tailed sig $.183$ and $\alpha = .05$. Table 4.34 shows most of the respondents are male (mean = 3.4018 , standard deviation = $.5808$) while female (mean = 3.2361 , standard deviation = $.7332$). Table 4.35 ANOVA shows the difference between Gender and Organization at F value 3.091 , significant level at $.080$

As the result, there is no significant relationship and difference between Gender and Organization. The hypothesis is not accepted.



Hypothesis 12:

There is a significant relationship between Income and Organization toward experienced worker's career choice

Table 4.36. Correlation Spearman's Rho of the Significant Relationship between Income and Organization.

Correlation Coefficient	Sig.(2-tails)	
.203	.004	200

Table 4.37. Description of the Significant Relationship between Income and Organization.

Income	N	Mean	Std Deviation
Less than 15,000 baht/month	68	3.2563	.6377
15,001-30,000 baht/month	82	3.2596	.6981
30,001-45,000 baht/month	35	3.5796	.3498
More than 45,000 baht/month	15	3.6286	.7139
Total	200	3.3421	.6430

Table 4.38. ANOVA of the Significant Difference between Income and Organization.

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between groups	4.264	3	1.421	3.571	.015
Within groups	78.018	196	.398		
Total	82.282	199			

Table 4.36 shows the significant relationship between Income and Organization toward experienced worker's career choice at Correlation Coefficient value .203, 2-tailed sig .004 and $\alpha = .05$. The result from table 4.37 shows that most of the respondents have between 15,001 — 30,000 bahts income per month. The mean of this group is 3.2596 and standard deviation is .6981 followed by employees who have less than 15,000 bahts income per month, 30,000 — 45,000 bahts income per month and more than 45,000 bahts income per month respectively. The employees who get more than 45,000 bahts income per month are more concerned about organization than others while less than 15,000 bahts income per month group is least concerned about organization. Table 4.38 ANOVA shows the difference between Income and Organization at F value 3.571 and significant level .015.

As the result, there is a significant relationship and difference between Income and Organization. The hypothesis is accepted.

Hypothesis 13:

There is a significant relationship between Education and Organization toward experienced worker's career choice

Table 4.39. Correlation Spearman's Rho of the Significant Relationship between Education and Organization.

Correlation Coefficient	Sig.(2-tails)	
.016	.817	200

Table 4.40. Description of the Significant Relationship between Education and Organization.

Education	N	Mean	Std Deviation
Diploma	26	3.3242	.6510
Bachelor's Degree	145	3.3369	.6625
Master's Degree	29	3.3842	.5481
Doctor's Degree			
Total	200	3.3421	.6430

Table 4.41. ANOVA of the Significant Difference between Education and Organization.

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between groups	.064	2	.032	.076	.927
Within groups	82.218	197	.417		
Total	82.282	199			

Table 4.39 shows the significant relationship between Education and Organization toward experienced worker's career choice at Correlation Coefficient value .016, 2-tailed sig .817 and $\alpha = 0.5$. From Table 4.40, it is noted that most of the respondents have bachelor degree. The mean of this group is 3.3369 and standard deviation is .6625 Table 4.41 ANOVA shows the difference between Education and Organization with F value .076, significant level at .927.

Therefore, there is no significant relationship and difference between Education and Organization. The hypothesis is not accepted.



Hypothesis 14:

There is a significant relationship between Income and Location toward experienced worker's career choice

Table 4.42. Correlation Spearman's Rho of the Significant Relationship between Income and Location.

Correlation Coefficient	Sig.(2-tails)	
-.009	.895	200

Table 4.43. Description of the Significant Relationship between Income and Location.

Income	N	Mean	Std Deviation
Less than 15,000 baht/month	68	3.0265	.4424
15,001-30,000 baht/month	82	3.0171	.5118
30,001-45,000 baht/month	35	3.0057	.4158
More than 45,000 baht/month	15	3.0533	.5730
Total	200	3.0210	.4746

Table 4.44. ANOVA of the Significant Difference between Income and Location.

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between groups	.027	3	.009	.040	.989
Within groups	44.805	196	.229		
Total	44.832	199			

Table 4.42 shows the significant relationship between Income and Location toward experienced worker's career choice at Correlation Coefficient value $-.009$, 2-tailed sig $.895$ and $\alpha = .05$. From Table 4.43, it is noted that most of the respondents have an income of between 15,001 — 30,000 bahts per month at mean 3.0171 and standard deviation $.5118$ followed by respondents who have less than 15,000 bahts per month, 30,001 — 45,000 bahts per month and more than 45,000 bahts per month.

As a result, there is no significant relationship and difference between Income and Location. The hypothesis is not accepted.



V. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusions

(1) The objectives of the study are:

- (a) To study what factors are involved in choosing the career
- (b) To use the result of the study as a guideline creating the motivation factors that lead to long-time work and suitable matching

(2) Research Method

This research studies both qualitative and quantitative models. Qualitative model studies literatures, research, term papers, thesis and the internet. A part of quantitative model, comes from questionnaires. A survey is conducted by gathering personal data and other backgrounds for analysis and evaluation. The question sets both in Thai and English version are presented in Appendix A.

(3) Research Sampling Procedure

The random sampling technique is used in this study. The samples are the employees (either male or female) from 20 years to 50 years old who are employed by private sectors in Bangkok with a range of education background from Diploma to Master's degrees in any field. The 200 questionnaires are collected by hand.

(4) Summary of the Findings

(a) General Information

Gender shows that the respondents consists of 128 males and 72 females

Age shows that the majority of the respondents are 20-30 years old followed by 31-40 years old, 41-50 years old and the number of persons in the 51 — and up age group with the equal number of persons whose age are lower than 20 years respectively.

Education shows that most of the respondents graduated in Bachelor's degrees followed by Master's degrees and Diplomas.

Income shows that the majority of the respondents' income are 15,001-30,000 bahts/month followed by less than 15,000 bahts/month, 30,001-45,000 bahts/month and more than 45,000 bahts/month respectively.

Work Location shows that 79.5% of the respondents work in business areas in Bangkok. So, the remainders work in out of business areas in Bangkok

Work Experience shows that most of the respondents have 0-2 years experience followed by 6-9 years experience, 3-5 years experience and 10 years up experience accordingly.

Position shows that majority of the respondents are officers followed by senior officers, middle management and top management respectively.

(b) Indication the priority factor for finding a job

The most important factor which influences career choice for experienced workers is salary 33.5%. The following are position 27%, organization 21%, location 12.5% and the least important is parents/closed up persons 5% accordingly.

(c) Test hypothesis

H1: There is a significant relationship at the 0.05 level between age and salary toward experienced worker's career choice

H2: There is no significant relationship at the 0.05 level between education and salary toward experienced worker's career choice

H3: There is a significant relationship at the 0.05 level between experience and salary toward experienced worker's career choice

H4: There is no significant relationship at the 0.05 level between gender and position toward experienced worker's career choice

H5: There is a significant relationship at the 0.05 level between age and position toward experienced worker's career choice

H6: There is no significant relationship at the 0.05 level between education and position toward experienced worker's career choice

H7: There is a significant relationship at the 0.05 level between experience and position toward experienced worker's career choice

H8: There is no significant relationship at the 0.05 level between age and parent/closed up person's opinion toward experienced worker's career choice

H9: There is a significant relationship at the 0.05 level between gender and parent/closed up person's opinion toward experienced worker's career choice

H10: There is a significant relationship at the 0.05 level between age and organization toward experienced worker's career choice

HI 1: There is no significant relationship at the 0.05 level between gender and organization toward experienced worker's career choice

H12: There is a significant relationship at the 0.05 level between income and organization toward experienced worker's career choice

H13: There is no significant relationship at the 0.05 level between education and organization toward experienced worker's career choice

H14: There is no significant relationship at the 0.05 level between Income and location toward experienced worker's career choice

In conclusion, from this study, we can say that most of the employees are officers between 20-30 years old graduated in Bachelor's Degrees, working in business areas in Bangkok, that they have income between 15,001 — 30,000 bahts / month and have around 0-2 years work experience. It can also be seen that their first concern is salary.

5.2 Recommendations

- (1) Eventhough there is no significant relationship between location and income toward experienced worker's career choice, the researcher would like to suggest to both the company and individuals that they should consider location for employment process because the traffic in Bangkok is still bad and it can affect the employee's ability.
- (2) The employers should find the way to know what the employees want or listen to their suggestions. For example, set the questionnaire to ask their suggestions or comments. Effective questionnaire should be clear, not

ambiguous. The questions must convey the objectives of the research. In this way, the result will be more reliable.

- (3) The government should promote people or employees in such a way that they are able to go into self-employment or private business. This will go well with the economic downturn while staff members are being reduced in government and private sector.
- (4) Employees should try to develop professional skills to enable them to work well with other people, increase self-confidence, improve personality and to have special skills.

5.3 Future Study

The researcher should study about career choice decision model focus on other special groups. For example, government sectors, new graduates, etc...



Questionnaire

A master's degree student, majoring in Computer & Engineering Management designs this questionnaire as a part of the project required for completion of the study. The researcher would like to study the factors involved in choosing career for private sector experienced worker in Bangkok. The result can help us as a guideline creating the motivation factors that lead to long-time work and suitable matching. Your responses will be kept strictly confidential
Thank you for your cooperation

Part I : Personal Data

1) Gender

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female

2) Age

- ☐ Lower than 20 years
- ☐ 20 — 30 years
- ☐ 31 — 40 years
- ☐ 41 — 50 years
- ☐ 51 years old and up

3) Education

- ☐ Diploma
- ☐ Bachelor's degree
- ☐ Master's degree
- ☐ Doctoral degree

4) Income

- ☐ Less than 15,000 Thai Baht per month
- ☐ 15,001 — 30,000 Thai Baht per month
- ☐ 30,001 — 45,000 Thai Baht per month
- ☐ More than 45,000 Thai Baht per month

5) Work Location

- ☐ Business areas in Bangkok (Silom, Sathorn, Sukhumvit, Rama IV and Petchburi)
- ☐ Other (please specify)_____

6) Work experience

- ☐ 0 — 2 years
- ☐ 3 — 5 years
- ☐ 6 — 9 years
- ☐ 10 years up

7) Position

- ☐ Officer
☐ Senior officer
☐ Middle management
☐ Top management
☐ Other (please specify) _____

Part II

1) Please indicate the priority factor for finding a job. (1 - being most important, 5 - being less important)

- ☐ Parents or Closed up Person
☐ Position
☐ Location
☐ Salary
☐ Organization

2) Based on the answer you gave in Question 1, if You are a private sector's employee, what factors do you think influence your career choice decision making, please answer the question by giving the rate from 1 to 5 (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither disagree nor agree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree)

2.1) Parents / Closed up Person

Questions	1	2	3	4	5
1) You have to consult with parents or closed up person when you need to make career choice.					
2) You need comments from you parents/ closed up person about your job					
3) You will not decide if your parents/ closed up person do not agree with your choice					
4) Your parents/ closed up person always recommend career choice for you					
5) You feel unhappy if your parents/ closed up person Always have a different opinion with you					

2.2) Position

Questions	1	2	3	4	5
1) You are happy with your current position					
2) You would like to be promoted					
3) There is a chance for you to be promoted					
4) You think your occupation is challenging					
5) You have a chance to show your special skills					
6) The feeling of accomplishment you got from the job					
7) You can remain in this position because you had experience					
8) The feeling of accomplishment you got from the job					

2.3) Location

Questions	1	2	3	4	5
1) You think location first before applying for a job					
2) You think you will accept a job, although it takes you more than 1 hour to travel from home to office					
3) You are happy to travel to work often					
4) You prefer to work in office often					
5) You will resign from the job, if the company moves far from your home					

2.4) Salary

Questions	1	2	3	4	5
1) You have a chance to get high salary for this career					
2) You think that this career provides better welfare, salary and benefits than other careers					
3) You are satisfied with the salary and think that it's worth your workload					
4) You think that your current salary is enough for living					
5) You are unhappy to talk about your salary with your friends					
6) You think that you will get 10% salary increase every year					
7) You think that you have a chance to get at least 1 month bonus every year					

2.5) Organization

Questions	1	2	3	4	5
1) You think that your organization is big, stable and well-known organization					
2) You think that you are an important one in your organization					
3) You think that you have to be responsible for various duties in your organization					
4) You think that this organization is a part of your family					
5) You think that this career which you are working is more stable than other careers					
6) You think you will be satisfied in working for this organization for the rest of your life					
7) You think that your colleagues and your boss are the important parts that make you want to work in this organization further					



แบบสอบถาม

แบบสอบถามชุดนี้ออกแบบโดยนักศึกษาปริญญาโทสาขาการจัดการด้านคอมพิวเตอร์และวิศวกรรม มหาวิทยาลัยอัสสัมชัญ เพื่อใช้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งใน Graduate Project ผู้วิจัยต้องการที่จะศึกษาปัจจัยที่เกี่ยวข้องในการตัดสินใจเลือกงานสำหรับผู้มีประสบการณ์ในการทำงานของพนักงานบริษัทเอกชนในเขตกรุงเทพมหานคร ผลจากการศึกษาสามารถเป็นเสมือนแนวทางในการสร้างแรงจูงใจซึ่งนำไปสู่การทำงานในระยะยาวและเหมาะสม ขอขอบพระคุณทุกท่านที่ให้ความร่วมมือในการตอบแบบสอบถาม

ส่วนที่ 1 : ข้อมูลส่วนตัว

1. เพศ
 - ☐ หญิง
 - ☐ ชาย
2. อายุ
 - ☐ ต่ำกว่า 20 ปี
 - ☐ 20 – 30 ปี
 - ☐ 31 – 40 ปี
 - ☐ 41 – 50 ปี
 - ☐ มากกว่า 50 ปี
3. การศึกษา
 - ☐ ปวช. / ปวส.
 - ☐ ปริญญาตรี
 - ☐ ปริญญาโท
 - ☐ ปริญญาเอก
4. รายได้
 - ☐ ต่ำกว่า 15,000 บาท ต่อเดือน
 - ☐ 15,001 – 30,000 บาท ต่อเดือน
 - ☐ 30,001 – 45,000 บาท ต่อเดือน
 - ☐ มากกว่า 45,000 บาท ต่อเดือน
5. สถานที่ทำงาน
 - ☐ ศูนย์กลางธุรกิจในกรุงเทพมหานคร (สีลม / สาทร / สุขุมวิท / พระราม 4 / เพชรบุรี)
 - ☐ อื่นๆ (โปรดระบุ) _____
6. ประสบการณ์ทำงาน
 - ☐ 0 – 2 ปี
 - ☐ 3 – 5 ปี
 - ☐ 6 – 9 ปี
 - ☐ 10 ปี ขึ้นไป

7. ตำแหน่งงาน

- ☐ พนักงาน
- ☐ พนักงานระดับสูง
- ☐ ผู้บริหารระดับกลาง
- ☐ ผู้บริหารระดับสูง
- ☐ อื่นๆ (โปรดระบุ) _____

ส่วนที่ 2

1. กรุณาจัดลำดับความสำคัญของปัจจัยที่มีผลต่อการตัดสินใจในการเลือกอาชีพ (1 คือ สำคัญมากที่สุด, 5 คือ สำคัญน้อยที่สุด)
 - ☐ ผู้ปกครอง หรือ คนใกล้ชิด
 - ☐ ตำแหน่งงาน
 - ☐ สถานที่ตั้ง
 - ☐ รายได้
 - ☐ องค์กร
2. จากคำตอบที่ได้จากคำถามข้อที่ 1 , ถ้าคุณเป็นพนักงานบริษัทเอกชน คุณคิดว่าปัจจัยใดมีผลต่อการตัดสินใจในการเลือกอาชีพของคุณ, กรุณาตอบคำถามโดยให้คะแนน 1 ถึง 5
(1 = ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง , 2 = ไม่เห็นด้วย , 3 = ไม่มีความเห็น , 4 = เห็นด้วย , 5 = เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง)

2.1. ผู้ปกครอง / คนใกล้ชิด

คำถาม	1	2	3	4	5
1. คุณต้องปรึกษากับผู้ปกครองหรือคนใกล้ชิดเมื่อคุณต้องตัดสินใจในการเลือกงาน					
2. คุณต้องการข้อเสนอแนะและข้อคิดเห็นจากผู้ปกครองหรือคนใกล้ชิดเกี่ยวกับงานคุณ					
3. คุณจะไม่ตัดสินใจเลือกงานถ้าผู้ปกครองหรือคนใกล้ชิดของคุณไม่เห็นด้วยกับคุณ					
4. ผู้ปกครองหรือคนใกล้ชิดของคุณมักจะเสนอแนะทางเลือกงานให้แก่คุณ					
5. คุณรู้สึกไม่มีความสุขถ้าผู้ปกครองหรือคนใกล้ชิดของคุณมีความคิดเห็นแตกต่างจากคุณ					

2.2. ตำแหน่งงาน

คำถาม	1	2	3	4	5
1. คุณพอใจกับตำแหน่งงานหรืออาชีพที่ทำอยู่ในปัจจุบัน					
2. คุณต้องการได้รับเลื่อนตำแหน่ง					
3. คุณมีโอกาสที่จะได้เลื่อนตำแหน่ง					
4. คุณคิดว่าอาชีพที่คุณทำอยู่ในปัจจุบันเป็นอาชีพที่ทำหาย					
5. คุณมีโอกาสได้ใช้ความสามารถในการทำงานได้อย่างเต็มที่					
6. คุณสามารถรู้สึกถึงความสำเร็จที่ได้จากงานหรืออาชีพที่ทำอยู่ในปัจจุบัน					
7. คุณมีประสบการณ์ทำงานทางด้านนี้มาก่อนจึงสามารถดำรงตำแหน่งในปัจจุบันได้					

2.3. สถานที่ตั้ง

คำถาม	1	2	3	4	5
1. คุณคำนึงถึงสถานที่ทำงานเป็นอันดับแรกก่อนสมัครงาน					
2. คุณคิดว่า คุณจะรับงานถึงแม้ว่าต้องใช้เวลาเดินทางจาก บ้าน - ที่ทำงาน มากกว่า ชั่วโมง					
3. คุณชอบงานที่เดินทางบ่อย					
4. คุณชอบการทำงานในบริษัทมากกว่าออกข้างนอก					
5. คุณจะลาออก ถ้าบริษัทย้ายที่ทำการไปไกลบ้านคุณมากขึ้น					

2.4. รายได้

คำถาม	1	2	3	4	5
1. คุณมีโอกาสได้รับเงินเดือนสูงในอาชีพที่คุณทำอยู่ในปัจจุบัน					
2. คุณคิดว่าอาชีพที่คุณทำอยู่นี้ได้รับผลตอบแทนหรือสวัสดิการมากกว่าอาชีพอื่น					
3. คุณพอใจในเงินเดือนที่ได้รับในปัจจุบันว่าเหมาะสมกับปริมาณงานที่ทำ					
4. คุณคิดว่ารายได้ที่คุณได้รับในปัจจุบันเพียงพอต่อการดำรงชีวิต					
5. คุณรู้สึกอึดอัดที่ต้องพูดเรื่องเงินเดือนที่ได้รับในปัจจุบันกับเพื่อนหรือคนรู้จัก					
6. บริษัทที่คุณทำงานในปัจจุบันมีนโยบายขึ้นเงินเดือน 10% ทุกปี					
7. คุณคิดว่า คุณมีโอกาสได้รับโบนัสอย่างต่ำ 1 เดือนในทุกปี					

2.5. องค์กร

คำถาม	1	2	3	4	5
1. คุณคิดว่าองค์กรที่คุณทำในปัจจุบันเป็นองค์กรที่มีชื่อเสียง, มีขนาดใหญ่ และมั่นคง					
2. คุณคิดว่าคุณมีความสำคัญในองค์กรที่คุณทำอยู่ในปัจจุบันนี้					
3. คุณพอใจที่จะใช้เวลาที่เหลือในชีวิตการทำงานของคุณกับองค์กรที่คุณทำในเวลานี้					
4. คุณคิดว่าคุณต้องรับผิดชอบงานหลากหลายในองค์กรที่ทำอยู่ในปัจจุบัน					
5. คุณคิดว่าองค์กรที่คุณทำงานในปัจจุบันนี้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งในครอบครัวคุณ					
6. คุณคิดว่าอาชีพที่คุณทำอยู่ในปัจจุบันนี้มีความมั่นคงกว่าอาชีพอื่น					
7. คุณคิดว่าเพื่อนร่วมงานเป็นส่วนหนึ่งที่ทำให้คุณตัดสินใจที่จะทำงานในองค์กรนี้ต่อไป					



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