Page 1 of 27 ANZAM 2013

Stream 5 Human Resource Management Competitive Session

Developing managerial and professional talent: their embeddedness and retention

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ABSTRACT: This study explores development for management and professional employment categories in manufacturing plants in China, Indonesia and Malaysia. Overall, for each country sample the middle management employment category received more opportunities for development, was more embedded and had less turnover intentions than the lower management and professional employment categories. Comparison across country samples, demonstrated little significant difference between the developmental opportunities, job embeddedness (JE) and turnover intentions (TI) of the lower management and professional employment categories. The results suggest that organisations hoping to embed professional in pivotal positions and deter their intentions of leaving may have greater success by increasing developmental opportunities.

Keywords: talent management, retention, HRM

Organisations have come to understand that in the global environment, the skills and abilities of their talented people is their major source of competitive advantage (Collings, & Mellahi, 2009). In spite of this realization expected talent shortages in the Asia Pacific region is increasing with greater demand from emerging markets (Deloitte, 2013). The pressure for managerial and professional positions is outstripping supply in Asia (Di Gropello, Kruse, & Tandon, 2011). Competition for talent is intensifying as talented people recognise their increased value and job hop according to their developmental needs. Consequently, identifying developmental opportunities offered by organisations to different categories of talented staff and their resultant levels of retention is a priority.

Although there is a significant growth in scholarly research on talent management the Asian and developing market world still receives comparatively less attention. In this paper we seek to redress the global management research imbalance by considering the context of China, Indonesia and Malaysia. Not only do we provide empirical data on these under-researched countries, we focus on what may be viewed as industries that do not possess a strong industry image (Wallace, Lings, & Cameron, 2012), namely, steel and cement manufacturing plants. Of the talent management research, the vast majority is focused on more knowledge intensive, high technology industries (e.g., Garavan, 2012, Iles et al., 2010). While there remain some disagreements on who talent management initiatives should be focused upon within organisations, the focus on different employee categories and the contribution they make to organisational performance tends to be more dominant (Boudreau, & Ramstad, 2007; Collings, & Mellahi, 2009; McDonnell, Lamare, Gunnigle, & Lavelle, 2010).

Page 3 of 27 ANZAM 2013

Stream 5 Human Resource Management Competitive Session

Unfortunately, empirical evidence of the extent to which this occurs in practice is limited (some exceptions include Lepak, Taylor, Tekleab, Marrone, & Cohen, 2007; Yanadori, & Kang, 2011). Our research, while not considering different HRM architectures per sae adds to this literature by considering how different employee categories view their organisation's development practices and how these relate to job embeddedness and turnover intentions. More specifically, the key contribution of this research is whether different pockets of talent in organisations view professional growth, professional interaction and career development similarly or not.

Much of the talent management literature has focused on managerial talent, however our key talent group of interest is the three professional categories (engineers, accounting and finance, management staff) which are amongst the top ten talent shortages in the Asia Pacific region (Manpower, 2013). The reason is that during the global financial crisis organisations continued to employ highly desirable talent of experienced engineers and senior managers (Shen, & D'Netto, 2012). We draw on data from steel manufacturing plants in China and Indonesia and a cement manufacturing plant in Malaysia. The focus on these categories of employees and countries is noteworthy as they are experiencing shortages of such talent. For example, engineering staff represent the second most in-demand category of workers globally, while there is increasing demand for accountancy and finance staff (Manpower, 2012), and managers (Sheehan, 2012).

A key roadblock to the continued growth and success of China, Indonesia and Malaysia is the availability of talent. Levine (2006) has previously noted that the demand for professional management skills in China has been significantly outpacing the available supply. Recent research evidence points to significant retention issues with some manufacturing companies reporting an annual turnover rate exceeding 100 per cent (Wellins, Liu, & Quiyong, 2010). In Indonesia, companies have become very adept at 'stealing' talent from competitors. As a result, organisations cannot attract sufficient talent and existing staff become likely targets for competitors (Bennington, & Habir, 2003). In Malaysia, a workforce with limited education presents recruitment and retention of skilled workers difficulties especially at supervisory, managerial and technical levels (National SME Development Council, 2012). Furthermore, Malaysia has one of the highest turnover rates in Asia

(China Business Infocenter, 2003) and there is evidence of brain drain where professionals are leaving Malaysia for other countries (World Bank, 2009). Overall, we can summarise that talent shortages already abound in the Asia Pacific region. Consequently, organisations that are most successful at attracting and retaining talent are likely to have a competitive advantage over those that do not.

Managing talent, job embeddedness (JE) and turnover intentions (TI)

In the Asia Pacific region three professional categories (engineers, accounting and finance, management staff) are amongst the top ten talent shortages (Manpower, 2013). These positions disproportionately contribute to the corporate objectives, identifying and developing a talent pool of high potential and high performing individuals and establishing appropriate HR systems to facilitate retention is essential (Collings, & Mellahi, 2009). Employee development systems designed to improve employee career prospects improve firm performance, encourage employee retention (Kraimer, Seibert, Wayne, Liden, & Bravo, 2011; Kwong, 2011) and encourage employees to choose to stay, embedding them in the organisation and deterring their withdrawal (Bergiel, Nguyen, Clenney, & Taylor, 2009).

JE is a construct which 'focuses on a wide range of coordinated efforts to increase employee attachment to the organisation' and improve retention (Holtom, & O'Neill, 2004: 224). It moves beyond dissatisfaction-provoked leaving to an "antiwithdrawal" construct (Lee, Mitchell, Sablynski, Burton, & Holtom, 2004) and focuses on the reason people choose to stay rather than leave the organisation. JE incorporates three forces that keep employees from leaving their jobs (Mitchell, Holtom, & Lee, 2001). JE theory explains how employees links (i.e., formal or informal connections with other people in the organisation), fit (i.e., compatibility with an organisation), and sacrifice (i.e., cost of benefits they would surrender were they to leave) encourages retention. Employees who are embedded in the workplace are less likely to leave whereas those who are less embedded are more likely to quit (Swider, Boswell, & Zimmerman, 2011).

JE reduces turnover according to the developmental practices that provide opportunities for career progression (Bergiel et al., 2009). MNCs in China believe that the attraction, retention and development of their talents are key issues (Iles, Chuai, & Preece, 2010). Identifying development

practices that promote employee JE is a little researched area. When employees recognize that the organisation is making an effort to develop individuals, employees become embedded and are less likely to leave (Bergiel et al., 2009). Developmental practices that are not mandatory such as professional growth signal that the organisation cares and values its employees and is willing to provide employees with tangible benefits. These practices enhance feelings of job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Bartlett, & McKinney, 2004; Cleary, 2008; Riggle, Edmondson, & Hansen, 2009; Bambacas & Bordia, 2009) and deter their turnover (Muliawan, Green, & Robb, 2009; Ito, & Brotheridge, 2005; Kraimer et al., 2011).

Developmental practices and employment categories

Developmental practices offered by organisations develop and maintain staffs' skills and knowledge through professional growth (Cooper, 2009), professional interaction (Risley, & Cooper, 2011) and career development (Chang, Chou, & Cheng, 2007). The development in turn contributes to their career aspirations (Ismail, & Ramly, 2011), career satisfaction (Joo, & Ready, 2012; Kong, Cheung, & Song, 2012), organisational commitment (Bambacas, 2010; Maurer, & Lippstreu, 2008), JE and discourages withdrawal (Bergiel, Nguyen, Clenney, & Taylor, 2009; Bambacas & Kulik, 2013).

Professional growth provides opportunities to extend current skills and supports professional development as a means of career progression (Pierson, Liggett, & Moore, 2010) and deters TI (Eddleston, 2009). Professional interaction between colleagues assists continued professional development as individuals have more opportunities to exchange and build on existing knowledge not available to them otherwise (Gagliardi, Wright, Anderson, & Davis, 2007) and encourages staying (Bowman, 2009). Also career development assistance improves employee career prospects and encourages employee development while discouraging withdrawal (Weng, & McElroy, 2012).

Professionals and managerial talent play a pivotal role in organisations as their development improves organisational performance (Garavan, Barnicle, & O'Suillebhain, 1999). Yet, the codified body of knowledge and competencies they possess (Wilensky, 1964) is valuable to their firm as well as to other firms which increases their external labour market employability (Sammarra, Profili, & Innocenti, 2012). So, employers value and are willing to recognise and recompense the knowledge

that professionals and managers have accrued outside the organisation as they struggle to align skills supply with demand (Peterson, 2013). In response, organisations are becoming more proactive in providing developmental opportunities for their staff to alleviate the shortages that impact their business (Manpower, 2013).

The degree to which organisations meet employee expectations of career growth needs influence their desire to stay (Chang, 1999). According to the theory of met expectations the degree to which individuals' expectations are met influences their attitudes and behaviour (Porter, & Steers, 1973). So, developmental opportunities that satisfy employee needs also improve affective attachment towards the organisation (Greguras, & Diefendorff, 2009). In fact, career growth opportunities have illustrated a positive relationship with affective commitment (Weng, 2010). On the contrary, if organisations are unable to fulfil individual needs for career growth, the attractiveness for alternative employment prospects gain importance.

Developing talented staff who contribute to the organisation's competitive advantage is important (Tsui, Pearce, Porter, & Tripoli, 1997; Lepak, & Snell, 2002). Yet, not all managerial and professional categories are given the same importance when investigating their development and how it may contribute to their commitment and turnover as well as positive organisational outcomes such as performance and competitive advantage. For example, line managers are essential in affecting the organisation's performance and yet are given little note (Sheehan, 2012; Dragoni, Tesluk, Russell, & Oh, 2009). As Collings, & Mellahi (2009) state, being strategic in managing talent pools is essential as it impacts on their motivation, organisational commitment and retention.

Literature which investigates the developmental needs between its managerial, technical and professional staff is sparse (Cha, Kim, & Tae-Yeol, 2009; Lim, 2010). Yet, understanding the development needs for talented staff is important as an employee's growth contributes to their levels of commitment, JE (Bergiel et al., 2009) and TI (Chang et al., 2007). We ask the following questions:

RQ1 (a): Is there a difference in developmental practices (professional growth, professional interaction, career development), JE and TI between employment categories (middle management, lower management, professionals) in China?

RQ1 (b): Is there a difference in developmental practices (professional growth, professional interaction, career development), JE and TI between employment categories (top management, middle management, lower management, professionals) in Indonesia?

RQ1 (c): Is there a difference in developmental practices (professional growth, professional interaction, career development), JE and TI for employment categories (top management, middle management, lower management, professionals) in Malaysia?

Professionals and managers are groups of talented staff who belong to organisations as well as countries in the Asia region. Although Asia is a general term used in literature, countries in Asia have diverse historical and cultural differences. These innate differences encourage distinct preferences. We suggest that these preferences need further investigation across countries. In particular, our focus is manufacturing plants in China and Indonesia and Malaysia. These groups of employees and countries are significant as they are experiencing talent shortages (Deloitte, 2013).

We hope to fill some of the gaps in research focus in the Asian geographical area. In particular, we focus on employment categories (i.e., professional and management levels) across countries. This information would contribute to our understanding of the influence that organisational practices have on talented staff groups' organisational attitudes and behaviour across countries among talented staff groups. We suggest the following question:

RQ2: Is there a difference in developmental practices (professional growth, professional interaction, career development), JE and TI for different employment categories (middle management, lower management, professionals) across countries (China, Indonesia, Malaysia)?

METHOD

Participants and procedure

Data were gathered from managerial employees in steel manufacturing organisations in China and Malaysia and a cement plant in Indonesia. This sample was appropriate for the purposes of this study as these industries are experiencing a shortage in engineering and business occupations (Farrell, & Grant, 2005). The steel industry in particular has had problems retaining professional and managerial

staff. The survey instrument was developed using a translation-back-translation procedure to ensure an item's meaning in Chinese accurate reflection of the original meaning in English (Brislin, 1980).

In total, 308 completed surveys from China, 239 from Indonesia and 296 from Malaysia were returned. On the basis of the responses of 843 participants the majority of respondents' age group's (66.8%) were between 36 and 55 years age group (China 17%, Indonesia 26%, Malaysia 18%). Also the majority's employment categories (77%) were professional and middle management; (49%) was professional staff such as engineers and accountants (China 18%, Indonesia 3%, Malaysia 23%); a smaller segment 28% worked in middle management (managers and section heads) positions (China 2%, Indonesia 17%, Malaysia 6%). Lower management (23%) included supervisors and line leaders (China 43.6%, Indonesia 13.1%, Malaysia 11.5%).

Measures

Developmental Practices. Managers were asked to evaluate three groups of developmental practices: professional growth, professional interaction and career development. Respondents indicated their level of agreement or disagreement to statements (please see below) using a scale ranging from (1) "strongly disagree" to (7) "strongly agree". The three HR practice scales are described below.

Professional growth was assessed using three items from Hart et al.'s (2000) professional growth scale. A sample item is "The professional development planning in the organization takes into account my individual needs and interests".

Professional interaction was assessed using three items from Hart et al.'s (2000) professional interaction scale. A sample item is "People in this organization can rely on their colleagues for support and assistance when needed".

Career development was assessed using four items from Penley & Hawkin's (1985) career communication scale. A sample item is "My supervisor encourages me to develop my career".

JE measures the links, fit, and sacrifice dimensions of Mitchell et al.'s (2001) on-the-JE scale. Links was assessed using six items. A sample item is "How long have you been in your present position?". Fit was measured using six items. A sample item is "I feel like I am a good match for this organization". Sacrifice was measured using eight items. A sample item is "I would sacrifice a lot if I left this job". For

the fit and sacrifice items, respondents indicated their level of agreement or disagreement with a series of statements using a scale ranging from (1) "strongly disagree" to (7) "strongly agree". Item responses were standardized and averaged to form Links, Fit, and Sacrifice scales.

TI was assessed using three items from Peters, Jackofsky, & Salter's (1981) TI scale. A sample item is "I will quit my job soon".

RESULTS

Our primary objective was to test whether there was a difference in developmental practices and employee outcomes between talented staff holding different level positions in manufacturing organisations in three countries in the Asia Pacific region (China, Indonesia and Malaysia).

Several ANOVAs were conducted to evaluate the relationship amongst variables. First, we established no significant difference between variances across groups with the Levene statistic. Then, a one-way ANOVA procedure tested whether developmental practices, JE and TI between employment categories were significantly different (Table 1). In China, career development practices, JE and TI differed significantly across the three employment categories (e.g., professional growth, F (2, 287) = 7.97, p = .000). For Indonesia JE was the only significant difference across employment categories, F(2, 180) = 4.10, p = .02). Malaysia's JE, (F(2, 267) = 12.50, p = .000) and TI, (F(2, 267) = 12.50)267) = 4.85, p = .009) differed significantly across employment categories. Tuckey post-hoc comparisons of the three employment categories (Table 2) for the Chinese and Indonesia samples indicate that developmental practices and JE were rated higher (e.g., for the Chinese sample, professional growth mean = 5.38, 95% CI [4.85, 5.91]) and TI were rated lower (e.g., TI mean = 2.67, CI [2.18, 3.15]) by middle management than the lower management and professional employment categories. Alternately, the Malaysian sample indicated that developmental practices were consistent across employment categories (e.g., professional growth mean = 4.36, 95% CI [4.02, 4.70]), while JE mean = 3.81, 95% CI [3.61, 3.84]) was rated higher and TI (mean = 5.38, 95% CI [2.80, 3.54]) was rated lower by middle management than the professional employment categories.

Insert Table 1, Table 2 about here

The structure of the differences is illustrated using the sample means plots which represent participant's ratings (Figures 1 and 2). Professionals and line managers in each manufacturing plant rated the developmental practices and JE the lowest and TI the highest. Alternately, middle management participants rated developmental practices and their JE highly and TI the lowest.

Insert Figures 1 and 2 about here

We then combined the data from the three manufacturing plants and used multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) to see whether these differences were equally valid across the three countries (China, Indonesia, Malaysia). In order to test these hypotheses we first tested underlying assumptions. The Levene test established equal variance for each of the dependent variables (career development, JE and TI). However, the Box's M value (279.71, p=.000) was significant. Therefore, we reviewed the covariance matrices between the groups (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) and found that larger groups provided greater variances and covariances indicating conservative probability values and that the significant M value can be trusted. A statistically significant MANOVA effect for employment categories (Pillais' Trace = .09, F(10, 1462) = 6.33, p < .000) and country type (Pillais' Trace = .09, F(10, 1462). So, developmental practices, JE and TI vary significantly between employment categories across countries. Multiple comparisons of mean differences of developmental practices between professionals and different levels of management for our manufacturing plants in China, Indonesia and Malaysia (Table 3) and JE and TI (Table 4) illustrated significant differences for China between the middle management group and the other two employment categories yet, no significant mean difference between the lower management and professionals categories. TI Significance at the .05 level was only noted between means of lower management and executives for JE (Table 4).

The profile plots represent the model-estimated mean of developmental practices, JE and TI for middle management, lower management and professionals across the countries and give us a visual representation of the pattern of professional growth, professional interaction, JE (Figure 3) and TI (Figure 4) across countries. The pattern is similar for lower level management and professional categoriess across country samples. Professionals tend to have the lowest levels of professional growth, professional interaction and JE which is also lower than the lower management groups across

countries (Figure 3). Also, levels of TI are higher for lower management and professional groups and lowest for middle management groups (Figure 4).

Insert Table 3, Table 4, Figure 3 and 4 about here

DISCUSSION

Escalating labour shortages across Asia have heightened the importance of retaining talented staff. Therefore, this study investigated the levels of developmental practices, JE and TI of talented staff in organisations. We focused on middle, lower level managers and professionals, because organisational roles have different impact on the organisation's sustainable competitive advantage (Boudreau, & Ramstad, 2005). We examined the extent to which these different groups of talented staff perceive that they are developed and their levels of JE and retention propensity.

Our results make two important contributions to the talent management and JE literatures. First, we demonstrate that talent development perceptions, for pivotal positions held by professionals, are rated similar to that for lower management and are rated lower than the middle management group. Second, focusing on JE and TI, we illustrated that levels of JE were again lower for the professional and lower management groups and highest for the middle management group and the reverse for TI.

Talent management

In our study, there was no difference between the developmental practices (professional growth, professional interaction and career development) of lower management and professional groups for each of the country samples. This finding is consistent with management development policy for professionals which has been "reactive and superficial" (Wang, Rothwell, & Sun, 2009: 216). It highlights the importance for developing talented staff (Garavan, Carbery, & Rock, 2012), rather than 'poaching' from competitors to alleviate talent shortages. The implication is that organisations may be able to reduce 'job hopping' of talented staff, a major threat for organisations in Asia (Jiang, Baker, & Frazier, 2009; Rahman, 2012; Spencer, 2012) by becoming proactive in talent management (Dragoni et al., 2009; Chami-Malaeb, & Garavan, 2013).

It is no surprise that middle management development has been given greater focus in China. A low skilled labour market requires that Chinese organisations invest in management development education (Au, Altman, & Roussel, 2008; Benson, & Zhu, 2002). It follows that the middle management groups' JE, was typically greater than that for the lower management and professional groups for each of the samples. Also, middle management groups' TI was the lowest. These results may reflect the association between the developmental opportunities which result in employees enhanced JE and reduction of TI (Bergiel et al., 2009). The investment the organisation in China made in developing middle managers is comparable to the managers' higher levels of JE and least propensity to leave. In comparison, lower levels of developmental opportunities for the lower level management and professionals group were linked to lower levels of JE and higher levels of TI.

Finally, comparing developmental practices, JE and TI for different employment categories groups across the manufacturing plants, we found little significant difference between lower management and professional groups. This result was surprising as there is a significant shift in global organisations to invest towards talented employees as they contribute to organisational performance (Garavan, 2012; Sheehan, 2012) and professional staff are pivotal to the organisation's performance and competitive advantage (Paton, Wagner, & MacIntosh, 2011). Investing more heavily in developing staff who possess unique skills and who have high strategic value to the organisation gains greater commitment and intentions to stay (Chami-Malaeb, & Garavan, 2013).

Managerial implications

On the whole, our findings suggest that organisations are most successful in developing and embedding their middle management. Organisations can design developmental systems which balance the allocation of resources according to the contributions that staff makes to the organisation's competitive advantage. Increasing the number of qualified managers is urgent (Farrell, & Grant, 2005). However, quality developmental activities that improve lower level management competencies are essential (Dragoni et al., 2009) in order to enhance organisational performance (Sheehan, 2012). Alternately, professionals possess critical skills and competencies that contribute to a firm's core

competence (McDonnell, 2008). In other words, focusing on attracting and retaining professionals in key positions becomes a key driver for managing talented staff (Iles et al., 2010)

Our findings demonstrate that in order to reduce talented staff's TI and increase their levels of embeddedness, organisations may need to rethink the allocation of resources to professional staff. Organisations can design development opportunities for professional staff that would heighten embeddedness and inadvertently reduce intentions of leaving (Dawley, Houghton, & Bucklew, 2010). The more individuals would be losing by leaving, the greater would be the difficulty of severing ties with the organisation and the greater the propensity of their embeddedness (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablynski, & Erez, 2001). A better strategy might be to design developmental opportunities that focus manager's attention on the positive benefits they would lose were they to leave.

Limitations and opportunities for future research

This study presents several limitations. First, our research relied on data from different sized middle management, lower level management and professional groups. Preliminary analysis however, revealed that equality of variance analysis was not significant for each of the measures and accepted the null hypothesis that the group variances were equal.

Another limitation is that due to limited time and resources we compared one manufacturing plant, from China, Indonesia and Malaysia. Therefore, conclusions about these countries could not be drawn nor generalisations made to other societies in Asia, as each have their own unique labour management systems, political, economic and social characteristics (Zhu, Warner, & Rowley, 2007; Benson, & Zhu, 2011). However, our results largely corroborate those from current talent literature which asserts that organisations should differentiate their talent pool and invest in their development in order to retain them (Collings, & Mellahi, 2009; Boudreau, & Ramstad, 2005). It must be noted however that these studies are theoretical and our study extends to specific employment segments and should be regarded as complementary. Future research may also investigate the developmental practices for talented staff in other countries and industries in Asia. As more companies expand into new emerging markets, developing talent will likely become a differentiator (Deloitte, 2013).

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Page 15 of 27 ANZAM 2013

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Page 17 of 27 ANZAM 2013

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Page 19 of 27 ANZAM 2013

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Page 21 of 27 ANZAM 2013

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TABLE 1: ANOVA FOR DEVELOPMENTAL PRACTICES, JE AND TI FOR EACH OF THE MANUFACTURING PLANTS IN CHINA, INDONESIA AND MALAYSIA

		China				Indonesia				Malaysia			
		Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F
Professional growth	Between groups	19.89	2	9.95	7.97****	2.04	2	1.02	1.25	.08	2	.04	.04
	Within groups	358.04	287	1.25		147.13	180	.82		269.04	267	1.01	
Professional interaction	Between groups	19.03	2	9.52	10.53****	.67	2	.34	.66	1.681	2	.84	1.13
	Within groups	259.44	287	.90		91.72	180	.51		198.69	267	.74	
Career development	Between groups	13.99	2	6.99	6.02**	5.13	2	2.57	1.56	.76	2	.38	.28
	Within groups	333.61	287	1.16		296.68	180	1.65		362.62	267	1.36	
Job embeddedness	Between groups	18.26	2	9.13	19.36****	2.78	2	1.39	4.10*	9.28	2	4.64	12.50****
	Within groups	135.38	287	.47		61.06	180	.34		99.10	267	.37	
Turnover intentions	Between groups	22.31	2	11.16	5.98**	1.71	2	.86	.63	16.39	2	8.19	4.85**
*- < 05.** < 01.*	Within groups	535.54	287	1.87		243.49	180	1.35		451.17	267	1.69	

*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001; ****p < .000.

Page 22 of 27

Page 23 of 27 ANZAM 2013

Table 2: TUCKEY POST-HOC COMPARISONS OF EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS WITH CONFIDENCE INTERVALS FOR THE MANUFACTURING PLANTS IN CHINA, INDONESIA AND MALAYSIA

Employment Status Groups	Profess	sional Growth	Professional Interaction		Career Development		Job Embeddedness		Turnover Intentions	
	Mean	95% CI for Mean Lower/ Upper Bound	Mean	95% CI for Mean Lower/ Upper Bound	Mean	95% CI for Mean Lower/ Upper Bound	Mean	95% CI for Mean Lower/ Upper Bound	Mean	95% CI for Mean Lower/Upper Bound
<u>China</u>										
Middle management	5.38	4.85/5.91	6.06	5.63/6.51	5.27	4.76/5.77	4.36	3.99/4.73	2.67	2.18/3.15
Lower management	4.29	4.07/4.51	5.01	4.84/5.19	4.34	4.13/4.54	3.40	3.28/3.53	3.64	3.41/3.88
Professionals	4.56	4.39/4.72	5.00	4.84/5.14	4.52	4.36/4.69	3.29	3.19/3.40	3.20	2.97/3.43
Total	4.49	4.36/4.63	5.07	4.96/5.18	4.48	4.36/4.62	3.41	3.32/3.49	3.36	3.20/3.52
<u>Indonesia</u>										
Middle management	4.89	4.02/4.70	5.44	4.58/5.15	4.44	3.85/4.51	4.14	3.61/4.01	2.53	2.80/3.54
Lower management	4.81	4.09/4.76	5.31	4.64/5.33	4.40	3.74/4.59	4.00	3.43/3.84	2.80	2.56/3.73
Professionals	4.53	4.22/4.50	5.27	4.62/4.86	3.88	4.13/4.46	3.73	3.26/3.43	2.70	3.53/3.89
Total	4.84	4.25/4.49	5.40	4.68/4.89	4.38	4.12/4.40	4.08	3.38/3.53	2.59	3.40/3.72
<u>Malaysia</u>										
Middle management	4.36	4.02/4.70	4.86	4.58/5.15	4.18	3.74/4.51	3.81	3.61/3.84	3.17	2.80/3.54
Lower management	4.42	4.09/4.76	4.98	4.64/5.33	4.17	4.13/4.59	3.63	3.43/3.84	3.14	2.56/3.73
Professionals	4.36	4.22/4.50	4.74	4.62/4.86	4.30	4.13/4.46	3.35	3.26/3.43	3.71	3.53/3.89
Total	4.37	4.25/4.49	4.79	4.68/4.89	4.26	3.74/4.40	3.46	3.38/3.53	3.56	3.40/3.72

TABLE 3: MULTIPLE COMPARISONS OF MEAN DIFFERENCES OF DEVELOPMENTAL PRACTICES ACROSS EMPLOYMENT CATEGORIES GROUPS FOR CHINA, INDONESIA AND MALAYSIA

	China			Indonesia			Malaysia		
Developmental Practices	Management employment categories (A)	Management employment categories (B)	Mean difference (A-B)	Management employment categories (A)	Management employment categories (B)	Mean difference (A-B)	Management employment categories (A)	Management employment categories (B)	Mean difference (A-B)
Professional growth	Middle	Lower Professional	1.09*** .82*	Middle	Lower Professional	.08 .35	Middle	Lower Professional	06 00
	Lower	Middle Professional	-1.09*** 27	Lower	Middle Professional	08 .28	Lower	Middle Professional	.06 .06
Professional Interaction	Middle	Lower Professional	1.05*** 1.07***	Middle	Lower Professional	.12 .17	Middle	Lower Professional	12 .12
	Lower	Middle Professional	-1.05*** .02	Lower	Middle Professional	12 .04	Lower	Middle Professional	.12 .24
Career development	Middle	Lower Professional	.93** .74*	Middle	Lower Professional	.04 .57	Middle	Lower Professional	.02 11
	Lower	Middle Professional	93** 19	Lower	Middle Professional	04 .52	Lower	Middle Professional	02 13

*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001; ****p < .000.

Page 24 of 27

Page 25 of 27 ANZAM 2013

TABLE 4: MULTIPLE COMPARISONS OF JE AND TI ACROSS EMPLOYMENT CATEGORIES FOR CHINA, INDONESIA AND MALAYSIA

	China			Indonesia			Malaysia		
Retention	Management employment categories (A)	Management employment categories (B)	Mean difference (A-B)	Management employment categories (A)	Management employment categories (B)	Mean difference (A-B)	Management employment categories (A)	Management employment categories (B)	Mean difference (A-B)
Job embeddedness	Middle	Lower Professional	.96*** 1.07***	Middle	Lower Professional	.14 .40*	Middle	Lower Professional	.18 .46***
	Lower	Middle Professional	96*** .11	Lower	Middle Professional	14 .27	Lower	Middle Professional	18 .29
Turnover intentions	Middle	Lower Professional	98* 53	Middle	Lower Professional	26 17	Middle	Lower Professional	.03 54*
	Lower	Middle Professional	.98* .44*	Lower	Middle Professional	.26 .10	Lower	Middle Professional	03 57

^{*}p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001; ****p < .000.

FIGURE 1: PARTICIPANTS' GENERAL MEAN RATINGS OF DEVELOPMENTAL PRACTICES AND JOB EMBEDDEDNESS FOR DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT CATEGORIES

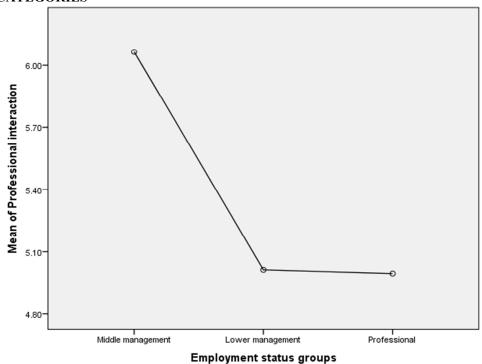


FIGURE 2: PARTICIPANTS' GENERAL MEAN RATINGS OF TURNOVER INTENTIONS FOR DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT CATEGORIES

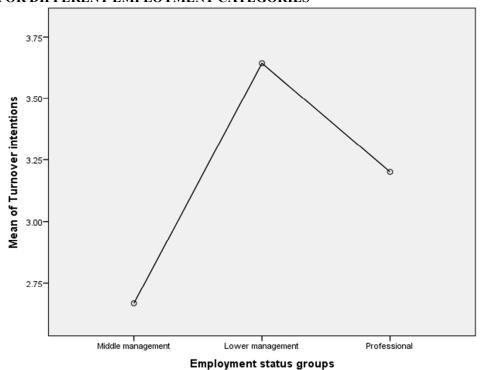


FIGURE 3: PLOT REPRESENTING THE PATTERN OF PROFESSIONAL GROWTH, PROFESSIONAL INTERACTION AND JOB EMBEDDEDNESS FOR DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT CATEGORIES ACROSS CHINA, INDONESIA AND MALAYSIA SAMPLES

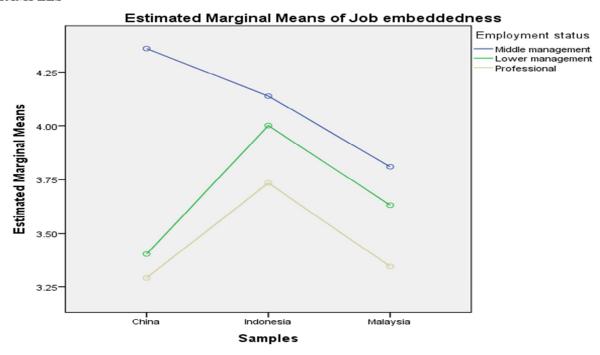


FIGURE 4: THE PATTERN OF TURNOVER INTENTIONS FOR DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT CATEGORIES ACROSS CHINA INDONESIA AND MALAYSIA SAMPLES

