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Impact of motivation factors on employee retention in China: Mediating role of work engagement

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Master in Management

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BUSINESS
SCHOOL

Department of Marketing, Strategy and Operations

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Resumo

A alta rotatividade de funcionários é uma preocupação crescente na China, principalmente devido à crescente competição do mercado de trabalho interno com a melhoria econômica. Isso tem sido atribuído principalmente à competição por recompensas monetárias entre as empresas, mas ainda há pouco conhecimento sobre o papel que as recompensas não monetárias desempenham, de uma perspectiva de recompensa total. Para tanto, o engajamento no trabalho pode ser um importante fator explicativo como alternativa ao comprometimento organizacional. Assim, o objetivo deste artigo é investigar como os componentes da recompensa total, compreendendo recompensas monetárias e não monetárias, influenciam a escolha dos funcionários de permanecer nas organizações chinesas por meio do envolvimento no trabalho, enquanto controlam sua satisfação no trabalho e compromisso organizacional afetivo. Com uma amostra de 257 funcionários de 19 províncias, os resultados mostram que tanto monetários como não monetários são importantes para entender as intenções de rotatividade, que foram explicadas por meio do papel do mediador de engajamento no trabalho. O engajamento no trabalho é apontado como uma das estratégias centrais das organizações que visam a retenção de funcionários.

Palavras-chave: Recompensas totais, Recompensas monetárias, Recompensas não monetárias, Engajamento no trabalho, Intenção de ficar, Satisfação no trabalho, Compromisso organizacional afetivo.

Abstract

High employee turnover is a rising concern in China, mostly due to the growing internal job market competition with economic betterment. This has been mostly attributed to monetary rewards competition among companies but there is still scarce knowledge about the role non-monetary rewards play, from a total rewards perspective. To achieve this, work engagement can be an important explanative factor as an alternative to organizational commitment. Thus, the purpose of this paper is to investigate how total reward components, comprehending monetary and non-monetary rewards, influence employees' choice to stay in Chinese organizations via work engagement while controlling for their job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment. With a sample of 257 employees from 19 provinces, findings show both monetary and non-monetary are important to understand turnover intentions which was explained via the mediator role of work engagement. Work engagement is advised to be at the central strategies for organizations that aim to retain employees.

Keywords: Total Rewards, Monetary rewards, Non-monetary rewards, Work engagement, Intention to stay, Job satisfaction, Affective organizational commitment.

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1. Introduction

With the reform and open-door policy, China's economy has integrated extensively into the global economy which brought higher market competitiveness. This can be a synonym of a vibrant and dynamic economy, but it also brings new challenges to organizations, independently of their size, market or industry, namely higher difficulty in retaining employees (Ramlall, 2004). This issue of employee turnover has long been a major concern for organizations, because employee turnover has a direct impact on financial costs associated with higher need for investment in recruitment, selecting and training staff, it also impacts negatively on productivity (Weisberg & Kirchenbaum, 1991).

Such trend has been witnessed in China as the reform and the development of the labor market increased labor turnover and has become a serious problem for many enterprises (Gamble & Huang, 2008). According to the information posted by STATISTA (2019), the employment rate decreased from 68.4% to 65.2% during 2009 to 2019 in China. Due to an aging population and lower birth rate, the actual size of labor force has been shrinking steadily in recent years. The global economic slowdown also has an impact on labor market in China, under the US-China trade war, many Chinese companies have difficulty in international trade, which leads to the GDP rate fell to a new record in 2019 and the number of available employees decrease in China's labor market. Therefore, retaining employees is important in all types of organizations, losing employees will make a huge cost. Meanwhile, organizations need to recruit, select and train new employees. Moreover, losing employees lead to work disruptions, loss of organizational memory, or tacit knowledge, loss in productivity or to lower customer service (Bryant & Allen, 2013).

In tackling this phenomenon researchers have developed behavioral models to understand the motives for changing employer in these circumstances. Previous studies found that intention to leave is related to job attitudes (e.g. job satisfaction and organizational commitment), demographic variables (e.g. age, gender, education, tenure, etc.), external factors (e.g. career development opportunities, and economic and market conditions) and job-related variables (e.g. work condition, role conflict and job tasks) among others (Arnold & Feldman 1982; Steel & Ovalle 1984; Shore, Thornton & Newton 1990; Ghiselli et al., 2001)。

Likewise, researchers looked for HR strategies and practices that were capable of retaining employees. A notable organizational retention initiative is compensation and benefits. Compensation has a positive influence on employee retention (Phil et al., 2013). Walsh and Taylor (2007) suggested that employers need to provide a good salary and benefits package to those employees who are most committed to performing challenging works. Long ago, Hashimoto (1979) provided evidence that flexible bonus payment not only reduces turnover but also enhances investment on job training. On the other hand, recognition is an important part of an employee retention plan. When employees receive recognition from supervisor, they become more committed. More evidence confirmed that supportive supervision is related to organizational support, organizational commitment, and job retention (Balfour & Wechsler, 1991, Gerstner & Day, 1997; Leiter & Maslach, 1988).

These factors can be loosely considered, but they can also be taken as different ways of rewarding employees' dedication in tangible and intangible ways. Total rewards approach in HRM has been advocating this integrative view (Thompson, 2002). Total rewards were regarded as a useful reward model to motivate, engage and retain employees. According to Cao et al. (2013), five elements of total rewards affect turnover rate, namely salary, rewards, work-life balance, performance and recognition, and career development opportunities.

An explanative mechanism for this positive relationship has targeted how much they can leverage employees' affective commitment to their organization. This variable has been found to be a crucial determinant of dedication and loyalty. An emotionally committed employee is one that has a personal sense of belonging and identification with the organization, that arouses their enthusiasm to work in and for the organization (Mayer & Allen, 1991). This variable has long been known to relate to job performance, absenteeism and turnover (Mayer & Allen, 1997). Escaping from the initial approach focused on the role sociodemographic variables play in employee turnover, Mayer and Allen (1997) also showed that affective commitment has stronger associations with organizational rewards, supervisor support and procedural justice than personal characteristics or even the structural features of organizations.

Another key variable in employee retention studies is job satisfaction. This variable is very similar to commitment but they differ fundamentally because satisfaction is a positive

emotional state (Locke, 1976) originating from the evaluation of the degree organizations match expectations and job satisfaction takes into consideration not just work but also the large organizational context (Bussing et al., 1999) while commitment is a specific attitude towards the organization expressed as the feeling of being attached to the organization both emotionally, also to a sense of duty and lastly due to the opportunity costs it would represent to leave the organization (Allen & Mayer, 1996).

These two variables are often seen in published research linked to turnover intention. However, by looking to the definition of total rewards itself, the purpose of engaging employees is central but it is somewhat missing from this literature because neither satisfying nor committing employees is the same of engaging employees. The philosophy of total rewards is to provide a sense of meaning at work, that fosters energy and dedication when working. This very closely matches the concept of work engagement (Schaufeli et al., 2002).

Considering its importance in determining the effectiveness of HR practices, this study aims to answer how total rewards may influence turnover intention among employees, by means of work engagement after controlling for the most commonly used variables of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. To achieve this goal, this study develops the literature review in three ways. First, drawing on the total reward model, we argue that work engagement is a key variable in explaining how both the monetary and non-monetary rewards foster employee retention. As against the common idea that employee retention is mostly due to organizational commitment, we think work engagement is a unique variable in explaining this, adding to the capability organizational commitment to retain employees. Second, through an empirical contribution to the extant literature, we are aiming to test the mediating role of work engagement in an organization, controlling for the competitive effect of organizational commitment and job satisfaction. This we believe is novel in the Chinese context, especially taken into consideration the joint analysis of monetary and non-monetary rewards. Besides this theoretical contribution, this study also makes a few significant practical contributions by providing the grounds to advise HR managers on how to develop policies to intrinsically and extrinsically reward employees, thus reducing employees turnover rate. This study presents the literature review at first, then it shows the methods deployed to test the conceptual model and

respective hypotheses, and then it shows and discusses results at the light of theory while concluding, not without acknowledging the limitations and implications for future research.

2. Literature Review

In this section, a brief review of previous literature in the field of total rewards, work engagement, intentions to stay and the two work-related concepts of satisfaction and organizational commitment are discussed for the foundation and understanding of the proposed concepts.

2.1 Total Rewards

According to Thompson (2002), total rewards is an approach that provide a package which ranges from tangible components to non-tangible components that organizations can use to reward employees. Total rewards are simultaneously personal or tailored to the individual (such as salary and development planning), but also provided in a similar way to everyone (such as benefit programs) (Roberts, 2013). Previous studies reported that total rewards have categorized into many different perspectives. According to Lyons and Ben-Ora (2002), total rewards can be divided into two major categories, the first category includes base pay, variable pay (containing short term incentives and long-term incentives), other compensations, perquisites, benefits and performance management. The second category includes training, career development, coaching and other employee-related policies. Armstrong and Brown (2006) suggested that total reward model can be divided into five dimensions namely base pay, contingent pay, employee benefits, learning development, and the work experience. According to De Gieter et al. (2006), total rewards can be divided into three categories: financial, non-financial, and psychological. The first category relates to all financial payments, the second category relates to work appreciation by others, compliment from others, presents from others. The last category relates to recognition from others, gratitude, social support, work climate and earning confidence from others.

WorldatWork is the Total Reward Association of the United States and one of important innovators of this theory (WorldatWork, 2006). It proposes total rewards is an organization's strategy to attract, motivate, retain and engage employees. This model includes compensation, benefits, work-life balance, recognition, performance management, and talent development. Based on the WorldatWork model, Armstrong and Brown (2006) proposed a new component,

work experience. So, overall, there are many propositions about which components a total rewards model comprehends. The common denominator seems to be two emphasis: one on monetary rewards (more economic or financial in nature), and the other on non-monetary rewards (more psychological and intangible).

The is convergence, however, that total rewards model is strategically designed to engage employees into work.

2.2 Work engagement

It has become common knowledge that today's organizations need to engage employees. Kahn (1990) defined engagement as employees taking on their work roles in such a way that they employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during work performance. Therefore, engaged employees are optimistic and show a great deal of effort, showing positive attitudes and achieving high-level performance, but being also more creative in their work, being more able to receive appreciation and appreciating other's work, and likewise, recognition and success. According to this author, engaged employees are often highly engaged in their lives as well, not just work.

The alternative view argued that work engagement is an independent, distinct concept. Schaufeli et al. (2002) defined work engagement is work-related psychological state that comprehends three dimensions: 1) a sense of vigor, meaning a high level of energy and resilience at work. Vigorous employees are those that put a lot of effort even when facing hard times; 2) dedication due to a challenging and meaningful work, that inspires, creates enthusiasm and a sense of pride; 3) lastly, absorption by work, where employees deeply focus their attention at work and experience flow, i.e. a feeling that time passes quickly.

One of the consequences of being engaged at work is the reluctancy in exiting work and thus, the strong intention to endure whatever harshness may arise (González-Roma et al., 2006).

2.3 Intention to stay

Intention to stay is characterized as the employees' intention to stay in their current workplace with their employer on a long-term basis. Conversely, intention to exit implies employees

choose to leave and break off their employment relationship. According to Vandenberg and Nelson (1999), employees' intention to quit comprehends an individual's thought about leaving their organization at some point in the future.

This has long been treated as a serious problem for organizations. For instance, Mobley (1982) reported that when highly valued employees quit and move to another workplace is more of a serious problem than the frequency of corporate layoffs. This topic emerges recurrently in literature and has been one of the key issues for recruitment and selection of new employees, to learn how to attract and keep talent employees and favor their organizational tenure.

Past research suggested that retaining valued performers is a crucial matter for organizations. To explore the reason why employees quit, several relevant strategies need to be considered as organization are now competing for talent (Mitchell et al., 2001). One of the strategies that have been pointed out, is the feeling of one's own contribution to the organization being valued and likewise, a sense of belongingness is critical, as one that feels part of the family nurtures no interest in abandoning it (Taylor, 2002). This author concludes that organizations have firstly to be able to attract and retain employees through generous competitive salaries in addition to a good benefit package.

2.4 The Rewards - Retaining link: Central role of work engagement

The three constructs explored in this study so far, total rewards, work engagement and intention to stay, are intuitively linked. This has received support, albeit partial, from extant literature.

Rumbel and Medcof (2006) found that total rewards effectively attract, retain and motivate employees that are facing challenges in high-technology firms. Responses from 180 nurses have driven Terera and Ngirande (2014) to reach a conclusion: employee rewards lead to employee retention. Gieter and Hofmans (2015) indicated that a significant negative relationship existed between turnover intentions and satisfaction with financial rewards, material rewards and psychological rewards. Chew (2004) also empirically found eight retention factors that influence the decision employees to remain in the organization. These eight factors are organized around two dimensions: HR factors and organizational factors. The former comprehends how much HR can foster a sense of person-organization fit, good

remuneration, reward and recognition, investment in training and career development, and building challenging job opportunities. The latter comprehends how leaders behave, the organizational culture, the working climate, and the quality of teamwork relationships. So, retention factors are as much related to monetary issues as they are to non-monetary ones.

Monetary issues have been mostly studied. Boxall et al. (2013) demonstrated that employee turnover and retention in New Zealand have a strong relationship with extrinsic rewards (such as pay, promotion and security, work-life balance and interpersonal relationships). In the same vein a study conducted by Long and Perumal (2014) confirmed that compensation and benefits are significantly related to staff turnover intentions in a Singapore based security company. Samson (2010) found that compensation and training had a significant direct effect on turnover intentions of employees hired in ICT sector in India. However, these findings are not always supported. For example, Kim (2005) found that the salary was not a statistically significant variable affecting state government IT employees' turnover intentions.

Alongside with monetary issues, non-monetary ones have received also much attention. Lin (2007) defined that intrinsic motivation factors such as knowledge self-efficacy and enjoyment in helping others were significantly associated with employee intentions. Stumpf et al. (2013) have used a sample of 585 employees across seven companies, 25 business units and three countries to exam how intrinsic rewards help organization to reduce employee dissatisfaction and reduce turnover, to find that intrinsic rewards were positively related to satisfaction with the organization and intention to stay.

Based on this, it is hypothesized that:

H1. Total rewards are positively associated to employee intention to stay

H1a. Monetary rewards are positively associated to employee intention to stay

H1b. Non-monetary rewards are positively associated to employee intention to stay

This relationship might not be so direct as found. For example, with a sample of 225 social service workers, Maertz Jr et al. (2007) concluded that perceive organizational support had a significant effect on turnover intentions mediated through normative and affective organizational commitment. Thus, mediators seem to be in play to explain how rewards lead to

higher intention to stay. Organizational commitment seems to be a key psychological state that fills this role of mediating the relationship.

However, this construct has not always been clearly given such status as, e.g. Cho et al. (2009) treated organizational commitment as a non-monetary reward that was found to decrease employees' intention to leave. Thus, organizational commitment, especially affective commitment, require special attention in this context.

Organizational commitment has been defined in many ways (Kim, 2012). An early view from Mowday et al. (1982) pointed that organizational commitment refers to an attitude and behavior that evolve in the job, consisting of a strong belief on organizational goals, and enduring intention to remain in the organization. So, from this point of view, the intention to stay was part of the definition of the construct itself. Bieby (1992) defined commitment as the extent to which employees' identification with a value, role and behavior, or organization is seen to be central among alternative ones. The most well-known definition was advanced by Allen and Meyer (1990, 1996) and Meyer and Allen (1991) that envisaged three dimensions: affective, continuance, and normative. Allen and Mayer (1990, 1996) defined affective commitment as an emotional attachment to the organization. Continuance commitment occurs when there is a profit associated with continued participation and a cost related to employee leaving the organization. Normative commitment is taken as a believe an employee has that he or she has a sense of duty towards the organization. This proposal clarified much of the construct by giving it a multidimensional nature and highlighting the many motives behind employees' commitment to their organization.

Affective organizational commitment came to be a very important construct for organizational research, as it strongly influences the relationship between organization and employee related outcomes such as turnover intention (Meyer et al., 2002).

Although this construct links the individual to the organization, it is also worthy to ask where does the concept of "engagement" stands in this process? It must play a key role also because it is not only closely linked to the definition of total rewards itself as it has been consistently found to relate with it.

Counting on a sample from five Finnish organizations (n=154) and seven Italian

organizations (n=137), Hulkko-Nyman et al. (2012) found that non-monetary rewards, especially a feeling that one's work is appreciated, are connected to all aspects of work engagement. Gulyani and Sharma (2018) highlighted that employee's perceptions of total rewards have a significant impact on employee work engagement in Indian technology-based new ventures. Also, in hospitality industry, a survey with full-time frontline hotel employees and their managers in Romania lead Karatepe (2013) to conclude that rewards (as one of of High-performance work practices) do increase work engagement. Likewise, rewards, trust and engagement have found to be positively associated to a moderate to strong degree (Victor & Hoole, 2017). External rewards have also been positively associated with employee engagement in the public sector of Uganda (Obicci, 2015). A descriptive and inferential analysis by Mokaya and Kipyegon (2014) have found that performance management system; personal development; growth opportunities; work recreation and remuneration have all a positive influence on employee engagement. Remuneration was the highest contributor to employee engagement together with workplace recreation. According to the previous studies, it is hypothesized that:

H2. Total rewards positively associate to work engagement.

Work engagement is also consistently linked to turnover intention. Hu et al. (2011) found that the higher the employees' level of engagement, the lower their turnover intention. According to Plooy et al. (2010) work engagement is negatively related to turnover intention in a large South Africa IT sector company. Takawira et al. (2014) argued that dedication – one of the dimensions of work engagement, as already explained – negatively predict turnover intention in a South Africa higher education institution. A cross-sectional survey data by Mandu et al. (2014) showed that employee engagement was negatively related with turnover intention in a large South African ICT organization. De Lange et al. (2008) found that employees with low work engagement, low department resource and low job autonomy are much more likely to transfer to other companies. This means that employees who are highly engaged and have received a greater amount of job resources are likely to stay with their organizations. Halbesleben and Wheeler (2008) argued that employees who put high level of investment in

their work may find difficulty to detach from the job, because they invested so much energy in the job. Based on such findings, it is hypothesized that:

H3. Work engagement is positively associated to employees' intention to stay.

The role of work engagement is, in fact, similar to that of organizational commitment as it was already found to partial mediate the relationship between HR practices and turnover intention across various sectors in Malaysia (Juhdi et al., 2013). This also converges with Kundu and Lata (2017) finding of a partial mediation of organizational engagement in the relationship between support work environment and employee retention. By linking the previous hypotheses (that total rewards positively associate to work engagement, which in turn associates positively to intention to stay) it is reasonable to deduce that work engagement is a suitable candidate to be a mediator in addition to current explanations for how total rewards (monetary and non-monetary) are helpful in retaining employees. Hence, it is hypothesized that:

H4. Work engagement mediates the positive relationship between total rewards and intention to stay.

2.5 Competing factors: Job satisfaction and organizational commitment

As stated, two constructs that have been strongly linked to intention to stay or turnover intention are job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Job satisfaction is one of complex areas in management because it is hard to define what job satisfaction is. Different authors offer different explanations concerning the nature of job satisfaction. It can be considered either from a global approach or from a facet approach. The global approach is used to determine a person's overall attitude towards work, while the facet approach is used to identify the particular part that produces job satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Lu et al., 2011). According to Rezaiean et al. (2010), job satisfaction is the general attitude towards employees' job. Lund (2003) defined it as a perceived judgment between what employees want from their job and what they feel that job offers them. Jones and George (2004) proposed that job satisfaction expresses employee beliefs and feelings about their jobs. Evidence provided by Long and Thean (2011) showed job satisfaction has a great impact on

employees' turnover intentions. It is vital for employers to take concern about satisfied employees acknowledging they have higher ability to face challenges and they are more likely to stay with the organization (Robbins et al., 2010).

A descriptive correlational survey conducted by Abualrub and Alghamdi (2011) in Saudi Arabia showed that nurses were more satisfied with leaders who demonstrated transformational leadership styles, and those who were more satisfied with their jobs showed higher intention to remain in hospitals. Still in nursing, with a large sample (791 nurses) from Taiwan, Chen et al. (2015) reached the conclusion that job satisfaction significantly affect intention to stay. Aziz et al. (2007) highlighted that satisfaction with financial rewards leads to lower employee turnover in fast food industry. Kim and Jogaratnam (2010) found that both "intrinsic motivation" and "supervisory leadership" emerge as sound predictors of job satisfaction and its link to employee intention to stay. Udo et al. (1997) pointed job satisfaction as one of the predictors of employees' intention to stay.

A strong correlate of job satisfaction is organizational commitment. With a sample of 416 hospitality employees in U.S. Cho et al. (2009) conclude that organizational support and organizational commitment decrease intent to leave. Affective organizational commitment, especially, is recurrently found to protect organization from high employee turnover. It was found to mediate the relationship between talent development or leadership development on the one hand and intention to stay on the other (Chami-Malaeb & Garavan, 2013). A survey designed by Benjamin (2012) showed that affective organizational commitment has a statistically significant relationship with organizational citizenship behavior and turnover intention. According to Zhao et al. (2013) high quality of work perceived by Chinese clinical nurses enhance their affective commitment and thus reduces their intentions to leave. Hussain and Asif (2012) showed that turnover intentions of telecom sector's employees in Pakistan were dependent on organizational commitment and perceived organizational support, further organizational commitment and perceived organizational support had a significantly negative impact on the employees' intention to stay.

Thus, literature has many cases where both job satisfaction and organizational commitment, especially affective organizational commitment, are consistently and negatively related to

turnover intentions, and thus have been repeatedly targeted as organizational protective factors.

Putting together the four hypotheses as well as the competitive explaining factors of job satisfaction and organizational affective commitment together with plausible sociodemographic control variables, the conceptual model is depicted as follows.

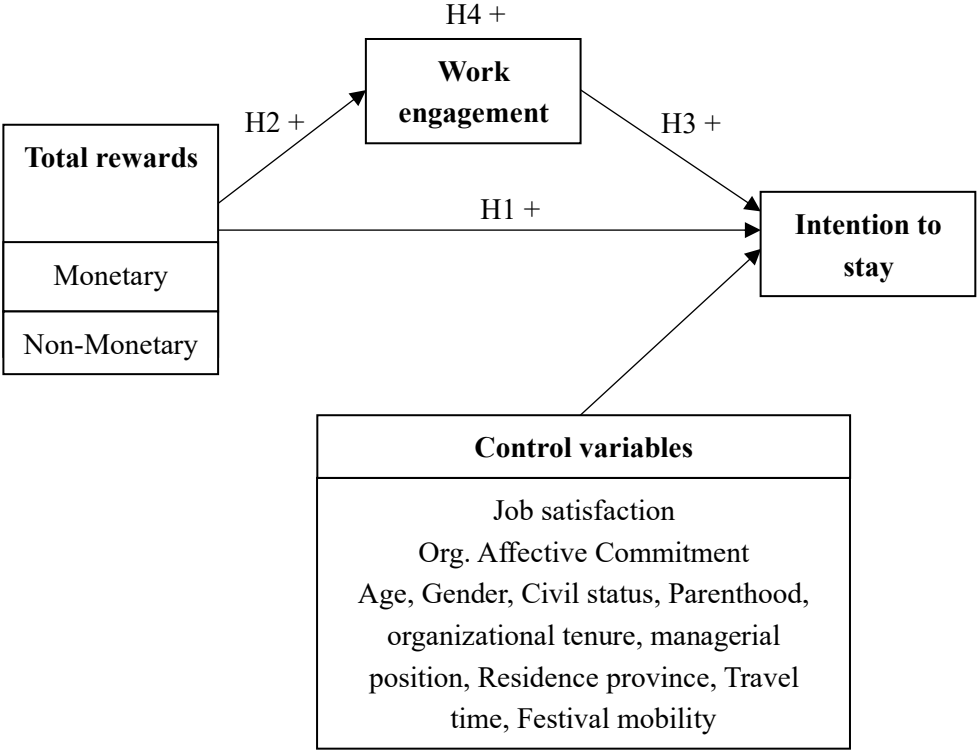


Figure 1 - Conceptual Model

3. Method

3.1 Procedure

We utilized an online structural questionnaire in a general way to collect responses from Chinese employees. The questionnaire started by stating the purpose of the research while giving all required information so that the potential participant could make an informed choice to willingly take or not the questionnaire. Namely, information was provided as regards who was asking, in which academic context, the guarantees of anonymity and confidentiality, and the time it would take to fill. Once this consent was given by pressing the “continue” button, the questionnaire started by asking sociodemographic data, highlighting its sample description only purpose. Then, followed a set of scales concerning both the variables included in the conceptual model as well as those used for control purposes.

3.2 Sample

To test the conceptual model 300 employees working in different organizations in Beijing, Tianjin, Heibei, Chongqing, Xianxi, Guangdong, Sichuan, Zhejiang, Shanghai, Nei Menggu, Shandong, Hei Longjiang, Henan, Yunnan, Fujian, Liaoning, Jiangxi, Guangxi, and Jiangsu were invited. From these, 280 employees answered the survey, with 257 valid answers for final analysis, which represents a response rate of 92 percent.

The sample is gender balanced (49 percent of the respondents were male, and 51 percent were female) and covers a wide range of ages, from 19 to 54 years old, the majority in the 31-45 age group. The sample is mostly educated with 24 percent graduates from high school, 72 percent graduates from university, and 4 percent were master or above (see Table 1).

Table 1 Demographic profile of respondents (N=257)

Variable	%	Variable	%
Gender		Education	
Male	49%	High school	24%
Female	51%	Bachelor	72%
		Master or above	4%
Age		Organizational tenure	
Less than 30	27%	Less than 5 years	36%
31-45	50%	5-10 years	27%
More than 45	23%	More than 10 year	37%

3.3 Measures

Whenever not noted, all constructs were measured using a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (very dissatisfied) to 5 (very satisfied) or a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Monetary rewards were measured based on three widely used scales following previous studies (i.e. Heneman and Schwab, 1985; Sturman et al., 2000). Namely, the satisfaction with pay level scale was utilized to measure employees' pay functions at work (4 items, "I am satisfied with my take-home pay", "I am satisfied with my current salary", "I am satisfied with my overall level of pay" and "I am satisfied with the size of my current salary"). Secondly, the satisfaction related to benefit rewards that employees receive from their organizations (4 items, "I am satisfied with my benefit package", "I am satisfied with the amount the company pays towards my benefits", "I am satisfied with the value of my benefits" and "I am satisfied with the number of benefits I receive"). Lastly, the satisfaction with bonuses or incentives developed by Sturman and Short (2000), sample items are "I am satisfied with my most recent bonus", "I am satisfied with the influence that others have on my bonus", "I am satisfied with the bonuses I have typically received in the past", and "I am satisfied with how my bonuses are determined". Cronbach's alpha reliability of the scale at 0.982.

Non-monetary rewards were measured with De Gieter et al. (2008) Psychological Reward Satisfaction Scale. This scale comprehends recognition from the supervisor (4 items,

satisfaction with ... “the recognition I receive from my supervisor for doing my job”, “the compliments from my supervisor concerning my work”, “a word of thanks from my supervisor” and “the encouragements from my supervisor while doing my job”), recognition from the team (4 items, satisfaction with ... “the recognition I receive from my colleagues / team for doing my job”, “the compliments from my colleagues / team concerning my work”, “a word of thanks from my colleagues / team” and “the encouragements from my colleagues / team while doing my job”). Moreover, the remaining items originated from Moncarz et al. (2009) and pertain to the recognition from the organization (5 items, “My company has program that recognizes employees formally such as an employee-of-the-month or other” , “Employees recognition for achieving individual goals/objectives”, “Departments recognition for meeting their goals/objectives?”, “Managers/supervisors recognition for their subordinates’ successes?” and “Work teams recognition for meeting their goals/objectives?”). Cronbach’s alpha reliability of the scale at 0.972.

Total rewards were measured with Hulkko-Nyman et al. (2012) 9-item scale, that comprehend three dimensions: monetary rewards (perceived pay), material rewards (benefits and feedback), and non-monetary rewards (appreciation for work). Sample items of monetary items are “How do you think the pay system functions in your organization?” and “How do you think employee benefits function in your organization?”. Material rewards including benefits perception (3 items, e.g. “How do you think employee benefits, learning and growth opportunities function in your organization?” , and three feedback items that include “How do you think the possibility of having influence in decision making functions in your organization”, “How do you think work time arrangements function in your organization?” and “How do you think stability of employment functions in your organization?”. These ten items were measured using a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (functions very poorly), through 3 (functions decently) to 5 (functions very well). Non-monetary items include two times. (e.g. “my work is suitably challenging to me” and “my work is appreciated in my organization”) that were measured using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (very little or not at all), through 3 (moderately) to 5 (very much or always). Cronbach’s alpha reliability of the scale at 0.969.

Work engagement was measured with Schaufeli et al. (2002) 9-item scale that

comprehends 3 sub-scales: vigor (3 items, “At my work, I feel bursting with energy”, “At my job, I feel strong and vigorous” and “When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work”), dedication (3 items, “I am enthusiastic about my job”, “My job inspires me” and “I am proud of the work that I do”), and absorption (3 items, “I am immersed in my work”, “I get carried away when I’m working” and “I feel happy when I am working intensely”). All items were measured using a Likert 5-point ranging from “1” =Strongly disagree to “5” = Strongly agree. Cronbach’s alpha reliability of the scale at 0.968.

Intention to stay was measured with Daly and Dee (2006) 4-item scale. Items are “I plan to leave my company/ organization as soon as possible” (reversed), “Under no circumstances will I voluntarily leave my company/organization before retirement”, “I would be reluctant to leave my company/organization” and “I plan to stay in my company/organization as long as possible”. Cronbach’s alpha reliability of the scale at 0.834.

Job satisfaction was measured with 5 items taken from Lytle and Timmerman (2006) scale. For parsimony sake, we opted for using the five items from the ten originally comprised in the scale that had the strongest factor loadings. The five chosen items were: “I feel fairly well satisfied with my job”, “I feel that I am happier in my work than most other people”, “Most days I am enthusiastic about my work”, “I like my job better than the average worker does” and “I find real enjoyment in my work”. Lytle and Timmerman (2006) originally reported high reliability of the scale (above .81). In this study the Cronbach’s alpha of the scale was 0.968.

Organizational affective commitment was measured with Allen and Meyer (1990) subscale comprising 8 items: “I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.”, “I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.”, “I really feel as if this organization’s problems are my own”, “I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one” (reversed), “I do not feel like ‘part of the family’ at my organization” (reversed), “I do not feel ‘emotionally attached’ to this organization” (reversed), “This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me” and “I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization” (reversed). Respondents were asked to read the scale and express their opinions on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The reliability of the organizational affective commitment scale is 0.953.

Other control variables. In this paper, we want to control other possible causes of intention to stay, namely age, gender (1=Male, 2=Female) education (1=high school, 2=BSc, 3=MSc or above), and organizational tenure (1=<5 years, 2= 5-10 years, 3=>10 years). These control variables allow us to check if the rewards effect on intention to stay exist after controlling for the effect of these control variables.

Scales reliability and validity. Although the scales adopted in this study are, almost all, largely used in international settings and have been repeatedly trusted by researchers, due to the nature of the population and the use of Chinese translations, it is advisable to check not only scale reliability but also its factorial validity. All scales were subjected to separate exploratory factor analyses and all scales showed good Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) values which is an indicator of appropriateness of factor analysis. Both indicators are shown in Table 2.

Table 2 Reliability and Validity Statistics

Measures	N. of items	Reliability (Cronbach alpha)	Validity (KMO)
Total rewards	9	0.969	0.925
Monetary rewards	12	0.982	0.938
Non-monetary rewards	15	0.972	0.944
Work engagement	9	0.968	0.93
Intention to stay	4	0.834	0.749
Job satisfaction	5	0.968	0.906
Affective Org. Commitment	8	0.916	0.86

3.4 Data analysis strategy

Data analysis begins with the simple testing of factorial validity and reliability. For the first, due to the extensive use of adopted measures, we have opted to analyze the Keiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value that indicates if the shared variance among items allows for the extraction of a latent factor. Additionally, we calculate Cronbach alpha, that indicates internal consistency in answering each scale items. A scale is considered reliable when Cronbach alpha achieves .70 or higher value.

To test hypotheses OLS multiple regressions as well as PROCESS Macro in SPSS are the

preferred options. The latter is particularly suitable for mediation testing according to Preacher and Hayes (2004). We opted for this procedure because the traditional use of regression analyses as stated by Baron and Kenny (1986) is now discredited due to low statistical power (MacKinnon et al., 2002). The PROCESS Macro has also the advantage of performing bootstrapping, which is a technique that extracts random subsamples from the original sample and thus, can mitigate measurement errors. The advised number of repetitions is 5000 and the confidence interval to judge each test is 95%. Therefore, whenever the lower and upper confidence interval bounds do not include the value “zero”, we can consider, with a confidence of 95%, that the coefficient is statistically significant, i.e. it is not due to chance.

4. Results

This section will start by showing the descriptive statistics as well as the bivariate correlations among all variables in the model (Table 3).

The mean values of the variables indicate participant averages fall close to the midpoint of the scale for some variables (e.g. monetary rewards, with $m=2.99$, $s.d.=1.25$, in a 1-5 scale) and above this midpoint, closer to 4 (non-monetary rewards). Although this may seem to be the first impression, at a closer look, and using a one-sample t-test taking as reference the midpoint value of 3, findings suggest participants averagely reported satisfaction with monetary rewards below that point ($t(256)=-.129$, $p<.01$) being the least positively valued variable in the survey. In the case of affective organizational commitment the midpoint of the scale is 4, and using this value, the one-sample t test indicated means fall below this point. All the other variables tested for these values (3 and 4) fall in the upper side of the scale.

Overall, the sociodemographic variables (gender, age, education) show the expectable correlations, with age and organizational tenure showing the highest correlation ($r=.639$, $p<.01$). This can suggest the work relation with the same employer tends to be stable across time in most of the individuals in the sample. Concerning the core variables in the conceptual model, the table shows the correlation analysis results of the independent variable of total rewards, monetary rewards, non-monetary rewards, work engagement, job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment against dependent variable of intention to stay. We are aiming to test if there is any correlation through bivariate normality using Pearson Correlations theory and 2-tailed tests. Total reward is strongly correlated with both monetary ($r=.838$, $p<.01$) and non-monetary rewards ($r=.741$, $p<.01$) which suggest that the chosen measures for these aspects converge with the overall total rewards measure. Likewise, it is noteworthy to mention that all the psychological or behavioral models in the study are also strongly correlated with total rewards, indicating their possible relevance in explaining it. This is also visible in the positively correlations found between intention to stay and all variables in the model. Overall, the set of behavioral variables are not only strongly correlated among themselves as with both rewards variables (total rewards, monetary and non-monetary rewards) and intention to stay. Still, the strongest correlation found is between total rewards and intention to stay which suggests it is

playing a relatively more important role in the model.

Table 3 – Descriptive and bivariate statistics

	Min- max	mean	s.d.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Gender	1-2	51%	-	1										
		fem.												
2. Age	1-3	1.97	.70	-.093	1									
3. Org. Tenure	1-3	2.01	.85	-.050	.639**	1								
4. Education	1-3	1.80	.49	-.063	-.198**	-.105	1							
5. Total rewards	1-5	3.35	1.08	-.048	-.076	-.171**	-.064	1						
6. Monetary rewards	1-5	2.99	1.25	-.086	-.115	-.234**	-.081	.838**	1					
7. Non-monetary reward	1-5	3.77	.90	-.042	.035	-.073	-.028	.741**	.621**	1				
8. Work engagement	1-5	3.64	.98	-.065	.058	-.021	-.076	.776**	.635**	.737**	1			
9. Intention to stay	1-5	3.32	1.04	-.101	.007	-.016	-.020	.704**	.584**	.596**	.676**	1		
10. Job satisfaction	1-5	3.64	1.02	-.002	.061	-.039	-.088	.740**	.642**	.662**	.842**	.673**	1	
11. Affective Org. commitment	1-7	4.49	1.47	-.071	.000	-.044	-.035	.648**	.545**	.548**	.659**	.697**	.711**	1

4.1 Hypotheses testing

All hypotheses were simultaneously tested via SPSS PROCESS (Hayes, 2015) which has the advantage of reducing error. For parsimony sake, findings are shown in Table 4 as follows. Due to having opted to use both a full range total rewards scale as well as specialized scales for monetary and non-monetary rewards, findings will discriminate between these three sources.

Table 4 – Hypotheses testing

IV	Med	DV	B	BootSe	Beta	P	CI90	CI90	Hypothesis	
						value	LB	UB		
TotRewards	->	ITStay	.3185	.0673	.3305	.0000	.2074	.4296	H1t OK	
Monetary	->	ITStay	.1477	.0494	.1780	.0031	.0662	.2293	H1a OK	
NonMonetary	->	ITStay	.3265	.0449	.2990	.0000	.2523	.4006	H1b OK	
TotRewards	->	WEng	.3215	.0438	.3519	.0000	.2492	.3937	H2t OK	
Monetary	->	WEng	.1424	.0359	.1810	.0001	.0830	.2017	H2a OK	
NonMonetary	->	Weng	.1795	.0710	.1558	.0121	.0623	.2966	H2b OK	
		WEng ->	ITStay	.1383	.0892	.3305	.1223	-.0090	.2856	H3t NO
		WEng ->	ITStay	.2553	.0855	.2420	.0031	.1142	.3965	H3a OK
		WEng ->	ITStay	.2201	.0919	.2087	.0173	.0685	.3718	H3b OK
TotRewards	->	WEng ->	ITStay	.0445	.0429		-.0184	.1218	H4t NO	
Monetary	->	WEng ->	ITStay	.0364	.0266		.0040	.0877	H4a OK	
NonMonetary	->	WEng ->	ITStay	.0719	.0466		.0029	.1536	H4b OK	

Legend: IV=Independent variable; Med=Mediator; DV=Dependent variable

Total rewards have a significant and positive effect on intention to stay ($B=.3185$, $SE=.0673$, $\beta = .3305$, $p<.001$, $CI90 [.2074; .4296]$). Therefore, a linear relationship between total rewards and intention to stay is valid. Thus, *H1t* is supported. Monetary rewards was found to have a

significant and positive effect on employees intention to stay ($B=.1477$, $SE=.0494$, $\beta=.1780$, $p<.01$, $CI90 [.0662; .2293]$). Therefore, a linear relationship between monetary rewards and intention to stay is valid. Thus, *H1a* is supported. Non-monetary rewards was found to have a significant and positive effect on employees intention to stay ($B=0.3265$, $SE=0.0449$, $\beta=.2990$, $p<0.001$, $CI90 [.2523; .4006]$). Therefore, a linear relationship between non-monetary rewards and intention to stay is valid. Thus, *H1b* is supported. Overall, all of H1 hypothesis is supported.

Total rewards was found to have a significant and positive effect on work engagement ($B=.3215$, $SE=.0438$, $\beta=.3519$, $p<.001$; $CI90 [.2492; .3937]$). Therefore, a linear relationship between total rewards and work engagement is valid. Thus, *H2t* is supported. Moreover, monetary rewards was found to have a significant and positive effect on work engagement ($B=.1424$, $SE=.0359$, $\beta=.1810$, $p<.01$, $CI90 [.0830;.2017]$). Therefore, a linear relationship between monetary and work engagement is valid. Thus, *H2a* is supported. Lastly, non-monetary rewards were also found to have a significant and positive effect on work engagement ($B=.1795$, $SE=.0710$, $\beta=.1558$, $p<.05$; $CI90 [.0623; .2966]$). Therefore, a linear relationship between non-monetary rewards and work engagement is valid. Thus, *H2b* is supported. Overall, all of H2 is supported.

Work engagement was found not to have a significant and positive effect on employee intention to stay when the independent variable used was total rewards scale ($B=.1383$, $SE=.0892$, $\beta=.3305$, $p=.12$; $CI90 [-.009; .2856]$). Therefore, a linear relationship between total rewards and intention to stay is not valid when using this scale. Thus, *H3t* is not supported. As regards the use of either monetary (*H3a*) or non-monetary (*H3b*) scales, both coefficients were positive and significant both when considering the p-value (always below .05) and the 90 confidence intervals. Thus, both *H3a* and *H3b* are supported.

As regards the mediation hypothesis, when using total rewards scale as a predictor, the indirect effect is not observed ($CI90 [-.0184; .1218]$), thus rejecting *H4t*. However, a significant indirect effect of monetary rewards on intention to stay via work engagement is observed ($B=.0364$, $SE=.0266$, $CI90 [.0040; .0877]$) thus supporting *H4a*. Likewise, the same was observed for the indirect effect of non-monetary rewards on intention to stay via work engagement ($B=.0719$, $SE=.0466$, $CI90 [.0029; .1536]$) thus supporting *H4b*. Thus, both *H4a*

and H4b are supported.

It is important to underline that these findings were obtained after controlling for twelve variables, which is not so commonly observed in literature. We reasoned that the specific context of China would advise a conservative approach by including not only the traditional sociodemographic control variables, such as gender, age, education, civil status or having or not children, but also very organizational variables such as organizational tenure, and management position, but especially, specific variables such as respondents time to travel from home to work (which was thought to be an indicator of effort to work, and thus, an important detractor for those that left their home city to find a job) and if they used to travel to spend the the spring festivals in their home city. More importantly, job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment were always controlled in all analyses. In many cases, some sociodemographic and organizational variables showed significant coefficients, but, as expected, either or both job satisfaction and/or affective organizational commitment showed positive and significant association coefficients. So all findings, pertaining to work engagement are unique and cannot be attributed neither to job satisfaction nor to affective organizational commitment.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

The purpose of the study was to investigate the influence of total rewards components (monetary, non-monetary) on employees' turnover through the mediating role of work engagement in Chinese enterprises disentangling possible irrelevance of work engagement when job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment are taken into the equation. Results of *H1* suggested that total rewards perceptions influence employees' intention to stay with an organization. Therefore, the findings indicated that total rewards is an effective strategy for enterprises to retain workers. Employees who are perceive higher level of total rewards are more likely to stay with their current workplace. The framework is consistent with Rumpel and Medcof (2006) as they demonstrated that total rewards offer an opportunity for employees to realize the potential of the organization. So, one of the key strategies in preventing employee turnover in China is to effectively managed rewards in a comprehensive way, not just monetary. It was not empirically tested in this study but, judging on previous findings, total rewards will probably not only retain those employed as it will attract talents in the job market and motivate them to higher performance levels. It is rather unsurprising that *H1a* was supported suggesting a positive effect of monetary rewards (pay level, benefit reward, bonuses and incentives) and intention to stay. This finding is consistent with the study of Long and Perumal (2014), which stated that compensation and benefits have a positive impact to reduce staff turnover intentions, they suggested that organizations put emphasis on managing compensation and benefits through organizational pay. The finding concerning *H1b* is less unsurprising in the sense that not always managers think of the component items as being an expression of rewards. Still, in this sample, they operated as such, suggesting a positive significant effect of non-monetary rewards (recognition from supervisor, recognition from team and recognition from organization) on turnover intentions. This finding is consistent with Maertz Jr et al. (2007) who argued in favor and showed a positive relationship between non-monetary rewards (perceive organizational support and perceive supervisor support) and employees turnover intentions. This finding suggests that the importance of perceived organizational support and perceived supervisor support as turnover determinant, employees seek out support from organization and supervisor, hence providing organizational support is one of useful actions when HR managers

avoid quit intentions.

It is noteworthy that the standardized coefficient of the direct effect between monetary rewards and intention to stay is lower (.1780) than that for non-monetary rewards (.2990). This is understandable in a sample with this profile where there is a strong representation of educated individuals (72%) and at a middle career stage, judging by age group incidence. This is also consistent with a rising living wage in every strongly developing economy such as China where economic growth pulls more and more people out of poverty into better living conditions. Monetary rewards as an extrinsic motivation can only operate until the need is not so pressing and so, non-monetary rewards will take precedence in judging the suitability of working conditions for most educated workforce. Still, although not previewed in the conceptual model, for discussion purposes, it may be interesting to rerun the analyses with monetary rewards as the independent variable but controlling also for non-monetary rewards and vice versa. In fact, as a complement to our analyses, we ran this and both effects were kept statistically significant, meaning none of these rewards dimensions absorb the variance of the other. Thus, both are relevant although non-monetary rewards still prevail in retaining employees.

As regards predicting work engagement, findings are not so straightforward as H4t was not supported. This can most likely be due to the nature of the scale itself that, being parsimonious, is also falling short in comprehensively depicting the complex nature of total rewards. Thus, H2a and H2b helped clarify this by extending the measure and showing, as theoretically predicted, that both monetary and non-monetary rewards can foster employee work engagement. These findings are consistent with the study of Gulyani and Sharma (2018), which stated the positive relationship between total rewards and work engagement. This suggests employee engagement are more likely to involve in their work if they receive a greater amount of rewards. Furthermore, H3 hypothesized that employees' work engagement has a significant impact on employees' intention to stay. These findings are consistent with study of De Lange et al. (2008), which stated that the engaged worker get promoted to jobs having even more resources, stayers with high work dedication, high job autonomy have positive effect on work engagement.

Lastly, in testing whether work engagement could be a unique variable adding to the most commonly observed employee turnover models that bring together job satisfaction and

organizational commitment, *H4* was very informative. It showed that work engagement does mediate the relationship between total rewards and intentions to stay. These findings are consistent with the study of Juhdi et al. (2013) that showed that engagement offers a partial mediating effect on the relationship between HR practices and turnover intentions. In this case, we also found a partial mediation and both the direct and indirect effects are significant.

As usual, findings must be interpreted at the light of the methodological options made as well as theory used. Such options can often be taken as limitations. Such was the case for the sampling procedure that generated a heterogeneous sample from different industries in China, and so the results cannot be representative because each industry will be only scarcely represented by a few number of employees. Likewise, being a non-random sampling procedure, precludes any claims of safe external generalization. Another limitation arises from data having been collected simultaneously and from the same source, which may raise doubts about the direction of causality due to common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Also the conceptual model itself may be taken as limited because some of the control variables, namely those of a sociodemographic nature can be seen as moderators and not just control variables. Still, the purpose of the research was not to explore boundary conditions but just the possibility that work engagement could operate as a mediator, after removing the variance of competitive explanations such as job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment. As a consequence, future studies are suggested to select a wider sample with either a single industry or many participants from all industries, and additionally, to consider redesigning the model by incorporating job satisfaction and organizational commitment as core explanative variables together with some possible moderators, namely of sociodemographic or organizational nature.

To conclude, we trust this study has some implications. Extant literature mostly focuses on job satisfaction and organizational commitment, namely affective organizational commitment, as key variables in preventing employee turnover, also linked to compensation and benefits (Rumbel & Medcof, 2006; Terera & Ngirande, 2014; Gieter & Hofmans, 2015; Samson, 2010). Some other studies have also found rewards and compensation and recognition to positively impact work engagement (Gulyani & Sharma, 2018; Karatepe, 2013; Victor & Hoole, 2017; Mokaya & Kipyegon, 2014). Bridging these lines of research, this study tested the mediation

role of work engagement in the relation of total rewards and intention to stay, while controlling for job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment. This is a modest, but interesting contribution to theory, especially in Chinese settings.

This study also has practical implications for HR managers. Although sometimes the claims pertain to more generous pay and benefits, in fact, non-monetary rewards are contributing in a stronger way to retain employees than monetary rewards. So, to retain employees, organizations need to fulfill the full range of needs and expectations of employees and recognize their capabilities and contributions. Therefore, organizations need to provide competitive salaries, bonus and incentives to employees, but most importantly, they need to encourage and support employees at work. Enterprises are suggested to set up a complete system of total rewards in their companies, these findings of imply that total rewards can influence strategies to improve productivity and motivate employees to perform better. Using total rewards strategies help in enhancing work engagement thus reducing turnover in Chinese ventures.

6. Reference

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Annexes A – Process output

Using SPSS PROCESS Marco to test the relationship between Total rewards, work engagement and intention to stay.

Run MATRIX procedure:

***** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 3.5 *****

Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D. www.afhayes.com

Documentation available in Hayes (2018). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

Model : 4

Y : Intention to stay (Q30)

X : Total Rewards (Q26)

M : Work engagement (Q29)

Covariates:

Q1(Gender) Q3(Education level) Q6(Residence province) Q7(Marriage status)

Q8(Parenthood) Q9(Managerial position) Q10(Festival Mobility) Q23(Age) Q24(Tenure)

Q25(Travel time) Q32(Affective organizational commitment) Q33(Interpersonal trust at work)

Sample

Size: 257

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

Work engagement (Q29)

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.8427	.7102	.2969	45.8081	13.0000	243.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	.4310	.5511	.7820	.4349	-.6545	1.5165
Q26(TRew)	.4020	.0525	7.6567	.0000	.2986	.5054(H2 OK)
Q1	-.0814	.0727	-1.1202	.2637	-.2245	.0617
Q3	-.0135	.0719	-.1881	.8509	-.1552	.1281
Q6	-.0263	.0125	-2.0977	.0370	-.0510	-.0016

Q7	.1111	.1727	.6431	.5208	-.2291	.4512
Q8	.0303	.1597	.1897	.8497	-.2842	.3448
Q9	.0885	.0812	1.0888	.2773	-.0716	.2485
Q10	.1804	.1342	1.3439	.1802	-.0840	.4448
Q23	.0887	.0704	1.2612	.2084	-.0499	.2274
Q24	.0542	.0539	1.0052	.3158	-.0520	.1603
Q25	-.2477	.0942	-2.6299	.0091	-.4331	-.0622
Q32	.0816	.0347	2.3513	.0195	.0132	.1499
Q33	.2389	.0432	5.5242	.0000	.1537	.3241

Standardized coefficients

	coeff
Q26	.4400
Q1	-.0413
Q3	-.0068
Q6	-.0787
Q7	.0425
Q8	.0125
Q9	.0420
Q10	.0491
Q23	.0638
Q24	.0469
Q25	-.0932
Q32	.1223
Q33	.3522

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

Intention to stay (Q30)

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.7872	.6197	.4354	28.1679	14.0000	242.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	1.2541	.6682	1.8767	.0618	-.0622	2.5704

Q26(TRew)	.3081	.0708	4.3494	.0000	.1686	.4476(H1 OK)
Q29(WEng)	.1664	.0777	2.1413	.0333	.0133	.3194(H3 OK)
Q1	-.0933	.0882	-1.0576	.2913	-.2671	.0805
Q3	.0612	.0871	.7027	.4829	-.1104	.2328
Q6	.0080	.0153	.5231	.6014	-.0222	.0382
Q7	-.2955	.2093	-1.4117	.1593	-.7078	.1168
Q8	-.2705	.1934	-1.3990	.1631	-.6514	.1104
Q9	-.0490	.0986	-.4970	.6196	-.2433	.1453
Q10	-.0567	.1632	-.3477	.7284	-.3782	.2647
Q23	-.0373	.0855	-.4365	.6629	-.2057	.1311
Q24	.1045	.0654	1.5986	.1112	-.0243	.2334
Q25	-.0186	.1157	-.1609	.8723	-.2464	.2092
Q32	.2393	.0425	5.6315	.0000	.1556	.3230
Q33	.0456	.0556	.8209	.4125	-.0638	.1551

Standardized coefficients

	coeff
Q26	.3196
Q29	.1577
Q1	-.0449
Q3	.0292
Q6	.0227
Q7	-.1072
Q8	-.1061
Q9	-.0221
Q10	-.0146
Q23	-.0254
Q24	.0859
Q25	-.0066
Q32	.3400
Q33	.0637

***** DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y *****

Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c'_ps	c'_cs
.3081	.0708	4.3494	.0000	.1686	.4476	.2961	.3196

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
Q29	.0669	.0449	-.0215	.1568 (H4 Reject)

Partially standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
Q29	.0643	.0431	-.0211	.1497

Completely standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
Q29	.0694	.0466	-.0224	.1621

***** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS *****

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:

95.0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:

5000

----- END MATRIX -----

Annexes B – Process output

Using SPSS PROCESS Marco to test the relationship between Monetary Rewards, work engagement and intention to stay.

Run MATRIX procedure:

***** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 3.5 *****

Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D. www.afhayes.com

Documentation available in Hayes (2018). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

Model : 4

Y : Intention to stay (Q30)

X : Monetary Rewards (Q27)

M : Work Engagement (Q29)

Covariates:

Q1(Gender) Q3(Education level) Q6(Residence province) Q7(Marriage status)

Q8(Parenthood) Q9(Managerial position) Q10(Festival Mobility) Q23(Age) Q24(Tenure)

Q25(Travel time) Q32(Affective organizational commitment) Q33(Interpersonal trust at work)

Sample

Size: 257

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

Work Engagement (Q29)

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.8198	.6721	.3359	38.3212	13.0000	243.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	.8523	.5809	1.4672	.1436	-.2919	1.9965
Q27 (MRew)	.1984	.0408	4.8595	.0000	.1180	.2788 (H2a OK)
Q1	-.0783	.0775	-1.0098	.3136	-.2309	.0744

Q3	-.0087	.0769	-.1137	.9095	-.1601	.1426
Q6	-.0330	.0134	-2.4588	.0146	-.0594	-.0066
Q7	.0063	.1831	.0343	.9727	-.3545	.3670
Q8	-.0844	.1691	-.4993	.6180	-.4174	.2486
Q9	.0943	.0865	1.0895	.2770	-.0762	.2648
Q10	.2174	.1428	1.5228	.1291	-.0638	.4986
Q23	.0865	.0748	1.1554	.2491	-.0610	.2339
Q24	.0587	.0578	1.0149	.3111	-.0552	.1726
Q25	-.2647	.1006	-2.6305	.0091	-.4628	-.0665
Q32	.1103	.0365	3.0222	.0028	.0384	.1822
Q33	.3405	.0418	8.1379	.0000	.2581	.4229

Standardized coefficients

coeff

Q27	.2522
Q1	-.0398
Q3	-.0044
Q6	-.0985
Q7	.0024
Q8	-.0349
Q9	.0448
Q10	.0592
Q23	.0622
Q24	.0509
Q25	-.0996
Q32	.1654
Q33	.5019

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

Intention to stay (Q30)

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.7762	.6025	.4551	26.2039	14.0000	242.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	1.4984	.6792	2.2062	.0283	.1605	2.8362
Q27(MRew)	.1376	.0498	2.7646	.0061	.0396	.2357 (H1a OK)
Q29(WEng)	.2539	.0747	3.4000	.0008	.1068	.4010 (H3 OK)
Q1	-.0835	.0904	-.9239	.3565	-.2616	.0946
Q3	.0663	.0895	.7412	.4593	-.1099	.2425
Q6	.0057	.0158	.3623	.7174	-.0254	.0368
Q7	-.3764	.2132	-1.7656	.0787	-.7964	.0435
Q8	-.3510	.1969	-1.7829	.0759	-.7389	.0368
Q9	-.0524	.1010	-.5190	.6042	-.2513	.1465
Q10	-.0473	.1670	-.2830	.7774	-.3762	.2816
Q23	-.0466	.0874	-.5332	.5944	-.2187	.1255
Q24	.1036	.0675	1.5352	.1260	-.0293	.2365
Q25	-.0092	.1188	-.0778	.9381	-.2432	.2247
Q32	.2513	.0433	5.8065	.0000	.1660	.3365
Q33	.0923	.0549	1.6809	.0941	-.0159	.2006

Standardized coefficients

coeff

Q27	.1658
Q29	.2406
Q1	-.0402
Q3	.0316
Q6	.0162
Q7	-.1366
Q8	-.1377
Q9	-.0236
Q10	-.0122
Q23	-.0317
Q24	.0851
Q25	-.0033
Q32	.3571
Q33	.1290

***** DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y *****

Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c'_ps	c'_cs
.1376	.0498	2.7646	.0061	.0396	.2357	.1323	.1658

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
Q29(WEng)	.0504	.0249	.0079	.1036 (H4 OK)

Partially standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
Q29	.0484	.0238	.0077	.0993

Completely standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
Q29	.0607	.0297	.0096	.1242

***** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS *****

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:

95.0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:

5000

----- END MATRIX -----

Annexes C – Process output

Using SPSS PROCESS Marco to test the relationship between Non-monetary rewards, work engagement and intention to stay.

Run MATRIX procedure:

***** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 3.5 *****

Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D. www.afhayes.com

Documentation available in Hayes (2018). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

Model : 4

Y : Intention to stay (Q30)

X : Non-monetary Rewards (Q28)

M : Work engagement (Q29)

Covariates:

Q1(Gender) Q3(Education level) Q6(Residence province) Q7(Marriage status)

Q8(Parenthood) Q9(Managerial position) Q10(Festival Mobility) Q23(Age) Q24(Tenure)

Q25(Travel time) Q32(Affective organizational commitment) Q33(Interpersonal trust at work)

Sample

Size: 257

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

Work Engagement (Q29)

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.8401	.7057	.3015	44.8266	13.0000	243.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	.5601	.5531	1.0127	.3122	-.5294	1.6497
Q28(NonMR)	.3905	.0531	7.3509	.0000	.2859	.4952 (H2b OK)
Q1	-.0875	.0732	-1.1960	.2329	-.2317	.0566

Q3	-.0619	.0723	-.8559	.3929	-.2042	.0805
Q6	-.0222	.0127	-1.7532	.0808	-.0471	.0027
Q7	.0066	.1735	.0381	.9697	-.3352	.3484
Q8	-.0744	.1602	-.4648	.6425	-.3900	.2411
Q9	.0451	.0819	.5507	.5824	-.1162	.2064
Q10	.1249	.1357	.9205	.3582	-.1424	.3922
Q23	.0380	.0712	.5340	.5938	-.1022	.1782
Q24	.0371	.0541	.6852	.4939	-.0695	.1437
Q25	-.1762	.0949	-1.8568	.0645	-.3632	.0107
Q32	.1077	.0345	3.1257	.0020	.0398	.1755
Q33	.2825	.0409	6.9134	.0000	.2020	.3630

Standardized coefficients

	coeff
Q28	.3577
Q1	-.0445
Q3	-.0311
Q6	-.0663
Q7	.0025
Q8	-.0308
Q9	.0214
Q10	.0340
Q23	.0273
Q24	.0321
Q25	-.0663
Q32	.1614
Q33	.4164

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

Intention to stay

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.7731	.5976	.4607	25.6722	14.0000	242.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	1.4756	.6852	2.1535	.0323	.1258	2.8254
Q28(NMR)	.1556	.0726	2.1426	.0331	.0125	.2986 (H1b OK)
Q29(WEng)	.2429	.0793	3.0623	.0024	.0866	.3991(H3 OK)
Q1	-.0991	.0907	-1.0918	.2760	-.2778	.0797
Q3	.0311	.0895	.3473	.7286	-.1452	.2073
Q6	.0115	.0157	.7330	.4642	-.0195	.0426
Q7	-.3751	.2145	-1.7485	.0816	-.7976	.0475
Q8	-.3482	.1981	-1.7578	.0800	-.7384	.0420
Q9	-.0792	.1013	-.7821	.4349	-.2787	.1203
Q10	-.0851	.1680	-.5065	.6130	-.4161	.2459
Q23	-.0660	.0880	-.7499	.4540	-.2394	.1074
Q24	.0810	.0670	1.2095	.2277	-.0509	.2129
Q25	.0390	.1182	.3297	.7419	-.1938	.2717
Q32	.2589	.0434	5.9591	.0000	.1733	.3444
Q33	.1002	.0553	1.8136	.0710	-.0086	.2091

Standardized coefficients

	coeff
Q28	.1351
Q29	.2302
Q1	-.0477
Q3	.0148
Q6	.0327
Q7	-.1361
Q8	-.1366
Q9	-.0357
Q10	-.0220
Q23	-.0450
Q24	.0665
Q25	.0139
Q32	.3678
Q33	.1400

***** DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y *****

Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c'_ps	c'_cs
.1556	.0726	2.1426	.0331	.0125	.2986	.1495	.1351

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
Q29(NonMR)	.0948	.0451	.0131	.1889 (H4 OK)

Partially standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
Q29	.0912	.0429	.0125	.1790

Completely standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
Q29	.0823	.0395	.0113	.1653

***** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS *****

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:

95.0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:

5000

----- END MATRIX -----