Career Success Orientations: An Empirical Study of the Indonesian Women Business Executives

Nizam Jim Wiryawan
Suparman Ibrahim Abdullah
Zahrida Zainal Wiryawan

Abstract. *The purpose of this research is to investigate the career orientations of educated and urban Indonesian women business executives following Derr's (1988) success map. While research on women business executives and their career orientation is extensive in developed countries, such research is scarce, if not none at all, in Indonesia. The country's society still holds deeply rooted beliefs regarding the role of women at home and in the workplace. Such special pressure could make difficult for an Indonesian women to choose a career instead of a family, or to successfully combine these two important pillars of her modern life. This study investigated five research questions on the career success orientations of the Indonesian women business executives with 10 non-directional null hypotheses on a sample representation of 93 of these women. The findings are that the majority of the respondents are oriented to 'Getting balance'. This is a career success orientation concerned with maintaining the balance between home, work and personal development. Careers as lived by their respondents in this study, therefore, may be removed from the ideals portrayed in management career literature; in other words these respondents show 'no career' concerns for advancement in the corporate board-room.*

Keywords: Indonesian women; business executives; career; success, orientation.

1. Introduction

This study was to investigate the career orientations of educated and urban Indonesian women business executives. Specifically, the purpose of the research was to examine the career success orientations of

these women and the effect of selected independent variables of these career orientations.

Research on women business executives is extensive in developed countries, and these studies comprise a body of knowledge from which theories emerge and prescriptions for success are derived. Sociological theorists argue, however, that social structures, workplace, family and organized social life affect women's access to leadership opportunities abroad (Aldrich 1989) as well as domestically in Indonesia (Subono 2003).

Publication on studies of Indonesian women so far have focused on women's emancipation/feminism (Solaiman 1999; Burhanudin ed. 2002; Iedarwati 2004), education (Muthali'in 2001; Rajab 2002; Arivia 2002), women's rights (Junaidi 2004; Mulia 2004; Adriana 2003), domestic violence against women among others: *Undang- Undang/*Law No 23/2004, September 22 2004 (Subono 2001; Hasyim ed. 2000; Susilo 2001), politics (Pramodhawardani 2002; Kurniawan 2003; Subono, 2003), science and technology (Margono 2002; Harjanto 1999; Achmad and Hermawati 1999), demography (Budiman 1982; Suryadinata, Arifin and Ananta 2003; Kurniawan 2000), philosophy (Arivia 2003; Sadarjoen 2003), cultural and other gender-related issues (Fadjar 2003; Murniati 2004; Dzuhayatin 2001), but never specifically focusing on these women's career orientation (Endriani 2004; Sari 1997; Hafidz 1993; Wieringa 1998, 1999; Muchtar 2000). These studies were, therefore, not investigated further in the present research other than as background.

Indonesian society holds deeply rooted beliefs regarding the role of individuals at home and in work, stemming from culture, education, religion, laws, or the combination of them (Murniati 2004; Team IP4-LAPPERA 2001). Such social pressures made it difficult for an Indonesian woman to choose career instead of a family, or to successfully combine a career with marriage and children.

While social pressures and expectations made it is difficult for women to work outside the home in Indonesia, however, there is some evidence of favorable attitudes toward working women (inclusive wives and mothers) when economic, sociological and psychological advantages were considered (Soetjipto 2003; Tjiptoherijanto 1997). They approved because, first, financially, it meant an augmented family income; second, psychologically, it allowed women the opportunity to widen their circles of acquaintances. Among the slight margin who favored women working it was assumed,

however, that they would both work and not neglect their domestic responsibilities.

Politically and legally, therefore, there has been more than enough foundation as well as opportunities for the advancement of the Indonesian women, in adopting the Nairobi-based numerical target set out in Beijing in 1995 by the UN conference on women.

In its Human Development Report in 2004, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) devised three composite measures of gender equality: a Human Development Index (which takes into account longevity and the standard of living), a Gender Development Index (which takes gender equality into account), and a Gender Empowerment Measure (which considers women's active participation in society based on their representation in national political office, management positions in the public sector, representation in professional and technical positions, and the ratio of women's earnings to men's earnings).

Domestically, the Indonesia's *Undang-Undang Dasar 1945* (Constitution of Indonesia), specifically stipulates through articles 27 (1) and 27 (2) that men and women have equal rights and obligations within the family, society and country's welfares. In 1984, the Indonesian government ratified the United Nation's "Convention on the Elimination of All Types of Discrimination Against Women/CEDAW" (Women's Convention, December 18, 1979) into the *Undang-Undang* (Law) No 7/1984, July 24 1984.

This UU No 7/1984 is not a stand-alone case as earlier, in 1975, the United Nations had designated the year as "International Women's Year" and held the first world conference on women in Mexico City by adopting guidelines for specific steps to be taken by member countries. The UN also designated 1975-1985 as the "UN decade for Women" prompting the delivery of the UU No 7/1984.

At the second UN World Conference in Nairobi in 1985, the UN adopted the "Forward-looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women" as guidelines to be adopted by 2000 by member countries. At the third UN Women's Conference in 1990, the UN made the first review and appraisal of nations' efforts toward gender equality. It outlined basic policies and concrete measures to be taken from 1991 to 1995.

At the "Fourth World Conference" in Beijing in 1995, the UN adopted the "Agenda for the Empowerment of Women" by spelling out areas

that should receive priority toward the year 2000. That is, the Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women were reappraised and the UN set a numerical target: 20 percent female representation in national decision-making bodies as short-term goal, to be achieved by the year 2000, and 30 percent as long-term goal to be achieved by 2005 (for details, see Usui, Rose and Kageyama 2003).

In the recent *Pemilihan Umum* (General Election), *Undang-Undang* (Law) No 12/2003 placed a quota of 30 percent for woman's candidatures (article 65 (1) of Law No 12/2003, dated February 18 2003) as affirmative action to secure Parliament's seats for Indonesian women (Soetjipto 2003; Zulhesni and Dahlena 2003).

Moreover, demographically the Indonesian population has grown almost evenly between men and women during the last two decades as shown in Figure 1, with women marginally ahead of men in absolute numbers.

Figure I
"POPULATION OF INDONESIA 1980 – 2000"

	1980	1990	2000
□ Women	74	89.5	101.8
▨ Men	73	89	101.6
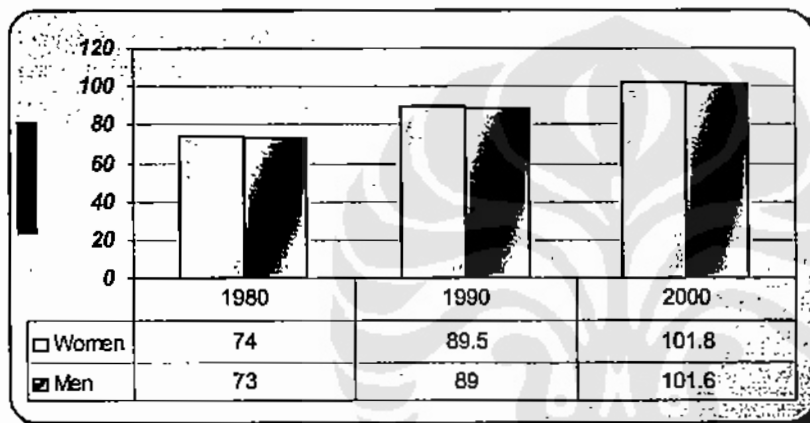
Source: Central Board of Statistics, 2000 (Catalogue: 4713: 4).

In the workplace, however, although the glass ceiling has been cracked, it is still far from being shattered since many of the Indonesian women workers stuck in the 'traditional' jobs of the secretarial pool or as assistants having to navigate through the 'boys' club' (Diana and Emond 2003). Subsequently, Indonesian women accounted for only one percent for managerial position in Indonesia (New York Times 1988), while women's representation in the present (2004-2009) Indonesia's cabinet is only 8.4 percent, or four women ministers out of 34 (Endriani 2004; Hendytio 2004).

In the legislative branch (DPR-RI), the percentage is slightly higher with 11.9 percent women parliamentarians for the 2004-2009 period (Dewi 2004).

Women's low representation in managerial positions in Indonesia is attributed to barriers to women's access to channels of leadership positions (*i.e*, weak institutional foundations for women's advancement), men's resistance, and women's resignation from seeking such positions because of their commitment to family responsibilities. Women's employment pattern is described from their first entry into the work force after graduation from high school, college or university, to their first retirement for marriage (or childbearing), to their re-entry after their children have entered schools or passed critical educational levels, and, finally, to their second exit to care for aging (or sick) family members or permanent retirement (Kageyama 2004).

This mutually reinforcing pattern, shaped by cultural values and child-care needs, dominated female work patterns. It has also been the canonical description of the common belief and the M-curve of female employment that Indonesian women emphasize family roles over career or works (Christina 2004).

For those who were married (especially those with children), such Indonesian women employ household helpers to assist with domestic chores and child-care, reinforcing the phenomenon that the careers of married, educated and urban Indonesian women are enhanced by the structure of the Indonesian urban society where households chores can be delegated to domestic helpers, which is very seldom seen in the Western world (Media Indonesia 2004).

Generally it can be argued that women in business life could be segmented into three groups (MacDonald and Schoenberger 2004):

1. Some women who tread the shallow waters of mainstream consider their employment as a passing phase – a time filler between school and marriage.

2. Others women are highly driven. They seek achievement in both their careers and a personal life, but are eventually forced to choose between the two. It is usually the careers that give way.

3. A few have singular career orientation and are quite prepared for great personal sacrifices to attain career success.

This research attempted to reach the career orientations of these women since these researchers believe some of their needs could not be found in terms of Maslow's hierarchy: "Some women do not want to get ahead. They were happy just to have a job". In other words, they were **not** career oriented.

2.   Career Orientations

The concept of career orientations is broad and has been examined in many different ways. In one sense, career orientation refers to the importance or significance placed on the work role compared with the importance attached to other life roles (Greenhause 1987). The earliest studies of women's career development focused not on what kinds of vocational choices women made but on whether or not and why women pursued careers at all. Therefore, the earliest research attempted to differentiate between to study the characteristics of homemaking and the career-oriented women where a career-oriented person attached a high level of salience to work and occupation. Such researches explored the differences between homemaking and career-oriented women as family background, achievement motivation, ability and values (Betz and Fitzgerald 1987; Poole and Langan-Fox 1997).

The above contrast between the homemaking and career orientation decreased as large numbers of women began to pursue both career and family roles. Subsequent research focused on the extent to which career choices were traditional or nontraditional during the early years (Alquist 1974; Asfin and Myint 1971; Tangri 1972). Betz and Fitzgerald (1987) commented that most studies of women's career development used either the traditional/ nontraditional or home/career distinction, or a measure of career orientation or career salience as the dependent variable.

Two measures of career orientation are the 'career anchor' (or occupational self-concept) (Schein 1978) and the 'career success orientation' (or internal career success map) (Derr 1988). Schein (1978) concerned with the internal careers of managers, argued that as individuals gather more information about themselves they develop an occupational self-concept with three components: self-perceived talents and abilities; self-perceived motives and needs; and self-perceived attitudes and values.

Derr (1988) described the needs, talents, and values of each group of these new careerists, showed how each orientation can be of great value to the organization, and spelled out how to most effectively manage each type of

employee. He drew from own and others' research to tell what incentives, human resource policies, work cultures and career path best motivate these different group of employees.

The influence of personal life constraints on career anchors was also raised in terms of career success orientations by Derr (1988). Building upon Schein's work (1978) on the internal or subjective career, Derr (1988) argued that different individuals may have differing definitions of career success, which he termed 'career success orientations'. Derr (1988) identified five career success orientations: (1) Getting ahead (upward mobility); (2) Getting secure (company loyalty and sense of belonging); (3) Getting free (autonomy); (4) Getting high (excitement of the work itself); and (5) Getting-balanced (finding an equilibrium between personal and professional life). The characteristics of Derr's five career success orientations, and their career implications (1988), are set out below.

2.1   Getting Ahead (upward mobility)

This upward mobility pattern is a career direction usually associated with promotions (often rapid and based on merits) in a hierarchy of positions or advancement in a status system. The rewards are normally more influence, status and financial renumerations. From their co-workers' perspective, such careerists can be competitive, aggressive and unfriendly. From their families' perspective, such careerists can often put work commitments first, but their families share in the careerist's success and rewards.

2.2   Getting Balanced (finding an equilibrium between personal and professional life)

Some career-centered individuals are preoccupied with balancing the three forces of the career triangle: work, relationships and development. Work is a very important aspect in their map of career success, but it is not allowed to take over relationships and self-development and they, therefore, attempt to separate work from other aspects of their life. From their co-workers' perspective, they do not put high enough priority on work but are often good models for living a healthy, well-rounded life. From their families' perspective, these careerists can be spread too thin and unable to disengage

from work and self-development, but they do attach much importance to relationship life and do try to be available.

2.3 Getting Free (autonomy)

Individuals following this career success map do not try to move upward, but outward. They do not mind marginal position where there is a personal autonomy, loose supervision and the responsibility of outcomes, not being bound by process, norms and rules. These type of careerists are cosmopolitan. From their co-workers' perspective, they can be aloof, hard to supervise or collaborate with, but they can be competent and contributing colleagues. From their families' perspective, these careerists need lots of space, and in return will give spouses, children and partners their own space.

2.4 Getting High (excitement of the work itself)

They are driven by the need for excitement, action, and total engagement in the process and content of the work, and generally do not make good managers. These careerists seek to move, often laterally, to the centers of action, adventure and creativity. Usually they view bureaucratic rules as constraints. *Getting high* careerists are loners who resist situations requiring interdependence even when the consequences are social embarrassment, financial ruin, personal devastation, and even danger of death. From their co-workers' perspective, they can be opinionated, unwilling to compromise and intolerant of organizational constraints and practices; but skills, knowledge and the culture and standards of the profession can be learned from them. From their families' perspective, they can be self-absorbed, single-minded and not well-balanced, but they can be interesting, vital and stimulating, even if ill-balanced, companions.

2.5 Getting Secure (company loyalty and sense of belonging)

Some individuals view career success as long-term security, good benefits, and a sense of identity, order and place. They exchange dedication, loyalty and service for the above benefits. They do not necessarily hope for promotions to upper echelons but to have a respected place. They are adaptable and competent employees, value pay rises as signs of appreciation

and security. These type of careerists often seek out large institutions with a reputation for treating employees benevolently and fairly, companies that offer life-long employment. Their credo usually is: 'I have no choice'. From their co-workers' perspective, these careerists cannot be taken for granted and need a great deal of assurance, but they are loyal, dedicated and hardworking. From their families' perspective, such careerists may project authority problems at work on relationships, be unpleasant if threatened and put employers' demand first, but they also be a steady personality around whom to build a relationship.

Derr (1988) pointed out that each career success orientation has both problems and opportunities, and includes all the three dimensions (work, relationships, self-development). He further pointed that, however, the relationship leg may receive more or less emphasis but is never completely neglected. The orientation held with the highest intensity is the individual's career orientation, and a high intensity score would indicate the individual would strongly endorse the values, attitudes and motivations associated with the identified career orientation. While everyone may have a career, not everyone is career-oriented, as posited by Louis (1982: 69) that *"Career is not what one lives, but how one thinks about what one has lived or will live"*. Moreover, *"A career is more than a job"* (Derr 1988: 5).

2.6   Career Success and Women

The literature on women's perceptions of career *success* (see for example: Kageyama 2004; Kestenbaum 1986; Poole, Langan-Fox and Omodei 1993; Powell and Mainiero 1992; Stratham 1987; Wren 2004) suggests that feeling 'successful' for women is more complex than developing a sense of personal achievement. Successful professional women have been reported as having frustration, emptiness, exhaustion, disillusionment, and a sense of personal failure when they realized the personal and interpersonal costs of professional success. For these women, power, title, success and money were not enough, and they wanted fair treatment, improved compensation, and a more balanced life. If this was not forthcoming, they made career shifts, reassessed their career and life priorities, and, in some cases whenever possible, turned to self-employment (Hardesty and Jacobs 1986; Wren 2004).

Poole, Langan-Fox and Omodei (1993) claimed that their research did not generally support the view that there are gender differences in perceptions of career success. Powell and Mainiero (1992) argued that women may focus

more on measures of satisfaction that represent how they are feeling about their careers rather than what their career look like.

For these reasons, Derr's theory of *Internal Career Success Maps* (1988) was adopted in this study as the Conceptual Framework.

3.   Research Problem

The conceptual framework of this study was therefore the five career success orientations of Derr (1988), and the research problem underlying this study was, therefore, as follows:

What are the career success orientations of the Indonesian women business executives? Are these career success orientations affected by the independent variables?

As very little, or even none has been published on the career orientations of educated, urban Indonesian women business executives, the focus of this present study was on their career orientations. To be specific, this research was to investigate the career success orientations of educated, urban Indonesian women business executives, as well as the effect of selected independent variables on these career orientations.

4.   Justification of the Research

Businesswomen in Southeast Asia have been considered a 'major intellectual and entrepreneurial resource' (Wallace 1994:14) and the 'new regional power elite' (Abdoolcarim 1993: 24). Beginning in 1970, the percentage of employers and self-employed in the labor forces of Southeast Asia has remained stable in all Southeast Asian countries.

What is significant is, however, that the percentage accounted for by women rose in virtually all sectors except agriculture (Naisbitt 1995). Authors like Naisbitt (1995: 188) have referred to the "quite, yet powerful revolution" that has occurred in the position of Asian women in the past few decades with power and influence in their hands, prompting Kraar (1991) to term them as "Iron Butterflies". Their new paradigm being not only charming, kind, loyal and subservient as they used to be, but also ambitious and profit minded (Fathony and Christine 2004).

Abdoolcarim (1993), Adler (1993), Rajab (2002), Naisbitt (1995) and Wong (1980), amongst others, have attributed this increasingly important place of Asian women in business management to factors like their increasing educational levels, foreign-language fluency, and Asia's dynamic entrepreneurialism and their presence in family-owned business. In 1985 the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) funded a major study by the Manila-based Asian Institute of Management (AIM) of corporate women managers in five Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) countries namely Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, and Thailand (Hoffarth 1989), and when the project began "....*the research team found virtually no published material on Southeast Asian women managers in management*" (Hoffarth 1989: 6).

Though there have been much development in that there are now several studies on these women managers in management in some Southeast Asian countries (Abdoolcarim 1993; Fonollera 1994; Hoffarth 1989). This study is, therefore, still important as it contributes to the literature on women business executives in Indonesia in particular, and in Southeast Asia in general.

As Naisbitt (1995) pointed out, Asia's women business executives are an elite, and there are great disparities in achievement and opportunity between urban and rural women (Hart 1978; Makil 1983), besides the intriguing area of *ascribed status* (where women in Asia may have successful careers because they were born in the right family or socioeconomic group) as reported by Wallace (1994: 14) that "....*many of the ASEAN women were drawing on immense family wealth and operating within the existing family business structure*". Much research, especially in North America, has focussed on *achieved status* (*i.e* general education, advanced business degrees, in-house training), far less research has dealt with the importance of *ascribed status* (Adler and Izraeli 1988).

Makil (1983) argued that elite urban residents may have similar problems yet differ in their experience of these problems, while Hart (1978) argued for more studies of residents of upper class and planned higher income communities. This study is important, therefore, as it contributes to filling a gap in knowledge about Indonesian business-women and research on the careers of these women is practically un-known. Searches for empirical research produced no relevant publications. The study is important, therefore, because it provides information that can help in contributing to the understanding of the careers of Indonesian women in the region.

5.   Research Method

The research design used in this study conformed to the type identified by Emory and Cooper (1991) and by Burns and Bush (1995) as a descriptive cross-sectional and exploratory research as the main purpose is to gain background information of a population at only one point in time, *i.e.,* to study the career orientations of Indonesian women business executives. To gather information on career success orientation and the independent variables, the study used the survey method (Burns and Bush 1995).

5.1   The Population and the Sample

The study population was described as Indonesian women business executives. These were defined, for the purposes of this study, as those exercising some latitude in decision making over the allocation and use of resources like physical, financial, and human resources. The sample, therefore, was homogenous and selected using a non-probability sampling procedure (Burns and Bush 1995). The unit of data collection is usually the individuals who are also the units of analysis or the units of investigation.

While there is a general agreement that larger sample sizes are better than smaller ones, there is no agreement on what constitutes an acceptable minimum sample size. Preece (1994) argued for a minimum sample size (or sample population) in each case of no fewer than 30 and preferably of 60. Roscoe (1975: 184), a statistician, claimed that there are few occasions in behavioural research when samples smaller than 30 can be justified, but, *"well-chosen small samples will ordinarily be preferred over poorly chosen large ones"*. Dooley (1995) suggested that a sample size between 10 and 50 could have been used appropriatley, while Smith (1981: 279) noted that *"when inconsistencies are reckoned with and the data form a coherent whole, sampling ceases"* making the major checks on the researchers' data quality in this type of sampling are the repetitiveness and consistency of their informants' observations.

In view of the comments cited above, it was determined, therefore, to aim at a minimum sample size of 60 and once this sample size had been reached, it was decided to cease sampling when manual coding and analysis of respondents indicated both repetitiveness and consistency. Moreover, identifying a relevant population of Indonesian women business executives

that was completely enumerated in a sampling frame was impossible: such data base simply was not there.

In such circumstances, therefore, probability sampling was difficult. De Vaus (1985), Emory and Cooper (1991) and Manheim (1977) had all noted that there were occasions when probability sampling techniques were either impractical (because the entire population was either unavailable and/or unknown in size) or unnecessary. In such circumstances non-probability sampling techniques might be used. A purposive sampling procedure was therefore adopted in this research study. One hundred and twenty five (125) questionnaires were distributed with 100 of them were returned to the researchers, and the valid number of the returned ones was 93 questionnaires which was further used as valid respondents. This survey was conducted in 2004.

5.2   The Location of the Study

The location of the respondents in this study was Jakarta as it is the biggest and perhaps the most complex of Indonesian urban centers. Jakarta is the center of not only of political life in Indonesia, it is also the country's center of economic and commercial activities. Survey was conducted in 2004.

5.3   Limitations

The first limitation that became apparent during the study was that of gaining access to potential respondents. Mitchell (1983) noted that in some Southeast Asian countries, women, in particular, were culturally and socially inaccessible to researchers, especially for interview purposes while groups could also differ in their degree of accessibility.

The second limitation was the limited number of respondents. Of course, large number of respondents were preferred to reduce the size of the confident intervals and increase the estimate accuracy (Cavusgil and Das 1997). A related, problematic, aspect of the respondent number was the significance of the statistical data analysis since total number of respondents was believed to influencing the results although there was considerable controversy about the importance of the significance test (Burns and Bush 1995; Carver 1978; Chow 1989; Folger 1989).

The third limitation also became apparent during the research, was that factors inherent to the general socio-cultural Indonesian society, which was not accustomed to express judgmental opinion, especially in writing, for the sake of courtesy and politeness (Trisna 1999). Courtesy bias was especially common in Asia (Jones 1983).

The location of the study, *i.e*, the city of Jakarta was another limitation as it might not properly address the dynamics of Indonesian women business executives in many more areas of a country as big as Indonesia (1,905,000 square kilometers).

5.4   The Research Instrument

Data about career success orientations as dependent variables were gathered using a survey instrument. The completed research instrument was developed following Derr (1988: 189-192) career success orientations as the first part of the instrument. These were coded as:

V   Getting ahead
W   Getting secure
X   Getting free
Y   Getting balanced
Z   Getting high

This first part of the instrument was a forced choice of 30 paired statements. Respondents selected from each pair the item that fit the most accurate personal description. Each of the five career success orientations was identified by the above code letter, and each code letter could be chosen up to 12 times or not at all. Each career orientation was contrasted against of the other three times, for a total of 60 statements in all. The intensity with which a career orientation was held was measured. The orientation held with the highest intensity was the individual's career orientation indicating that the individual would strongly endorse the values, attitudes and motivations associated with the identified career orientation.

The second part was the *perceived constraints* (Derr 1988: 197-198) containing 13 statements, presented twice. Respondents assigned a value from 1 to 5 (Likert's scale). Interpretation of the perceived constraints was comparatively simple. The scoring range was divided into three: free to choose (13-25), somewhat constrained (26-44) and constrained (45-66). The respondent's personal score was compared with this range to determine the

extent to which they felt immediately constrained or perceived estimated future constraints.

The instrument also asked respondents to provide selected biographical and organizational data. Participants were also asked to indicate their age range, employment status, organization's legal form labor force size. In addition, respondents were asked to indicate the business sector in which the organization's main business was operated, as well as their main reason for working by ticking one of the options.

Major considerations in the preparation of the instrument were *validity, reliability, stability* and *practicality* (Emory and Cooper 1991). Validity tests how well an instrument measures the particular concept it is supposed to measure while the basic questions of reliability pivot on concepts like consistency and stability, and on dependability, accuracy and unsystematic or error variance (Emory and Cooper 1991). The present study used scales with proven stability as well as proven validity and reliability, while practicality is a concern of the operational requirements of a research project.

The instrument was, therefore, pre-tested for comprehensibility, clarity and acceptability (Emory and Cooper 1991) on a small sample (12) of women faculty members of three schools of business. Pretest respondents reported that it took them between 30 and 45 minutes to complete the career-related instruments and they found it easy to answer the questions, which they deemed to be straight-forward. Respondents, however, expressed some concern over the length of the questions though all completed it. It should also be noted that these faculty members were not business executives, and, were, therefore, not members of the target population of this study. Meanwhile, their inputs were duly noted and some modifications were subsequently adjusted in the instrument.

The instrument's test-retest reliability coefficients for career success orientation scale had a mean of 0.636; for perceived constraints for both scales were 0.7420. These present researchers could find no previously-reported reliability data (either Cronbach's alpha or test-retest coefficients) for Derr's career success orientations and perceived constraints items in other research (1988). It was, therefore, concluded that, overall, the test-retest coefficients for the career success orientations as well as the Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the perceived constraints exceeded the minimum acceptable level of 0.6 proposed by Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe (1991) and Nunnally (1978) for exploratory research, especially in the absence of reported comparable

scales. In this study, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated on the data gathered from the respondents who met the specified selection criteria.

The approach to administering the questionnaires was by mail although there could be problem of non-delivery of the mails in Jakarta, prompting a low response rates. Data gathering took place during the mid of 2004. In respecting the rights of respondents, and in accordance with ethical standards in research, respondents were assured that they were free to decline to answer particular questions or to participate in the study, and they were also free to withdraw themselves at any time during the research stages. Conventional practice and ethical codes were also observed in that respondents were not required to identify themselves in answering the questionnaires.

5.5 Data Coding

To analyze the data in order to determine the respondents' career success orientations, perceived career constraints, the scoring approaches used by Derr (1988) were utilized. According to these methods, the mean of the value attributed to the different items making up a specific career orientation, *i.e.*, specific career success orientations, was calculated and taken as the value given to that orientation. The career orientation with the highest value was regarded as the dominant one and, thus, represented a person's career orientation (Derr 1988).

6. The Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following research questions and the non-directional null hypotheses about career orientations were investigated.

RQ 1: What is the career success orientation profile of Indonesian women business executives?

RQ 2: What is the dominant career success orientation of the Indonesian women business executives?

Derr (1988) argued that individuals would hold one career success orientation more intensely than they will hold the others. In the absence of available research evidence in the field in Indonesia, the following non-directional null hypotheses was stated:

Ho 1: There is an even distribution across the five career success orientations.

RQ 3: Are there associations between career success orientations?

Derr (1988) noted that the five career success orientations form a continuum, with *Getting free* and *Getting high* at one end, *Getting balanced* in the middle, and *Getting ahead* and *Getting secure* at the other end. Derr (1988) also noted that it was possible for individuals to move along the continuum. Though *Getting high* and *Getting free* required different pay-offs, they were compatible because they both required some degree of autonomy and some degree of challenging work. On the other hand, *Getting ahead* and *Getting secure* had less in common internally but it was sensible to put it at the opposite end of the continuum from *Getting free* as they were polar opposites, *i.e.,* negatively correlated and mutually exclusive (Derr 1988). There is no available research evidence supporting (or contradicting) this assertion, however, so the following non-directional null hypotheses was stated:

Ho 2: There are no relationships between any of the five career success orientations.

RQ 4: Is there an association between perceived immediate and estimated future career hindrances and the career success orientations of Indonesian women business executives?

Derr (1988) career theory expressly included the idea that career success orientations were influenced by perceived constraints. As there is no empirical evidence concerning this claim, the following non-directional null hypotheses were stated:

Ho 3: There are no significant differences in orientation to each of the five career success orientations between respondents who perceived themselves to free of or subject to immediate personal constraints.

Ho 4: There are no significant differences in orientation to each of the five career success orientation between respondents who perceived themselves to free of or subject to estimated future personal constraints.

RQ 5:   Are the career success orientations independent of respondents' age range, their enterprise's labor force size, their enterprise's business sector, their enterprise's legal form of Organization, and their espoused reason for working?

These issues had never been examined in previous research studies, so the following exploratory non-directional null hypotheses were stated:

Ho 5:   Career success orientation by Indonesian women business executives is independent of the respondents' age range.

Ho 6:   Career success orientation by Indonesian women business executives is independent of the labor force size of the respondent's enterprise.

Ho 7:   Career success orientation by Indonesian women business executives is independent of the business sector in which the respondent's enterprise operates.

Ho 8:   Career success orientation by Indonesian women business executives is independent of the legal form of the respondent's enterprise.

Ho 9:   Career success orientation by Indonesian women business executives is independent of the respondents' employment status.

Ho 10: Career success orientation by Indonesian women business executives is independent of the respondents' espoused reason for working.

7.   Data Analysis and Interpretations

Descriptive statistics and nonparametric statistical tests were the statistical techniques used in the analysis of data gathered for this study. Data were processed by means of the SPSS for Windows Version 12.0 Statistical package. Descriptive statistics were used to describe the characteristics of respondents on the independent and the dependent variables. In addition, nonparametric statistical tests were used in order to test whether there were associations between the dependent and the independent variables. The use of nonparametric tests are appropriate with small samples or skewed population (Siegel and Castellan 1988). The alpha level used in this study was set at 0.05 implying a p in two-tailed tests of 0.05 (Coolican 1990) as each comparison had two possible directions.

8. The Findings

8.1 On the Respondents

Data were gathered from the 93 respondents. This section presents the data on respondents in terms of the independent variables of age range, number of employees, business sector, legal form of organization, employment status, reason for working and work values.

8.1.1 Age Range

Respondents ranged in age from the 25-30 years age group to over 55 age group. The breakdown of respondents by age range is shown in Table 1.

Table 1
DISTRIBUTION OF THE RESPONDENT BY AGE GROUP
JAKARTA, 2004

Age group	Frequency	Percent
25-30	61	65.59
31-35	13	13.98
36-40	3	3.23
41-45	4	4.30
45-50	6	6.45
51-55	2	2.15
Total	89	95.70
Missing	4	4.30
Grand Total	93	100.00

Source: Field survey, 2004.

In order to facilitate the data analysis in terms of age, the respondents were divided into three groups: those 35 years of age and younger, those between 36 and 45 and those older than 46 years of age. When respondents were grouped according to these new age range categories, 74 respondents (or 79.57 percent) were categorized as being of 35 years of age or younger, seven respondents (or 7.53 percent) were categorized as being between 36 and 45 years of age, and 12.respondents (or 12.9 percent) were categorized as being older than 46 years of age.

8.1.2 Labor Force Size

Respondents were asked to indicate the size of the firm/enterprise in terms of number of employees. Table 2 shows the size of employees.

Table 2
DISTRIBUTION OF THE RESPONDENT BY FIRM SIZE
AND NUMBER OF EMPOYEE, JAKARTA, 2004

Firm size	Number of employee	Frequency	Percent
Small	< 20	13	13.98
Medium	20 - 99	19	20.43
High	> 99	61	65.59
Total		93	100.00

Source: Field survey, 2004.

To facilitate analysis of the data according to firm/enterprise size as measured by the size of the labor force employed, it was decided to group the enterprises into three categories. Firm's size is generally portrayed by sales volume, number of employees or assets, or the combination of any of them (Dunning and Kundu 1995).

Rintuh (1995) classified *small enterprises* in Indonesia as having permanent employees of below 80 persons. Gultom (1995) classified a firm in Indonesia as small if the number of personnel is below 100, medium-sized firm if the number of personnel is between 100-500, and large if the number is more than 500. Mulyani (1996) stated that the international standard for *small enterprise* is that which having less than 500 personnel as permanent employees, excluding temporarily outside 'contracted helpers' which are not permanent. Wiryawan (2001) set the number of personnel of more or below 500 as the classification of large and small *manufacturing firms* in Indonesia.

This study decided to cluster respondents into three groups using the study of Gultom (1995). Rintuh (1995) and Mulyani (1996) were discussing *small enterprises*, while Wiryawan (2001) specifically mentioned *manufacturing firms*, which were incompatible with this research. Enterprises were therefore grouped following Gultom's (1995) classification into those

employing 100 or fewer employees (n=44, or 47.31 percent), those employing between 101 and 500 employees (n=20, or 31.51 percent), and organizations with more than 500 (n=29, or 31.18 percent).

8.1.3   Legal Form of the Firm

Out of the 93 respondents, six failed to state the legal form of their firm. In general, 33.33 percent stated 'corporations, 20.69 percent stated 'private ownership', 3.45 percent stated 'joint venture' and the majority (42.53 percent) stated 'Others' as the legal form of the firm (Table 3).

Table 3
DISTRIBUTION OF THE RESPONDENT BY LEGAL FORM OF FIRM
JAKARTA, 2004

Legal Form of Firm	Frequency	Percent
Cooperation	29	31.18
Joint venture	3	3.23
Private/Owner	18	19.35
Others	37	39.78
Total	87	93.55
Missing	6	6.45
Grand Total	93	100.00

Source: Field survey, 2004.

8.1.4   Business Sector

Respondents were asked to indicate the business sector in which their enterprises operated. Table 4 indicates the number of respondents in each category of industrial sector.

No respondent opted for 'Utilities' or for 'Personal Services' in their choices. It was not clear if these should have been in the 'missing answer' category.

Table 4
DISTRIBUTION OF THE RESPONDENTS BY INDUSTRIAL SECTOR,
JAKARTA, 2004

Industrial sector	Frequency	Percent
Industrial/Manufacture	11	11.83
Industrial/Consumer	4	4.30
Medical/Hospital/Clinic	2	2.15
Finance/Banking/Insurance	14	15.05
Communication/Publisher	1	1.08
Transportation/Distribution	1	1.08
Real estate/Developer	3	3.23
Education/Universities	29	31.18
Trading/Grocer	4	4.30
Trading/Retail	2	2.15
Mining/Energy	1	1.08
Consulting	5	5.38
Food/Agro-Industry	4	4.30
Engineering/Construction	1	1.08
Recreation/Film	1	1.08
Import/Export	2	2.15
Others	6	6.45
Total	91	97.85
Missing	2	2.15
Grand Total	93	100.00

Source: Field survey, 2004.

Licuanan (1992) reported that Southeast Asian corporate and entrepreneurial women business executives were highly concentrated in certain industries like in the manufacturing and services (including retail and wholesale trade, hotels, restaurants, professional and personal services), but were sparsely represented in mining, utilities, transportation and construction). It appeared that this research confirmed some of Licuanan's (1992) findings, since respondents indicated also thin choices for these sub-sectors namely mining (1), utilities (0), transportation (1) and construction (1).

8.1.5   Employment Status

Table 5 indicates the position of the respondents, whether they were owners/managers or staff/employees. As might be expected from the data on the legal form of the firm, most of the owners/managers were also involved with sole proprietorships.

Table 5
DISTRIBUTION OF THE RESPONDENT BY POSITION IN THE FIRM
JAKARTA, 2004

Position in the firm	Frequency	Percent
Management/Owner	13	13.98
Staff/ Employees	79	84.95
Total	**92**	**98.92**
Missing	1	1.08
Grand Total	**93**	**100.00**

Source: Field survey, 2004.

8.1.6   Reasons for Working

Respondents were asked to indicate their reason for working. Table 6 presents the findings from this question on the survey.

Table 6
DISTRIBUTION OF THE RESPONDENT BY REASON FOR WORKING
JAKARTA, 2004

Reason for working	Frequency	Percent
Sense of accomplishment	7	7.53
Desire to earn own money	60	64.52
Economic necessity	4	4.30
Recognition from society	6	6.45
Better opportunities for children	6	6.45
Respect from peers	3	3.23
Higher income compared with peers	2	2.15
Others	5	5.38
Total	**93**	**100.00**

Source: Field survey, 2004.

It can be seen that the most-widely reported reason for working by this sample of Indonesian women business executives was desire to earn their own money independent of their spouse since 60 respondents (64.52 percent) cited this as their principal reason for working. Of the remaining respondents, seven (7.53 percent) indicated that they worked because they wanted better opportunities for their children. Economic necessity was the next reason with four respondents, to be followed by respect from friends with three respondents (3.23 percent), higher income with two respondents (2.15 percent), and five respondents opted for other reasons (5.38 percent).

If reasons of 'Better opportunities for their children' and 'Economic necessity' were aggregated, the combination was therefore the next highest reason for working by this sample of Indonesian women business executives. Thus, the data analysis categories for reasons for working indicated that the first reason was desire to earn own independent money, and the second reason was economic necessity.

8.1.7 Perceived Career Constraints

Data were gathered using Derr's *Perceived Career Constraints/PCS* (1988). Responses were coded and analyzed according to the procedure described earlier for both 'Immediate Constraints' and 'Estimated Future Constraints'. The respondents scores on the 13 statements were summed. Depending on where the score fell, the respondent was judged to be 'Free to choose' (a score from 13 to 25), 'Somewhat constrained' (a score between 26 and 44), or 'Constrained' (a score between 45-65). Tables 7 and Table 8 present the results for 'Immediate Constraints' and 'Estimated Future Constraints' respectively.

From those tables it can be seen that most respondents considered themselves having 'Somewhat constrained' both in terms of immediate and future constraints.

Table 7
DISTRIBUTION OF THE RESPONDENT BY IMMEDIATE CONSTRAINT
JAKARTA, 2004

Immediate constraint	Frequency	Percent
Free to choose	14	15.05
Somewhat constrained	53	56.99
Constrained	26	27.96
Total	**93**	**100.00**

Source: Field survey, 2004.

Table 8
DISTRIBUTION OF THE RESPONDENT BY FUTURE CONSTRAINTS
JAKARTA, 2004

Future constraint	Frequency	Percent
Free to Choose	10	10.75
Somewhat Constrained	55	59.14
Constrained	28	30.11
Total	**93**	**100.00**

Source: Field survey, 2004.

If responses were collapsed for further data analysis into two categories: 'free' comprising 14 respondents (15.05 percent) and 'constrained' comprising 79 respondents (84.95 percent) for immediately constrained; 'free' comprising 10 respondents (10.75 percent) and 'constrained' comprising 83 respondents (89.25 percent) for estimated future constraints.

8.1.8   Career Success Orientation

The following section reports the findings on the research questions and null hypotheses investigated on the career success orientations of the Indonesian women business executives.

The research question posed in this research study asked:

RQ 1 : What is the career success orientation profile of the Indonesian women business executives?

Table 9 shows the career success orientation profile of the 93 respondents. The dominant career orientation in terms of intensity with which it was held by the sample, as measured by Derr (1988) was *Getting balanced* (31.18 percent), followed in order of intensity by *Getting secure* (23.66 percent), with *Getting high* (18.28 percent) and *Getting free* (15.05 percent) in that order, and lastly *Getting ahead* (11.83 percent).

Table 9
DISTRIBUTION OF THE WOMEN BUSINESS RESPONDENT BY
CAREER SUCCESS ORIENTATIONS, JAKARTA, 2004

Career success orientation	Frequency	Percent
Getting ahead	11	11.83
Getting secure	22	23.66
Getting free	14	15.05
Getting balanced	29	31.18
Getting high	17	18.28
Total	**93**	**100.00**

Source: Field survey, 2004.

The answer to the research question 1, therefore, was that the career success orientation held with the highest mean intensity by the Indonesian women business executives was *Getting balanced*, followed in descending order of mean intensity by *Getting secure*, *Getting high*, *Getting free*, then lastly *Getting ahead*.

The next research question asked:

RQ 2: What is the dominant career success orientation of the Indonesian women business executives?

Table 10 presents the number of Indonesian women business executives oriented to each of the career success anchors.

Table 10
DISTRIBUTION OF THE WOMEN BUSINESS RESPONDENT BY
DOMINANT CAREER SUCCESS ORIENTATION, JAKARTA, 2004

Orientation	Observed n	Expected n	Residual
Getting ahead	11	18.6	-7.6
Getting secure	22	18.6	3.4
Getting free	14	18.6	-4.6
Getting balanced	29	18.6	10.4
Getting high	17	18.6	-1.6
Total	93		
Chi-Square(a)	10.82		
Df	4		
Asymp. Sign.	0.03		

Source: Field survey, 2004.

The answer to the research question 2 was that the dominant career success orientation of the Indonesian women business executives in this study was *Getting balanced*, which was held by 29 respondents (31.18 percent). The second largest group of Indonesian women business executives' 22 respondents (23.66 percent) were oriented to *Getting secure*.

The null hypothesis was:

Ho 1: There is an even distribution across the five career success orientations

To test this null hypothesis a Chi-square goodness of fit test was performed on the data. The result was that obtained with statistically significant result (chi-square 10.82 sign 0.03 df 4). The null hypothesis was therefore rejected.

The Indonesian women business executives, as evidenced by the respondents of this research, indicated agreement with Derr's argument (1988) that individuals would hold one career success orientation more intensely than they would hold others.

The next research question asked in the study was:

RQ 3 : Are there associations between career success orientations?

The career success orientations data were analyzed and the results are shown in Table 11.

Table 11
MATRIX PEARSON CORRELATION AMONG CARRIER ORIENTATIONS

Correlations

		V Getting ahead	W Getting secure	X Getting free	Y Getting balanced	Z Getting high
V Getting ahead	Pearson Correlation	1	-.227	.138	-.322	-.432*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.204	.442	.087	.012
	N	33	33	33	33	33
W Getting secure	Pearson Correlation	-.227	1	-.728**	-.073	-.178
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.204	.	.000	.685	.322
	N	33	33	33	33	33
X Getting free	Pearson Correlation	.138	-.728**	1	-.327	-.109
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.442	.000	.	.064	.644
	N	33	33	33	33	33
Y Getting balanced	Pearson Correlation	-.322	-.073	-.327	1	-.060
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.087	.685	.064	.	.741
	N	33	33	33	33	33
Z Getting high	Pearson Correlation	-.432*	-.178	-.109	-.060	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.012	.322	.644	.741	.
	N	33	33	33	33	33

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Source: Analysis of survey data.

The answer to the research question 3, therefore, was that there were mostly negative relationships between the career success orientations except that positive correlation was found between *Getting ahead* and *Getting free*.

The null hypothesis stated was:

Ho 2: There is no relationships between any of the five career success orientations.

Data were analyzed using Pearson Matrix Correlations with 8 were found not significant, 2 were found significant. The null hypothesis was therefore partially accepted, with the relationship between *Getting ahead* and *Getting free* being rejected.

The next research question asked:

RQ 4: Is there an association between perceived immediate and estimated future career hindrances and the career success orientations of Indonesian women business executives ?

Mann-Whitney statistical tests were performed to test the following null hypotheses:

Ho 3 : There are no significant differences in orientation to each of the five career success orientations between respondents who perceived themselves to free of or subject to immediate personal constraints.

Ho 4 : There are no significant differences in orientation to each of the five career success orientations between respondents who perceived themselves to free of or subject to estimated future personal constraints.

Table 12 presents the results for the null hypotheses 3 and 4:

The null hypothesis 3 was therefore accepted. There was no statistically significant relationship between any of the career success orientations and immediate constraints (chi-square 8.35 sign 0.40 df 8).

The null hypothesis 4 was therefore accepted. There was no statistically significant relationship between any of the career success orientations and estimated future constraints (chi-square 9.03 sign 0.34 df 5).

Table 12
MANN-WHITNEY STATISTICAL TESTS HO 3 & HO 4

No.	Hypotheses	Mann-Whitney Statistical Tests			
		Ch-Sq	df	Sig.	
1.	*Ho 3: There are no significant differences in orientation to each of the five career success orientations between respondents who perceived themselves to free of or subject to immediate personal constraints.*	8.35	8	0.40	Accept

(Continued)

(Continuation – Table 12)

No.	Hypotheses	Mann-Whitney Statistical Tests			
		Ch-Sq	df	Sig.	
2.	*Ho 4: There are no significant differences in orientation to each of the five career success orientation between respondents who perceived themselves to free of or subject to estimated future personal constraints*	9.03	5	0.34	Accept

Source: Field survey, 2004.

The answer to the research question 4 was, therefore, that there was no association between either perceived Immediate and Estimated future career hindrances and the career success orientations of Indonesian women business executives

The next research question investigated in this study was:

RQ 5: Are the career success orientations independent of respondents' age range, their enterprise's labor force size, their enterprise's business sector, their enterprise's legal form of Organization, and their espoused reason for working ?

The following null hypotheses were stated:

Ho 5: Career success orientation by Indonesian women business executives is independent of the respondents' age range.

Ho 6: Career success orientation by Indonesian women business executives is independent of the labor force size of the respondent's enterprise.

Ho 7: Career success orientation by Indonesian women business executives is independent of the business sector in which the respondent's enterprise operates.

Ho 8: Career success orientation by Indonesian women business executives is independent of the legal form of the respondent's enterprise.

Ho 9: Career success orientation by Indonesian women business executives is independent of the respondents' employment status.

Ho 10: Career success orientation by Indonesian women business executives is independent of the respondents' espoused reason for working.

A Kruskal-Wallis One-way Anova test was performed to test null hypothesis 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10 (Table 13).

Table 13
KRUSKAL-WALLIS ONE-WAY ANOVA STATISTICAL TEST FOR HO 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10

No.	Hypotheses	Kruskal-Wallis Statistical Tests				
		Ch-Sq	df	Sig.	Rank	
1.	*Ho 5: Career success orientation by Indonesian women business executives is independent of the respondents' age range.*	6.98	8	0.54	3	Accept
2.	*Ho 6: Career success orientation by Indonesian women business executives is independent of the labor force size of the respondent's enterprise.*	6.47	8	0.59	2	Accept
3.	*Ho 7: Career success orientation by Indonesian women business executives is independent of the business sector in which the respondent's enterprise operates.*	8.34	8	0.40	5	Accept
4.	*Ho 8: Career success orientation by Indonesian women business executives is independent of the legal form of the respondent's enterprise.*	11.02	12	0.53	4	Accept
5.	*Ho 9: Career success orientation by Indonesian women business executives is independent of the respondents' employment status.*	2.65	4	0.62	1	Accept
6.	*Ho 10: Career success orientation by Indonesian women business executives is independent of the respondents' espoused reason for working.*	5.68	4	0.22	6	Accept

Source: Field survey, 2004.

The results are as follows:

Null hypothesis 5 was accepted, since there was no statistically significant relationship between any of the success career orientations with the respondents' age range (chi-square 6.98 sign 0.54 df 8). The Kruskal-Wallis test shows the result that career success orientations were independent of the respondents' age range.

Null hypothesis 6 that the career success orientations were independent of the labor force size of the respondents' enterprises. It shows the null hypothesis was accepted. There was no statistically significant relationship between any of the career success orientations and the enterprise's labor size force (chi-square 6.47 sign 0.59 df 8).

Null hypothesis 7 that the career success orientations were independent of the respondents' enterprise's business sector. Null hypothesis 7 was accepted. There was no statistically significant relationship between any of the career success orientations and the enterprise's business sector (chi-square 8.34 sign 0.40 df 8).

Null hypothesis 8 that the career success orientations were independent of the respondents' enterprise's legal form of Organization. The null hypothesis was accepted. There was no statistically significant relationship between any of the career success orientations and the enterprise's legal form (chi-square 11.02 sign 0.53 df 12) as shown in Table 13.

Null hypothesis 9 that the career success orientations were independent of the respondents' employment status. The null hypothesis was accepted. There was no statistically significant relationship between any of the career success orientations and the respondents' employment status (chi-square 2.65 sign 0.62 df 4) as shown in Table 13.

Null hypothesis 10 that the career success orientations were independent of the respondents' espoused reason for working. The null hypothesis was accepted. There was no statistically significant relationship between any of the career success orientations and the reported reasons for working (chi-square 5.68 sign 0.22 df 4).

The answer to the research question 5, therefore, was that the career success orientations were independent of respondents' age range, labor size

force, the enterprises' business sector, the enterprises' legal form of organization, and the respondents' espoused reason for working.

9.   Conclusion and Discussion

This study was explicitly cast as a study of a homogenous group of respondents, *i.e.*, the Indonesian women business executives who were selected for certain personal and organizational characteristics. The research, despite deriving from Derr's theoretical framework from career success orientation theory (1988), was essentially concerned with understanding this particular group of people in order to make contribution to Indonesian studies. The research was carried out against the background of the present socio-cultural context of these Indonesian women business executives.

Despite recent developments in the legal and political status of Indonesian women under the present Constitution and laws of the Republic, there is still social pressure on such women to marry and raise children, so that combining marriage and career, or simply having a career, is considered a non-conventional life path. Nevertheless, many women work outside the home, with most of these women work for economic reason. There is evidence, however, that middle and upper class Indonesian women do work, and that they hold favorable attitudes to working outside the home (Sutjipto 2003; Tjiptoherijanto 1997; Kurniawan 2000).

While there is evidence that they work, there is yet controvertible evidence of their reasons for working, and none on what their subjective definitions of career success may be. As reported earlier, the research problem in this study, therefore, was:

> *What are the career success orientations of the Indonesian women business executives? Are these career success orientations affected by independent variables?*

A homogeneous sample was selected for this study in that respondents were similar in terms of gender, nationality, minimum educational level, level of organizational responsibility, and geographic location. It was assumed, hence, that they would share the same subjective culture, taking into account that, as educated, urban and business women, their shared subjective culture would actually be a sub, or a co-culture within a

locality (Aldrich 1989; Hofstede 1997; Murniati 2004; Subono 2003; Selvarajah et al. 1995).

The answer to the first part of the research problem, related to career success orientation, the largest number of respondents (31.18 percent) was oriented to *Getting balanced*. This is the career success orientation concerned with maintaining the balance between 'home, work and personal development' as argued by Derr (1988), and confirmed later by the studies of Licuanan (1992) and Fonollera (1994).

The first major conclusion that can be drawn from this study, therefore, is that Indonesian women business executives (which were the respondents in this research), pursue careers for no single clear-cut reason, and have multiple criteria for success. The respondents, moreover, have either mixed or talent-based career success orientations.

If these respondents would like to climb higher on the ladder of their organization, they might want to consider that, in business, there is an iron-clad rule as posited by Davidson (1991: 180): *"With unrelenting fervor, corporate women at the top rack up accomplishments knowing that a solid track record is undeniable and required for the journey they've chosen"*. Business women at the top in the corporate world need to demonstrate an amazing capability to be consistent performers, not just so-journers (Cohen 1989; Davidson 1991). In fact and to be fair, all business executives regardless of gender ought to (Kanter 1995; Sitterly 2002).

The answer to the second part of the research problem, which also becomes the second major conclusion to be drawn from this study, was that career success orientations were not influenced by the independent variables. No statistically significant influence was exerted by the perceived personal constraints investigated on career success orientations.

While the findings on dominant career success orientations are clear cut, the other results on the second part of the research problem, *i.e.,* the influence of independent variables needs further interpretation and investigation. For example, the information used to analyze career success orientations showed that most Indonesian women business executives were motivated to work for reasons of desire to earn own money, and with vast majority they perceived themselves both as *Somewhat constrained* and *Constrained* that might influence their careers *Immediately* (84.95 percent cumulatively) and in *the Future* (89.25 percent cumulatively).

The majority of these women, therefore, set their career success orientation as *Getting balanced,* which, in a nut-shell, means finding an equilibrium between personal and professional life which can evidently be seen as a balancing act resulting from the constraints. Yet, the statistical test results of the null hypotheses to answer research question 4 showed that the respondents perceived no association between career hindrances and career success orientation, and were therefore free from career hindrances.

Having said that, it relates to the third major conclusion drawn from this study, below:

Derr (1988) believed that individuals, consciously or unconsciously, formulate their own cognitive map of what constitutes career success, and that this map constrains the dynamic balance of the three forces in their career: work, relationship and self-development. The mostly negative interpretations of the career success maps in this sample of Indonesian business executives suggests, however, that there may be 'dissonances' between what *holds* these women to a career and how they subjectively *believe* or *interpret* career success. It was, therefore, their reason for opting *Getting balanced* as majority, and could not, for example, opt *Getting ahead* which is an upward mobility pattern as a career direction usually associated with (rapid) promotions, or advancement in a status system. These dissonances might, therefore, be investigated further by other interested researchers in Indonesian women business executives career success orientations as the *first implication* for further research.

While it is concluded that Indonesian women business executives who share certain characteristics also share similar orientations to career success maps, the statistically significant result obtained from the data analyses suggests that within the group attitudinal differences do exist as a consequence of the influence of independent variables. These differences must be recognized. Failure to do so would result in the possibility of deriving ecological fallacies, or reasoning as if the properties of any whole are always properties of each part. It is another *implication* to suggest further research.

The overall finding of this study suggests that the issue of the pursuit of a career by Indonesian women business executives is perhaps more complex than can be wholly illuminated by just one single research such as this study. Successful women business executives in Indonesia may have multiple criteria for 'success' itself, for some, success may be defined as having the flexibility to simultaneously enable them to respond to family obligations; for others success is equated with personal fulfillment from the

job; for more others and as mentioned earlier, they simply are **not** career oriented and do not care to *Getting ahead* as posited by Derr (1988) toward an upward mobility pattern.

It could probably be the reason why there is no Indonesian women business executives listed among the 50 business women holding powerful executive boardroom positions outside the USA within the world's largest multinational corporations. From Asia, China, Japan, Singapore, Hong Kong S.A.R, Pakistan and the Philippines were cited as country-contributors of the successful corporate women executives on the boardroom (Fortune, Oct.2004), with China's Xie Qihua (CEO of Shanghai Baosteel Group: total employees 100,000 people, total assets US$ 22 billion) leading at no. 9 in the list, Mary Ma Xuezheng, also from China (Senior V.P and C.F.O of Chinese technology giant Lenovo/Legend Group which recently bought US-based IBM's personal computer business for US$ 1.75 billion), and Singapore's Ho Ching (CEO of Temasek Holding – major shareholders of *e.g.,* Indosat/Sing Tel, Ascott Towers, Bank BII and Bank Danamon in Indonesia, Singapore Airlines and Keppel in Singapore) at no.12 out of 550 women business executives the world over (MacDonald and Schoenberger 2004; The Asian Wall Street Journal 2004; The Jakarta Post 2004).

Hardesty and Jacobs (1986), Kestenbaum (1986), Licuanan (1992), Powell and Mainiero (1992), Poole *et al.* (1993), Fonollera (1994), Kageyama (2004) and Wren (2004) have all concluded similar complexities, while these indicators of success are only additional to other complexities like promotions and salary increases. To confuse matters even more, women priorities may also change over time, while Derr (1988) posited that some career orientations could move between one another at the end of the continuum. He claimed, for example, that *Getting ahead* careerists could fall back to *Getting balanced* mode if they thought they were not going to make it. This point may become the *third implication* for further research to confirm the order in which career success orientations appear in a continum.

Careers as lived by their inhabitants in this study, therefore, may not be in line with the ideals portrayed in business management career writings like that of Cohen (1989) and of Davidson (1991). Derr (1988) has specifically pointed to the methodological problems in the use of a survey to assess internal career since the multi-dimensional nature of the career constructs makes measurement of the constructs very difficult. In view of this, the use of a survey instrument to measure career orientations in a quantitative research was accepted as another limitation in itself, since survey researchers

"...never observe the actual behavior of the subjects but take only verbal and written reports of that behavior" (Teevan 1989: 125).

This study, therefore, also suggests the *fourth*, and also *the last, implication* for further research to be carried out using qualitative in-depth interview and, perhaps, other unobtrusive data-gathering procedures to deeply investigate career success orientations of Indonesian women business executives along the quantitative approach.

Indonesian women business executives may have different career orientations, but this will not be known until they are sought further. Since these women have been contributing significantly for the country in which they live, work, and which they definitely love, business would be better off understanding these Indonesian women business executives' career success orientations.

Furthermore, since women in Indonesia are numerically, albeit marginally, ahead of men, it would be best to tap the resourceful talents of these women to the maximum for the benefit of the country. It will otherwise be wasteful if and when more than half of the nation's rich talents cannot be freed to perform to their utmost in the workplace.

10. Acknowledgement

Reference

Abdoolcarim, Z. 1993. "How Women are Winning at Work." *Asian Business*, 29 (11), 24-29.

Achmad, Sjamsiah and Hermawati, Wati. 1999. "Gender in Science: The case of Indonesia and the Regional Secretariat for Gender, Science and Technology in Southeast Asia and the Pacific." *Berita Iptek*, 40 (1): 69-87.

Adriana, Venny. 2003. "Gerakan Perdamaian Kaum Perempuan" (The Women Peace Movement). *Kompas*, March 31.

Aldrich, H. 1989. "Networking Among Women Entrepreneurs." In Hagan, O; Rivchun, C and Sexton, D. (eds). *Women-owned Business*. New York: Praeger.

Adler, N.J. 1933. *Asian Women in Management.* International Studies of Management and Organization, 23 (4): 3-18.

--------. and Izraeli, D.N. 1988. *Women in Management Worldwide.* Armonk, NU: M.E. Sharpe.

Alquist, EM. 1974. "Sex Stereotypes in Occupational Choice: The case for College Women." *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 5: 13-21.

Arivia, Gadis. 2002. "Kebijakan Publik dalam Pendidikan: Sebuah kritik dengan perspektif gender." (Public Policy in Education: A critic in gender perspective). *Jurnal Perempuan*, 23: 83-94.

--------. 2003. *Filsafat Berperspektif Feminis.* (Philosophy in Feminism Perspective). Jakarta: Yayasan Jurnal Perempuan.

Asfin, HS and Myint, T. 1971. "Career Development of Young Women During the Post High School Years." *Journal of Counseling Psychology Monograph*, 18: 369-393.

Asian Wall Street Journal. 2004. "Women to Watch". November 8.

Ayu, Miranda Risang. 2003. "Perempuan?" *Republika*, March 17.

Betz, NE and Fitzgerald, LF. 1987. *The Career Psychology of Women.* Orlando, FL: Academic Press.

Budiman, Arief. 1982. *Pembagian Kerja Secara Seksual: Sebuah pembahasan sosiologis tentang peran perempuan di dalam masyarakat* (Sexual Work Division: A sociological discussion on women role in the society). Jakarta: Gramedia.

Burns, Alvin C. and Bush, Ronald F. 1995. *Marketing Research.* New Jersey: Prentice-Hall

Burhanudin, Jajat, (ed). 2002. *Ulama Perempuan Indonesia.* (Indonesian Religious Leader). Jakarta: Gramedia.

Carver, RP. 1978. "The Case Against Statistical Testing." *Harvard Review of Education*, 48: 378-399.

Cavusgil, S. Tamer and Das, Ajay. 1997. "Methodological Issues in Empirical Cross-Cultural Research: A survey of the management literature and a framework." *Management International Review*, 37 (1): 71-96.

Central Board of Statistics (CBS). 2000. *Women and Men in Indonesia* (Catalogue 4713: 4).

Chow, SL. 1989. "Significance Test and Deduction: Reply to Folger." *Psychological Bulletin* 106: 161-165.

Christina. 2004. "Yang Lolos dari Bias Gender." (Those Who Free From Gender Bias). *Image*, November 1 (11): 5.

Cohen, Sherry S. 1989. "Beyond Macho: The power of women management." *Working Women*, February: 77-83.

Coolican, H. 1990. *Research Methods and Statistics in Psychology.* London: Hodder and Stoughton.

Davidson, Jeffrey P. 1991. *Power and Protocol for Getting to the Top.* New York: Shapolsky Publishers, Inc.

Derr, Clyde B. 1988. *Managing the New Careerists: The diverse career success orientations of today's workers.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Dewi, Kurniawati Hastuti. 2004. "Belajar dari Kemenangan Perempuan Australia." (To Learn from Women Australian Fictory). *Kompas,* November 29, 36.

De Vaus, DA. 1985. *Surveys in Social Research.* Sydney: Allen & Unwin.

Diana, Hera and Bruce Emond. 2003. "Women Still Battling to Get Ahead in Workplace." *The Jakarta Post,* November 2: 6.

Dunning, John H. and Kundu, Sumit K. 1995. "The Internationalization of the Hotel Industry: some new findings from a field study". *Management International Review,* 35 (2): 101-133.

Dooley, D. 1995. *Social Research Methods.* Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice-Hall.

Dzuhayatin, Siti Ruhaini. 2001. "Women, Globalization and Spirituality." *Islamic Millenium Journal,* I (1), September-November: 130-134.

Easterby-Smith, M, Thorpe, R and Lowe, A. 1991. *Management Research: An introduction.* London: Sage.

Emory, C. William and Cooper, Donald R. 1991. *Business Research Method.* Sydney: Richard D. Irwin, Inc.

Endriani D.S. 2004. "Maskulinitas Dunia Politik." (Masculinity in Politic World). *Kompas,* November 1: 42.

Fadjar, Evieta. 2003. "Wanita Karir Kini Lebih Perkasa, Minus Seks." (Nowadays Career Women are More Courageous, Minus Sex). *Koran Tempo,* March.

Fathony, Herul and Christine. 2004. "Perempuan di Kemudi Bisnis." (Women in Business Steering Wheel). *Image,* November, I (11): 3.

Folger, R. 1989. "Significance Tests and the Duplicity of Binary Decisions." *Psychological Bulletin,* 106: 155-160.

Fonollera, MB. 1994. *Women's Best of the Two Worlds: Career and marriage.* Passig, MM: Melfon Publishing, Inc.

Fortune. 2004. "Most Powerful Women". October 18.

Greenhause, JH. 1987. *Career Management.* Hinsdale. IL: The Dryden Press.

Gultom, Miranda S. 1995. *Indonesia's Financial Liberalization*. Singapore: Institute of Southeast Asian Studies.

Hafidz, Wardah. 1993. "Gerakan Perempuan, Dulu, Sekarang, dan Sumbangannya Kepada Transformasi Bangsa." (Women Movement, Former Times, Nowadays, and Its Contribution to the Nation Transformation). In Faudji Ridjal, (ed). *Dinamika Gerakan Perempuan di Indonesia*. Yogyakarta: Tiara Wacana.

Hardesty, S. and Jacobs, N.1986. *Success and Betrayal: The crisis of women in Corporate America*. New York: Franklin Watts.

Hart, DV. 1978. "Philippine Studies: History, Sociology, Mass Media and Bibliography. Carbondale." IL: Northern Illinois University Center for Southeast Asian Studies. *Occasional Paper*, No. 6.

Harjanto, Nazir. 1999. "Pengenalan Ilmu dan Teknologi di Daerah Untuk Memberdayakan Masyarakat Melalui Pendekatan Sistem dan Aspek Jender." (Introduction on Science and Technology Through System and Gender Aspect Approach). *Berita Iptek*, 40 (1): 23-34.

Hasyim, Syafiq. (ed.). 2000. *Kekerasan dalam Rumah Tangga*. (Domestic Violence). LKP2 Fatayat NU and The Asia Foundation.

Hendytio, Medelina K. 2004. "Empat Sekawan Menteri Perempuan." (Four Women Minister Group). *Kompas*, November 1: 42.

Hoffarth, VB. 1989. *Corporate Women Managers in Southeast Asia; directory/volume 2 entrepreneurs*. Makati, MM: Women for women Foundation (Asia) Inc.

Hofstede, Geert. 1997. *Cultures and Organizations*. London: McGraw-Hill.

Iedarwati, Pradewi. 2004. "Menggugat Diskriminasi Terhadap Perempuan." (To claim discrimination on women). *Media Indonesia*, June 6: 4.

Jakarta Post. 2004. "Lenovo Faces Cultural Differences". December 14.

Junaidi, A. 2004. "Public Participation Up, But Women Still Marginalized: Study". *The Jakarta Post*, May 21: 4.

Jones, EL. 1983. "The Courtesy Bias in South-East Asian surveys." In Bulmer, M and Warwick, DP. *Social Research in Developing Countries: Surveys and censuses in the Third Word*. Brisbane: John Wiley and Sons Ltd.

Kageyama, Yuri. 2004. "Japanese Women Staying Single." *Associated Press/Media*, November 21: 5.

Kanter, Rosabeth Moss. 1995. *World Class, Thriving Locally in the Global Economy*. New York, N.Y: Simon and Schuster.

Kestenbaum, Clarice J. 1986. "The Professional Women's Dilemma: Love and For Power." *American Journal of Psychoanalysis*, 46 (1): 15.

Kraar, Louis. 1991. "Iron Butterflies." *Fortune*, 124 (8): 143-154.

Kurniawan, Hari. 2003. "Activists Want More Women Representations." *The Jakarta Post*, November 26.

Kurniawan, Ukik Kusuma. 2000. "The Revolution in Decision-Making Among Young Women in Indonesia: A review of demographic data in 1980-1997." *Journal of Population*, 6 (1-2): 1-36.

Licuanan, VS. 1992. "Women in the Workplace." *The Asian Manager*, 5 (1): 57-62.

Louis, AM. 1982. "Managing Career Transitions: A missing link in career development." *Organizational Dynamics*, 10 (4): 68-77.

Margono, Gaguk. 2002. "Perbedaan Gender dalam Matematika." (Gender Differentiation in Mathematics). *Jurnal Perempuan*, 23: 83 –94.

MacDonald, Elizabeth and Schoenberger, Chana R. 2004. "Rise of the Tigresses." *Forbes Global*, September: 24-26.

Makil, PQ. 1983. "Social-problems Research, Philippines." *Philippines Studies*. 31: 289-318.

Manheim, HL. 1977. *Sociological Research: Philosophy and methods*. Homewood, IL: The Dryden Press.

Media Indonesia. 2004. "Keselarasan Karir dalam Rumah Tangga." (Career Balance in the Household). November 25: 21.

Mitchell, RE. 1983. "Survey Materials Collected in the Developing Countries: Sampling measurements, and interviewing obstacles to intrarational and international comparisons." In Bulmer, M and Warwick, DP. *Social Research in Developing Countries: Surveys and censuses in the Third World*. Brisbane: John Wiley and Sons Ltd.

Muchtar, Yanti. 2000. "Gerakan Perempuan Indonesia dan politik gender Orde Baru." (Indonesia Women Movement and Gender Politics of the New Order). *Jurnal Perempuan*. Yayasan Jurnal Perempuan.

Mulyani, Sri. 1996. "Akan banyak pelaku berjatuhan" (There will many performers lost). *Bisnis Indonesia*, December 9: 3.

Mulia, Musdah.. 2004. "Draft Islamic law code reflects response of Muslim women." *The Jakarta Post*, October 28: 6.

Muthali'in, Achmad. 2001. *Bias Gender dalam Pendidikan* (Gender Bias in Education). Surakarta: Muhammadiyah University Press, Universitas Muhammadiyah Surakarta.

Murniati, A.Nunuk P. 2004. *Getar Gender*. (Gender Shake). Part 2. Magelang: Indonesiatera.

Naisbitt, John, 1995. *Megatrends Asia: The eight Asian megatrends that are changing the world*. London: Nicholas Brearley.

New York Times. 1988. "Working Women Gained on Men." February, 2.

Nunnally, JC. 1978. *Psychometric Theory*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Poole, ME and Langan-Fox, J. 1997. *Australian Women and Careers: Psychological and contextual influences over the life course*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

--------. and Omodei, M. 1993. "Contrasting Subjective and Objective Criteria as Determinants of Perceived Career Success: A longitudinal study." *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 66: 39-54.

Powell, GN. and Mainiero, LA. 1992. "Cross-currents in the River of Time: Conceptualising the complexities of women's careers." *Journal of Management*, special issue: 215-237.

Pramodhawardani, Jaleswari. 2002. "Perempuan dalam Politik Indonesia." (Women in Indonesia's Politics). *Masyarakat Indonesia*, 28 (2): 109-119.

Preece, R.1994. *Starting Research: An introduction to academic research and dissertation writing*. London: Pinter Publishings.

Rajab, Budi. 2002. "Pendidikan Sekolah dan Perubahan Kedudukan Perempuan." (School Education and the Changing of Women Position). *Jurnal Perempuan*, 23: 19-33.

Rintuh, Cornelis. 1995. *Perekonomian Indonesia* (Indonesian Economy). Yogyakarta: Liberty.

Roscoe, JT. 1975. *Fundamental Research Statistics for the Behavioural Sciences*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Sadarjoen, Sawitri Supardi. 2003. "Sikap Negatif Sebagai Landasan Relasi Ibu-anak laki-laki." (Negative Attitude as Basic Relationship Between Mother and Son). *Kompas*, March 30.

Sari, Mayang. 1997. "Kartini dan Kita." (Kartini and Us). *Jurnal Perempuan*. Jakarta: Yayasan Jurnal Perempuan, 3rd ed.

Schein, Edgar H. 1978. *Career Dynamics: Matching individual and organizational needs*. Philippines: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Inc.

Selvarajah, Ch.T; Duignan, P; Suppiah S; Lane, T and Nuttman, C. 1995. "In Search of ASEAN Leader: An exploratory study of the dimensions that relate to excellence in leadership." *Management International Review*, 35 (1): 29-44.

Siegel, S and Castellan, J. 1988. *Nonparametric Statistics for Behavioural Sciences*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Sitterly, Connie. 2002. *The Women Manager*. (Indonesian Translation). Jakarta: Progress.

Smith, HW. 1981. *Strategies for Social Research*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice-Hall.

Soetjipto, Ani. 2003. "Kuota 30% Perempuan: Langkah awal bagi partisipasi politik perempuan di Indonesia." (Quota 30% for Women: First step for women participation in Indonesia Politics). *Jurnal Ilmu Politik*. April: 61-68.

Solaiman,   Antie. 1999. "Perempuan dan Persoalan Bangsa." (Women and the Nation Problems). *Sociae Polites*, 3 (10): 120-125.

Stratham, Anne. 1987. "The Gender Model Visited: Differences in the management styles of men and women." *Sex Role*. 16 (16/17): 409-427.

Suryadinata, Leo, Evi Nurvidya Arifin and Aris Ananta. 2003. *Indonesia's Population: Ethnicity and religion in a changing political landscape*. Singapore: Institute of Southeast Asian Studies.

Subono, Nur Iman. 2001. "Laki-laki, Kekerasan Gender dan Feminisme." (Men, Gender Violence and Feminism). In Nur Iman Subono, ed, *Femini Laki-laki: Solusi atau persoalan?* Jakarta: Yayasan Jurnal Perempuan & The Japan Foundation: 60-74.

-------. 2003. *Perempuan dan Partisipasi Politik*. (Women and Participation in Politics). Jakarta: Yayasan Jurnal Perempuan.

Sugiapto, Trisna. 1999. *Effects of Buyer Knowledge on the Perceived Importance of Purchasing Decision Factors*. Ph.D. Thesis, University of South Australia Adelaide.

Susilo, Wahyu. 2001. "Perjalanan Menyusuri Gerakan Penghapusan Kekerasan Terhadap Perempuan." (Travelling to Follow The Movement of Violence Wiping Out Towards Women). In Nur Iman Subono, ed, *Feminis Laki-laki: Solusi atau persoalan*. Jakarta: Yayasan Jurnal Perempuan : 114 -122.

Tangri, SS. 1972. "Determinants of Occupational Role Innovation Among College Women." *Journal of Social Issues*, 28: 177-199.

Teevan, JJ. 1989. "Research Methodology." In Teevan, JJ, ed, *Introduction to Sociology: A Canadian focus*. Scarborough, Ontario: Prentice-Hall Canada.

Team IP4-LAPPERA. 2001. *Perempuan dalam Pusaran Demokrasi*. (Women in Democracy). Bantul: IP4 Lappera and The Asia Foundation.

Trisna, Sugiapto. 1999. *Effects of Buyers Knowledge on Perceived Importance of Purchasing Decision Factors*. Ph.D thesis, University of South Australia, Adelaide.

Tjiptoherijanto, Prijono. 1997. "Gender Issues and Human Resources Development in Public Sector: An Indonesian case." *Journal of Population*, 3 (3): 237-268.

Usui, Chikako; Rose, Suzanna and Kageyama, Reiko. 2003. "Women, Institutions and Leadership in Japan." *Asian Perpective*, 27 (3): 85-123.

UUD 45 dan Perubahannya. 2004. (Constitution 1945 and Its changing). Depok: Kawan Pustaka.

Wallace, C. 1994. "Women Get Down to Business." *Australian Financial Review,* Aug 17: 14.

Wieringa, Saskia. 1998. *Kuntilanak Wangi.* (Nice Smelt *Kuntilanak*). Jakarta: Kalyanamitra.

-------. 1999. *Penghancuran Gerakan Perempuan di Indonesia.* (Abolition of Women's Movement in Indonesia). Jakarta: Garba Budaya.

Wiryawan, Nizam J. 2001. *Attitude to the Preferred International Marketing Strategy: A study of the Indonesia's export-oriented processed food industry.* Ph.D. Thesis, University of South Australia, Adelaide.

Wong, A. 1980. "The Changing Roles and Status of Women in ASEAN." *Contemporary Southeast Asia,* 1 (2): 173-193.

Wren, Andrea. 2004. "Forget the Glass Ceiling, Beware of the Glass Cliff." *Guardian News Service/The Jakarta Post,* November 21: 5.

Zulhesni and Dahlena. 2003. "Perempuan di Kancah Politik Pemilu." (Women in Voting Politics Arena). *Singgalang,* October 29: 6.

Nizam Jim Wiryawan, Ph.D. Faculty of Economics and Master of Management Postgraduate Program, the University of Tarumanagara. Phone: 62-21 565 5806; Fax.: 62-21 565 5808; E-mail: jimwirya@cbn.net.id

Suparman Ibrahim Abdullah, MSc, Ph.D. Chief of Master of Management Postgraduate Program, the University of Tarumanagara and Faculty of Economics, the University of Tarumanagara.

Zahrida Zainal Wiryawan, MM. Faculty of Economics, the University of Tarumanagara.