

Job Satisfaction and Job Performance in the Media Industry: A Synergistic Application of Partial Least Squares Path Modelling

1. Introduction

In the media industry, employees learn a lot from their routines and if they experience dissatisfaction with their job, it will cause a great loss to the organization (Ileri, 2015). Research showed that job satisfaction impacts on several organizational factors such as change (Smith, 2009), turnover (Poon, 2004), strategy (Kaarst-Brown et al., 2004), teams (Recardo and Jolly, 1997), and ethics (Gebler, 2006). Consecutively, these factors have effect on the organization's performance (Erdogan and Enders, 2007). Research also indicated the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance (Moynihan and Pandey, 2007). Previous studies found the role of demographic variables on job performance such as income (Lemieux et al., 2009), age (Ng and Feldman, 2008), and gender (Semadar et al., 2006). The literature rarely addressed the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance, particularly in the context of media companies and the extent to which demographic variables could impact on this relationship remains a question. Only a few empirical studies exist to date and even in these, the effect of job satisfaction on employee performance was not the primary research focus. "Small number of studies have examined the effect of job satisfaction on job performance" (Yang and Hwang, 2014, p. 7).

Fontannaz and Oosthuizen (2007) indicated that organizational performance is a collective factor of each employee's performance. To be prosperous, organizations should ensure job satisfaction among their workers (Markovits et al., 2014). According to Yang and Hwang (2014, p. 7), "knowing the causal relationship can help managers direct limited resources toward enhancing the cause, be it job performance". Organizations with more satisfied workforce are more efficient (Robbins, 2003). Human assets in the organization are the most valuable resources, which enable the organization to boost its financial/ non-financial performance and without intellectual capital, the organizations will not be able to increase their performance (Nielsen and Montemari, 2012). However, keeping good employees has become difficult for organizations due to various employees' desires.

There is no unanimity on the causal relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. For instance, while some studies found a positive relationship between job satisfaction and job performance (for example, Miller et al., 2008, Gu and Chi Sen Siu, 2009, Trivellas et al., 2015, Wood et al., 2012, Barakat et al., 2015, Singh and Das, 2013), other studies found a reverse positive relationship (Janssen and Van Yperen, 2004, Robbins et al., 2013, Shaikh et al., 2012, Veloutsou and Panigyrakis, 2004). Brown and Peterson (1994) and Riketta (2008) reported a non-significant relationship between job performance and satisfaction. In addition, Yang and Hwang (2014) found that job satisfaction and job performance influences on each other positively and reciprocally. One of the classic studies in job satisfaction-job performance relationship is a meta-analysis conducted by Judge et al. (2001) within which they examined if there are any possible causal relationships between these constructs. According to Judge et al. (2001, p. 377), the job satisfaction-job performance relationship can be assessed in several different aspects such as "job satisfaction causes job performance, job performance causes job satisfaction, job satisfaction and job performance are reciprocally related, the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance is spurious, the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance is moderated by other variables, and there is no relationship between job satisfaction and job performance". Therefore, researches on the causal relationship from either directions have produced inconsistent results (Yang and Hwang, 2014) and empirical researches are required on each aspect of this relationship.

Studies are concerned with boosting job performance (Kontoghiorghes et al., 2005, Lien et al., 2002), its management and how it is affected by satisfaction (Jääskeläinen and Roitto, 2015). Cummings and Worley (2014) stated that job satisfaction is among the most common factor in human resource development practice leading to greater organizational efficiency. Further, Westover and Taylor (2010) claimed that the facets of job satisfaction vary by country and it changes over time. However, it is noteworthy to study job satisfaction cross-culturally and over time. Previous studies have not addressed the relationships between Spector's (1997) job satisfaction facets and performance in the context of Malaysian organizations as well as the role of demographic variables such as gender, age, marital status, income, and level of education as moderators to this relationship. This research tries to bridge this gap.

Furthermore, even though previous research considered employee job satisfaction as one latent variable (for example, Mabasa and Ndirande, 2015, Fu and Deshpande, 2014, Song et al., 2015, Schwepker Jr, 2001, Macintosh and Krush, 2014, Barakat et al., 2015, Gu and Chi Sen Siu, 2009, Wood et al., 2012, Singh and Das, 2013), it is argued that conceptualizing the latent construct of job satisfaction as one construct is not reflective of its operational definition and it leads to erroneous results. After reviewing the literature on job satisfaction models and its facets (Snipes et al., 2005, Spagnoli et al., 2012, Paulin et al., 2006, Gaertner, 1999, Alegre et al., 2016), Spector (1997) is found to be among the few who provided a rigorous definition on job satisfaction and its dimensions. Prior research selectively chose the job satisfaction facets. For instance, Fu et al. (2011) only

examined four facets of job satisfaction, namely pay, nature of the work, supervision, and co-worker. Applying confirmatory factor analysis, Spagnoli et al. (2012) only considered four facets of job satisfaction which are rewards, work itself, work climate, and management practice while skipping most of the important job satisfaction facets. In addition, Paulin et al. (2006) merely considered the facets of job satisfaction as co-worker support, supervisor support, fair treatment, and job characteristics. Gaertner (1999) examined six factors, namely payment, promotional chances, peer support, distributive justice, autonomy, and supervisory support. In addition, Alegre et al. (2016) considered facets of job satisfaction comprising teamwork, autonomy, supervisor support, work-family balance, and identification with the strategy. However, this study uses the nine facets of job satisfaction proposed by Spector (1997) as the proposed model (See Figure 1) provides a profound understanding towards the abstract concept of job satisfaction.

Figure 1: Research model (Insert here)

In Malaysia, there are several popular local magazines such as *Female*, *Her World*, *Glam*, *Eh!*, *Nyoub* and *Icon* and they offer vast advertising space for premium advertisers to reach their target audience, whether in English, Bahasa Malaysia or Chinese, and they employ hundreds of employees (Media Planning Guide Malaysia, 2011). Pinpointing the organizational variables that impact the job performance of the workforce in the media industry is important for both local companies and those international conglomerates that place their ads on local magazines because their brand images could be influenced positively/ negatively by the performance of the local magazines. Therefore, the purpose of this research is to study the relationship between job satisfaction and employee performance in the Malaysian media industry taking demographic information as the moderating factors. The structure of this study is as follows. The introduction and literature review are carried out to develop the hypotheses followed by the research framework. A rigorous methodology is presented to make sure that the sample size is appropriate, missing values are addressed properly, and there is no bias in the research. PLS-Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM) is applied to test the goodness of model fit, sign indeterminacy, measurement model, and structural model. Another reason for using PLS-SEM is because the goal of this study is to predict employees' job performance as the target construct (Hair et al., 2011). PLS path modelling is considered more as an exploratory approach than as a confirmatory one (Vinzi et al., 2010) and the main objective in PLS-SEM is prediction and theory testing (Hair et al., 2013). The findings of hypothesis testing for direct relationships are shown using bootstrapping results, the moderating relationships are examined through PLS-MGA, and IPMA is applied to show the important areas for the improvement of management activities. Finally, discussion, managerial implications, limitations and future research are addressed.

2. Literature Review and Hypothesis Development

Job satisfaction is related to one's state of mind or his/ her feelings concerning the nature of the job (Spector, 2008). Job satisfaction can also be referred as emotional work orientation towards one's current situation (Lincoln and Kalleberg, 1996). Cranny et al. (1992, p. 1) defined job satisfaction as "an affective (that is, emotional) reaction to a job that results from the incumbent's comparison of actual outcomes with those that are desired (expected, deserved, and so on)". Finally, Spector (1997, p. 2) defined job satisfaction as "how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs and it is the extent to which people like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction) their jobs". These definitions are similar in that job satisfaction is viewed as the worker's emotional orientation towards the job role.

Job satisfaction survey was developed by Spector (1985). Spector's (1985) model measures "pay as pay and remuneration, promotion as opportunities, supervision as immediate supervisor, fringe benefits as monetary and non-monetary fringe benefits, contingent rewards as appreciation, recognition, and rewards for good work, operating procedures as operating policies and procedures, co-workers as people you work with, nature of work as job tasks, and communication as communication within the organization". Researchers differentiate worldwide assessment of job satisfaction from satisfaction using a variety of work aspects such as pay, promotion, peers, supervisors, work groups, and the job itself. While global measures of job satisfaction identify the overall individual differences with respect to satisfaction at work, specific job aspect satisfaction alters in applicable situational aspects (Witt and Nye, 1992).

Some researchers averaged the sum of specific job satisfaction facets to find the overall measure of satisfaction (Wright and Bonett, 2002). For instance, David and Keltner (1993) utilized the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) developed by Schriesheim and Tsui (1980) to assess components of job satisfaction such as pay and promotion. The level of job satisfaction facets varies based on the context and the specific facet per se. For instance, Taber and Alliger (1995) found that overall job satisfaction correlation was significantly positive with supervision and slightly positive with pay.

Job satisfaction has also been linked to productivity (Halkos and Bousinakis, 2010) quality (de Menezes, 2012), and performance effort (Apostle et al., 1985, Muse and Stamper, 2007, Pettijohn et al., 2008). Leach (1998) conducted a study on salespersons' job satisfaction and performance. The research showed that

motivation control and emotion control inversely affect sales performance. Furthermore, when performance improved so did job satisfaction. Job satisfaction has also been correlated with motivation (Egan et al., 2004). Surveying 245 employees of IT departments in big organizations, the study revealed that job satisfaction positively affects the motivation to transfer learning (Egan et al., 2004). The study also went on to conclude that job satisfaction is associated with motivation to share knowledge.

Performance is a term that has several meanings and currently there is no universal consensus on the definition of this concept (Folan and Browne, 2005). Perhaps, the wide spectrum of meanings emanating from short or long term outcomes as well as its relevance to inputs, outputs, productivity, satisfaction, efficiency or service quality (Wholey, 1999, Stabler, 1996) made it difficult to define and measure it appropriately. According to Heskett and Kotter (1992), organizational performance is defined in terms of average returns on invested capital, annual growth in net income and appreciation in the stock price. Tangen (2004) supported a much broader measurement that includes various strategic as well as stakeholder satisfaction measures. Employee job performance refers to “behaviours that are relevant to organizational goals and that are under the control of individual employees” (Sony and Mekoth, 2016, p. 4).

Williams and Vorhies (2002) conducted a study on salesperson self-efficacy and its implications on motivation and job satisfaction. They investigated social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986) in order to determine if self-efficacy played a central role in the motivation and performance of salespersons. It was found that motivation, performance, and job satisfaction were positively linked. Prior study has recognized the individual impact of motivation on job performance (Van Knippenberg, 2009) as well. Finally, research in satisfaction is abundant in the marketing discipline and its latent nature makes it necessary to be investigated in organizational context.

Studying the significance of salary on the career attitudes of information system professionals, McLean et al. (1996) found that, initially, salary is important for information system professionals but as time passes, other factors garner higher importance than salary. Penny Wan et al. (2014) examined the relationship between salary and industry commitment amongst tourism and hospitality students. Drawing conclusions from a sample of 205 university students in China, they found that the hypothesis on the moderating effect of salary on industry commitment was rejected. Snipes et al. (2005) found no relationship between payment and service quality. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

H1) There is a positive relationship between payment and job performance of employees.

On one hand, Mosadeghrad et al. (2008) found a positive relationship between promotion and organizational commitment among hospital employees. Lemons and Jones (2001) also found a positive association between promotion and employee commitment from a sample of students working in the USA. On the other hand, Pan (2015) did not find promotion to be a significant factor of employees’ satisfaction in the tourism industry. A few researches have been conducted to empirically examine the relationship between promotion and job performance in the context of Malaysia and the media industry in particular. Understanding how promotion is related to job performance will broaden our knowledge on employees’ job satisfaction in the media industry. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

H2) There is a positive relationship between promotion and job performance of employees.

Babin and Boles (1996) indicated that supervisor’s involvement can boost employees’ job satisfaction. The findings of the study conducted by Jin et al. (2016) revealed that when the perceived supervisor support is high, employees perceived higher job satisfaction. Pan (2015) found supervision as a significant factor of job satisfaction amongst employees. Considering the role of supervision on job performance, a few attempts were made in the context of the media industry and this concept has not been studied in the context of Malaysia either. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

H3) There is a positive relationship between supervision and job performance of employees.

Snipes et al. (2005) found a positive relationship between fringe benefits and service quality. Mosadeghrad et al. (2008) found a positive relationship between fringe benefits and organizational commitment among hospital employees. Chances are that the impacts of fringe benefits on job performance may differ across industries and little is known with regards to the media industry. Accordingly, it is hypothesized that:

H4) There is a positive relationship between fringe benefits and job performance of employees.

Wayne et al. (2002) indicated that rewards have impact on leader-member exchange and the perceptions of organizational support. Performance–contingent reward behaviour was found to have an effect on

subordinate performance positively (Bycio et al., 1995). Cherrington et al. (1971) proposed the relationships of non-contingent and contingent rewards on the relationship between satisfaction and task performance. Gupta (1980) argued that a positive association exists between employee satisfaction and contingent intrinsic rewards, pay and performance. Deci et al. (1999) also proposed the effect of non-contingent rewards, controls and contingent rewards on intrinsic motivation. Snipes et al. (2005) found no relationship between contingent rewards and service quality. Carbonell and Rodríguez-Escudero (2016) also found no relationship between process-based rewards and new product performance.

H5) There is a positive relationship between contingent rewards and job performance of employees.

Operating procedures refer to workloads such as paperwork and other related organizational work (Van Saane et al., 2003). Results of the study by Pan (2015) showed that work environment is one of the main factors of job satisfaction amongst Taiwanese employees. When standard operating procedures are established, models of behaviour are fixed, and planning systems surfaced, it can be anticipated that the one-on-one mentorship relationship will contribute less to the expatriate's job satisfaction (Downes et al., 2002). The findings of Snipes et al. (2005) indicated that operations and service quality are not related. Lower satisfaction levels with operating procedures indicate the necessity for appraising the effectiveness of current procedures and policies (Vyskocil-Czajkowski and Gilmore, 1992).

H6) There is a positive relationship between operating conditions and job performance of employees.

Babin and Boles (1996) indicated that co-workers' involvement can reduce stress and increase job satisfaction. Alegre et al. (2016) found that high level of job satisfaction is contingent upon a good relationship between colleagues. The results of the study conducted by Snipes et al. (2005) indicated that co-worker and service quality are not related. This study also posited that co-worker is another determinant of job satisfaction which would have a positive effect on job performance. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

H7) There is a positive relationship between co-workers and job performance of employees.

Snipes et al. (2005) found a positive relationship between nature of the work and service quality. Scott-Ladd et al. (2006) also found that task variety have impacts on participation in decision making. Furthermore, the results of the study conducted by Tims et al. (2015) revealed that employees' work engagement is positively associated with in-role performance. Accordingly, it is hypothesized that:

H8) There is a positive relationship between nature of the work and job performance of employees.

Communication consists of organizing (as a continuous attempt of coordinating and administrating of activity and knowledge) and organizations (as social entities that are talked into being) (Cooren et al., 2011, p. 1149). The omnipresence of the communication word refers to its elusiveness and to the complexity in recognizing it from such relevant terms as information and channel connection (Putnam et al., 1999). Allen (1992) found that the employee-top management communication and top management's communication affect perceived organizational support. Chen et al. (2006) indicated the cross-cultural effect of organizational communication on performance, job stress and commitment. Pan (2015) found interpersonal relationship to be a significant factor of job satisfaction amongst employees. According to van Vuuren et al. (2007), the most significant features of communication between employees and managers are the reaction from the manager, accompanied by the notion of the manager listening to the employee.

H9) There is a positive relationship between communication and job performance of employees.

How job satisfaction independently affects employees' job performance has been a longstanding concern in several studies (Halbesleben and Bowler, 2007, Grant, 2008). Job performance in any line of work is definitely affected by several aspects. Gender (Beck et al., 2013), age (Ng and Feldman, 2008), and income (Ittner et al., 2007), were known to influence job habits. Kim et al. (2011) found that consumers' general innovativeness is influenced by gender. Trivellas et al. (2015) found age to positively and gender to negatively moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. Lucht (2016) also indicated that job satisfaction of newspaper employees differ across genders. Sampling 251 employees of advertising agencies in Greece, the results of the study conducted by Dekoulou and Trivellas (2015) showed that education level moderates the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. Research on the role of demographic variables in the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance in media industry still lacks and, to the best of our knowledge, this study is amongst the first studies that examine various demographic factors that may

strengthen or weaken the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. Accordingly, it is hypothesized that:

H10) The extent of the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance varies across different demographic variables i.e., **H10a:** age, **H10b:** gender, **H10c:** marital status, **H10d:** academic degree, and **H10e:** level of income among employees in the media industry in Malaysia.

3. Methodology

The target population consists of all employees who work in the media industry in Malaysia. A list of employees was acquired from the official database of the media industry (Media Planning Guide Malaysia, 2011). This specific list is this study's sampling frame. Cooper et al. (2006) stated that, "a sample frame is the listing of all the population elements from which the sample will be drawn upon". A number of 245 paper-and-pencil questionnaires were issued amongst Malaysian media companies. 232 questionnaires were returned and a total of 220 cases were accepted for data analysis. Job satisfaction is measured with the instrument developed by Spector (1997) and job performance is measured with the instrument developed by Tsui, Pearce, Porter, And Tripoli (1997) (See Appendix A).

Table 1: Sample characteristics ($N=220$) (Insert here)

3.1 Data screening and assessment of sample size adequacy

To treat missing data in the columns, expectation maximization algorithm is used, implemented through SPSS Statistics software. This algorithm estimates that the data is missing randomly and not in a systematic way. To show that the data is missing randomly, the Little's MCAR test (Little, 1988) is used. To test the null hypothesis, the Little's MCAR test's results: Chi-Square = 122.548, DF = 360, Sig. = 1.000 show that we can reject the null hypothesis and that our data is missing randomly. Finally, the expectation maximization algorithm is applied for the missing values accordingly.

In addition, according to Hair et al. (2013), the sample size criterion should be assessed through power analysis for multiple regression models of each model. This study used a-priori sample size calculator for structural equation modelling (SEM) (Soper, 2015). This software requires input data such as the anticipated effect size, statistical power levels, the number of observed variables (all the measurement items/indicators) and latent variables (both endogenous and exogenous constructs) in the model, and the desired probability to detect the minimum sample size for SEM technique (Cohen, 2013, Westland, 2010). Inputting the required information, which are 95% desired statistical power level, 10 constructs of this study, 46 indicators, 0.05 probability level, as well as anticipated high effect size of 0.35, medium-high effect size of 0.25, medium effect size of 0.15, and medium-low effect size of 0.12 (Dattalo, 2007), the required number of sample size is determined to be 88, 88, 137, 216 for all effect sizes, respectively. Since the sample size of this study is 220, this requirement is met.

3.2 Common method variance (CMV)

When collecting primary data, there is a need for testing the CMV to make sure that no systematic bias is influencing the collected data (Podsakoff et al., 2003). CMV is a common bias in self-administered survey method. In this research, Harman's one-factor test (Harman, 1976) is used to test the CMV (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986). In this approach, all principal constructs are entered into one principal component factor analysis. Using SPSS Software, the extraction method of principal component of one fixed factor with none rotation method is applied. Results show that only one factor emerges and it explains less than 50% of the variance (46.403%). In addition, according to Bagozzi's method (Bagozzi et al., 1991), CMV occurs when the highest correlation between constructs is more than 0.9. Shown in Table 3, the highest correlation between constructs is 0.830 (correlation between promotion and fringe benefits). Therefore, it appears that there is no common method bias in the collected data.

3.3 Partial least square (PLS) path modelling approach

From the standpoint of structural equation modelling, partial least squares path modelling (PLS-PM) is a component-based approach (Esposito Vinzi et al., 2008). PLS is suitable for confirmatory and exploratory research (Gefen et al., 2000, Westland, 2007). "The PLS algorithm allows each indicator to vary in how much it contributes to the composite score of the latent variable" (Chin et al., 2003, p. 25). PLS algorithm is useful when the purpose of the study is to examine the extent to which exogenous latent variables predict endogenous latent variables (Hair, 2011), however a variance based SEM is preferable. Since, this study attempts to examine the job satisfaction facets that predict employees' job performance, PLS-SEM is applied. Through new advancements in PLS techniques, the approach has all abilities of SEM and PLS is called a fully-fledged SEM approach (Henseler et al., 2016). Furthermore, PLS models can be assessed through tests of model fit and

approximate measures of model fit (Dijkstra and Henseler, 2015a) and a new validity measure of heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlations (HTMT) (Henseler et al., 2015) as a measure of discriminant validity and Dijkstra-Henseler's rho (ρ_A) as the most important reliability measure of PLS (Dijkstra and Henseler, 2015b) is introduced.

This study introduces a synergistic PLS application within which at the first stage, ADANCO 1.1 software (Henseler and Dijkstra, 2015) is applied to test the goodness of model fit, sign indeterminacy, and Dijkstra-Henseler's rho (as a new and most important test of reliability). Addressing the sign indeterminacy of latent constructs, this study is about the facets of job satisfaction and there are reverse coded items (see Appendix A) for each facet of job satisfaction. For instance, taking promotion construct as an example and considering its reverse coded item i.e., "There is really too little chance for promotion in my job", the method cannot know whether the extracted factor should correlate positively with the first or with the second indicator. Determined by the sign of the loadings, the meaning of the factor would be either "job satisfaction" or "job non-satisfaction." To prevent this ambiguity, it has become practice in SEM to identify one particular indicator per construct with which the construct scores are forced to correlate positively (Henseler et al., 2016). Since this indicator dictates the orientation of the construct, it is called the "dominant indicator" (Henseler et al., 2016). Therefore, in this study, we avoid sign indeterminacy by choosing a dominant indicator for each facet of job satisfaction.

At the second stage, SmartPLS 3.2.3 software (Ringle et al., 2014) is applied to assess both measurement model and structural model. Further, this study followed the procedures proposed by Hair et al. (2013) in the assessment of PLS-SEM results. SmartPLS has various techniques such as importance-performance map analysis to examine the importance and performance of job satisfaction facets on job performance, as well as PLS-MGA to examine the heterogeneity of the collected data, which enables the hypothesis testing on moderating variables. Therefore, this study suggests that researchers should apply such combinative PLS method as a full-fledged approach that has all the characteristics of SEM which makes it a formidable statistical tool. Nevertheless, the results of these software complements each other in such a way that its efficiency and robustness equates or even surpass covariance-based SEM.

4. Results

4.1 Goodness of model fit

The goodness of fit assessment should be done at the beginning of model assessment, before examining the measurement and structural model (Henseler et al., 2016). Therefore, researchers need to report the model fit by means of inference statistics (tests of model fit) or use of fit indices (assessment of approximate model fit) (Dijkstra and Henseler, 2015a, Henseler et al., 2016). To assess the goodness of model fit, ADANCO software provides standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) as the only appropriate measure of model fit (Hu and Bentler, 1998), as well as other model fit criteria relying on the bootstrap to identify the likelihood of obtaining a discrepancy between the empirical and model-implied correlation matrix (Dijkstra and Henseler, 2015a, Henseler et al., 2016) such as geodesic discrepancy (d_G) and unweighted least squares discrepancy (d_{ULS}) (Dijkstra and Henseler, 2015a). According to Hair et al. (2014), a value of less than 0.1 (Hair et al., 2014) or 0.08, a more conservative view (Hu and Bentler, 1998), is a good fit for SRMR. Table 2 shows the tests of model fit as well as SRMR fit index. According to Henseler et al. (2016), the criteria of overall model are: $SRMR < 95\%$ of bootstrap quantile (HI95 of SRMR), $d_{ULS} < 95\%$ of bootstrap quantile (HI95 of d_{ULS}), and $d_G < 95\%$ of bootstrap quantile (HI95 of d_G). Shown in Table 2, these criteria are met; therefore, the model has a good fit.

Table 2: Goodness of model fit (Insert here)

4.2 Construct validity of constructs

As part of measurement evaluation, this study considers composite reliability, average variance extracted (AVE=convergent validity), outer loadings, Cronbach's alpha, cross loading and discriminant validity. To test the reliability of measurement model, Dijkstra-Henseler's rho (ρ_A) (an estimate of the reliability of construct scores), composite reliability and Cronbach's Alpha values are examined to ensure the reliability of the measurement model. All values of factor loadings, ρ_A , and Cronbach's Alpha are shown in Table 3, which are acceptable (more than 0.7) (Henseler et al., 2016), justifying the reliability of constructs. Further, the AVE values for all exogenous constructs and the endogenous construct denote the convergent validity as the values are well above the minimum required level of 0.50 (See Table 3).

Table 3: Construct reliability and validity (Insert here)

Furthermore, to assess the discriminant validity between constructs, Fornell and Larcker (1981) and cross-loading criterion were used. Referring to Table 4, the diagonals or numbers in bold are the AVE, while the

other values represent the squared correlations, and thus off-diagonal values in the table are the correlations between the latent variables. In addition, as shown in Appendix B, comparing the loadings across the columns, an indicator's loadings on its own variable are in all cases higher than all of its cross loadings with other variables.

In addition, Henseler et al. (2015) indicated that Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) ratio of correlations is required for examining discriminant validity in PLS approach. They argued that both Fornell-Larcker criterion and cross loadings are not enough for evaluating discriminant validity and researchers need to report HTMT ratio of correlation. The threshold value for HTMT is below 0.9 (Teo et al., 2008). Table 5 shows that all HTMT values are below the required value of 0.9. Through the results of bootstrapping for HTMT, the confidence intervals showed that the upper confidence intervals are below 1. The HTMT inference means that all HTMT values are significantly different from 1. Therefore, the discriminant validity of all constructs is met.

Table 4: Discriminant validity – Fornell-Larcker criterion (Insert here)

Table 5: Discriminant validity – Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (Insert here)

4.2 Structural model

The substantial R^2 value of 0.837 (See Figure 2) indicates that the job satisfaction facets predict 84% of the changes in employees' job performance. Further, blindfolding algorithm provides the assessment of predictive accuracy of a model. The high Q^2 value of 0.480 indicates that all exogenous constructs of this study have predictive relevancy to job performance endogenous construct.

Figure 2: PLS results (Insert here)

Bootstrapping is an analytical technique showing the significance level of the paths between each construct. To test the first hypothesis, results provided by bootstrapping procedure in SmartPLS are achieved through 5000 resampling. Table 6 also shows the detailed results of bootstrapping for H1. All hypotheses except H1d, H1e, and H1i are supported. Therefore, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, and communication are not significant to employees' job performance in media industry. In addition to the assessment of R^2 value as the coefficient of determination and Q^2 as predictive relevancy, f^2 effect size as changes in R^2 for each predictor construct and q^2 effect size as the relative impact of predictive relevance on an endogenous construct show that co-worker and payment generated the highest f^2 and q^2 effect sizes.

Table 6: Structural relationships and hypothesis testing (Insert here)

4.3 Partial least square-multiple group analysis (PLS-MGA)

According to Hair et al. (2013, p. 244), "heterogeneity exists when two or more groups of respondents exhibit significant differences in their model relationships". They also indicated that comparing several groups of respondents is beneficial from a theoretical and practical perspective and the failure to report heterogeneity can be a threat to PLS-SEM results as it leads to erroneous conclusions (Becker et al., 2013, Hair et al., 2012). Taking demographic information as the categorical moderating variables, the MGA shows how heterogeneity in data set can shed light on our understanding.

This study applies PLS-MGA using percentile bootstrapping method to examine the second hypothesis. It should be noted that some demographic sub-groups of age, income, and level of education had to be discarded from PLS-MGA due to singular matrix error. This error happens when there is a huge gap between the number of cases under each group (Sarstedt et al., 2011). For instance, under age group, there are only 4 cases for age group between 51 and 55, 7 cases for age group between 20 and 25, and 15 cases for age group between 40 and 46 (See Table 1). These sub-groups cause singular matrix error due to their small sample size. Furthermore, there is a huge gap between the sample sizes of each ethnic group; however, this demographic variable is excluded from the MGA analysis. Therefore, only those sub-groups without singular matrix error are considered for PLS-MGA. Table 8a and Table 8b show the significant differences between groups.

In PLS-MGA, based on the guidelines mentioned by Henseler et al. (2009), percentages smaller than 0.05 and higher than 0.95 indicate a significant difference of a specific PLS path coefficient between groups. Therefore, a result is significant at 5% error level if the P-value is smaller than 0.05 or higher than 0.95. According to Henseler et al. (2009), the percentile below 0.05 indicates that the bootstrapping results of group 1 is higher than group 2. For instance, according to Table 7a, the path coefficients of Payment → Job Performance and Supervision → Job performance are different between groups in such a way that this relationship is significantly higher in the age group between 26 and 30. In addition, percentiles higher than 0.95 indicate that the bootstrapping results of group 2 are higher than group 1. For example, the path coefficient of Nature of the work → Job Performance is different between gender groups in such a way that this relationship is significantly higher for female employees. However, according to Table 7a, there are significant differences between age

groups and gender groups; therefore, H2a and H2b are supported. Furthermore, as shown in Table 7b, there are no significant differences between single vs. married as well as levels of income, rejecting H2c and H2e. Nevertheless, results show that there is a significant difference between diploma and bachelor holders, supporting H2d.

Table 7a: PLS-MGA results for age groups and gender (Examining H10) (Insert here)

Table 7b: PLS-MGA results for marital status, academic degree, and income (Examining H10) (Insert here)

4.4 Importance-Performance Map Analysis (IPMA)

IPMA analysis considers the performance of each construct on a target construct. This analysis extends on the basic results of PLS-SEM applying the total effects of the structural model (importance) and the average of latent variable scores (performance) (Völckner et al., 2010). Results of IPMA can help decision makers to prioritize their actions. The target construct of this study is employees' job performance. Figure 3 schematically shows the IPMA results of job performance target variable within which co-workers and operating conditions have the highest importance (0.31 and 0.18, respectively), followed by payment and promotion with total effects of 0.119 and 0.117. In addition, payment and contingent rewards has the highest performance (84.923 and 83.2 respectively), followed by promotion and nature of the work with 81.619 and 81.297, accordingly.

Figure 3: IPMA results (Insert here)

5. Discussion and conclusion

Job satisfaction is a complex construct and several types of relationships form job satisfaction (Alegre et al., 2016). The findings of this research indicate that all facets of job satisfaction are positively related to job performance except fringe benefits, contingent rewards, and communication. Considering the supported hypotheses, co-workers generated the highest path coefficient, followed by operating conditions, payment, and promotion. Job satisfaction facets significantly predict employees' job performance with a substantial R-square value of 84%. Amongst the proposed moderating effects, the hypotheses on marital status and income are rejected.

This study is in line with previous researches that found positive relationship between job satisfaction and job performance (Judge et al., 2001, Miller et al., 2008, Gu and Chi Sen Siu, 2009, Trivellas et al., 2015, Wood et al., 2012, Barakat et al., 2015, Singh and Das, 2013). This research not only shed light on those earlier established relationships in a new industry and context, but also evaluated how this relationship is affected by demographic variables. Considering the positive relationship between job satisfaction and job performance, the results of this study were partially in line with previous studies (Judge et al., 2007, Miller et al., 2008). The results were in contrast with the findings of the study conducted by Coşkun and Bayyurt's (2008) within which no significant relationship between job satisfaction and job performance was found.

Specifically, in contrast with the findings of Pan (2015), the results show that promotion is a significant factor of job satisfaction which is conducive to job performance. Similar with the findings of Carbonell and Rodríguez-Escudero (2016), the results of this study do not show any positive relationship between contingent rewards and job performance. Consistent with Pan (2015) and Jin et al. (2016), this study finds supervision to be a significant facet of job satisfaction that is conducive to job performance. Even though Snipes et al. (2005) and Mosadeghrad et al. (2008) found fringe benefits as a significant factor of job satisfaction, the findings of this study imply that fringe benefits are not associated with job performance. In line with Pan (2015), this study shows that operating conditions is one of main facets of job satisfaction in media industry. Co-worker is found to be a significant facet of job satisfaction in the media industry, supporting previous researches (Babin and Boles, 1996, Alegre et al., 2016). In line with Snipes et al. (2005), nature of the work is also found to be a significant facet of job satisfaction which is conducive to job performance, supporting Tims et al. (2015). Finally, inconsistent with previous research (Chen et al., 2006), the findings do not support the role of communication on job performance in the media industry.

Furthermore, this study finds that gender groups moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance, which is in line with prior research on the effect of gender on job performance (Beck et al., 2013). The results indicate that age groups also moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance, which is in line with previous research on the relationship between age and job performance (Ng and Feldman, 2008, Trivellas et al., 2015). Even though prior research indicated positive relationship between salary and job performance (Lemieux et al., 2009), interestingly, the moderating effect of income is not supported in this research, which is in line with the findings of Trivellas et al. (2015). Marital status also does not show a moderating effect on the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. In line with the findings of Dekoulou and Trivellas (2015), education level is found to be moderating the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance that is contrary to the findings of Trivellas et al. (2015) as well as the study

conducted by Wright, Cropanzano, and Bonett (2007) within which they found no relationship between education level and facets of job satisfaction.

Finally, since Malaysia is a multicultural country and the demographic information of the study shows that the respondents are from the Chinese, Malay, and Indian ethnic groups, the findings can be generalized for South East Asian countries with identical cultural background, namely Indonesia, Singapore, Philippines, Thailand, and Borneo.

6. Managerial implications

Job satisfaction has been the main variable of interest in various studies on journalists and it can impact on journalists' attitudes and behaviours in producing news and information (Ileri, 2015) where big companies place their advertisements about their portfolio of brands such as in magazines, newspapers, books, and so forth. This signals the importance of job satisfaction-job performance relationship in the media industry, because it indirectly influences other industries as well. Findings of this research have significant implications to managers in the media industry in particular and other related industries in general. Managers should note that the significance of job satisfaction-job performance relationship differs across cultures (Ng et al., 2009). Top management can identify which facets of the work environment should be modified to generate higher performance results. The findings are useful to human resource development researchers and practitioners by providing empirical evidence that the increase in job satisfaction meets the needs and improves the performance of employees and also increases human resource development professionals' contributions to the organization.

Considering the substantial R-square value of 84%, managers are able to infer that increases in significant facets of job satisfaction can be conducive to the parallel increases in job performance. The significance of the findings is substantial and contributory to the body of knowledge through the provision of a greater understanding of the factors that influence job performance. With this awareness, leaders will be better prepared to boost their employees' job performance, thereby achieving a sustained competitive advantage and ensuring the continued survival of the firm. The findings are important for the comprehension of both a broader social meaning and to organizational leaders specifically wishing to gain better familiarity with how an employee's job satisfaction can influence job performance.

In terms of resource allocation, priority should be given to factors that bring forth job performance. Creating good working environment in media companies such as fair payment and promotion system, competent supervision, operating conditions with less paper work, likeable work, and good co-workers will boost performance. Among these factors, co-workers and operating conditions have the highest path coefficients. This signals the importance of having rules and procedures that make the job simpler as well as less paperwork. Chances are that formal rules and regulations prompt lower employees' job satisfaction (Abbas et al., 2014). However, managers in the media industry should notice the importance of operating conditions and they should provide a work environment with lower bureaucracy and formalities. Furthermore, selecting the right person for the right position is an important decision (Lamond et al., 2009), thus, managers in media companies should hire those employees which are in harmony with the current employees to provide an enjoyable and friendly working environment with co-workers.

Another significant implication of this study for managers in the media industry is the non-significant relationships of fringe benefits and contingent rewards on job performance. Interestingly, the results of the study by Ileri (2015) also implied that even though journalists receive lower income, they have high level of job satisfaction. Therefore, managers should be wary of resource allocations in such a way that increasing the amount of fringe benefits and contingent rewards would not necessarily result in higher job performance as they may have negative results as well. Nevertheless, fringe benefits and contingent rewards are main factors in other industries; it is likely that they are not relevant to job satisfaction-job performance relationship in the media industry. Perhaps, employees in the media industry value more intrinsic factors (such as job autonomy and good operating conditions) than extrinsic factors.

The findings of PLS-MGA implied that there exist significant differences across age, gender, and level of education subgroups. The path coefficients of Payment → Job Performance and Supervision → Job Performance are stronger for employees with age group between 26 and 30 years old. It can be inferred that this age group is more concerned about the payment and supervision compared with other age groups and their performance is significantly related to their level of salary and more supportive supervision. Interestingly, the path coefficient of Contingent Rewards → Job Performance is stronger for employees between 31 and 45 years old. This implies that when employees gradually grow older, their performance is contingent upon more rewards and recognitions from their companies. The path coefficient of Communication → Job Performance is stronger for those employees with age group between 26 and 30 years old and this signals that the performance of younger employees is contingent upon good communication within their company. Surprisingly, the path coefficient of Nature of the Work → Job Performance is stronger for female employees in such a way that they value enjoyable work more than the males do. Finally, the path coefficient of Operating Conditions → Job

Performance is stronger for diploma holders; therefore, their performance is dependent on less bureaucracy and rules and regulations.

IPMA addresses the important areas for the improvement of management activities. The IPMA results enable the pinpointing of determinants with relatively high importance and relatively low importance. For instance, our findings show that co-workers and operating conditions are of primary importance for establishing job performance. Consequently, managerial activities to improve job performance should focus on the co-workers and operating conditions constructs. In other words, managers should note that with one point increase in the performance of co-workers and operating conditions, the performance of job performance is expected to increase by the value of the total effect (0.31 and 0.18 respectively).

7. Limitation and future research

Several limitations might be present in this study, though every effort was made to ensure the integrity of the research. First, cultural discrepancy might cause some findings that are invalid. This research directly uses some generally practiced Western theoretical structures, models and constructs, initially developed mainly by US scholars within the US contexts that might not fit in the Malaysian context. Nevertheless, the findings still cannot completely perceive the cultural nuances of the Malaysian workforce and may not fully catch the essence of the interrelationships between the two constructs in the native Malaysian media environment. Third, there are numerous aspects that influence employees' job performance in an organization. While this research thoroughly investigated only two variables, it is understood that the variables analysed are not comprehensive. Several other components that could affect job performance are not included in this research.

Examining the job satisfaction-job performance causal relationship, Judge et al. (2001) proposed the moderators of this relationship as personality, autonomy, norms, moral obligation, cognitive accessibility, aggression, level of analysis and the mediators of this relationship as behavioural intentions, low performance as withdrawal, and positive mood. Future studies can address this relationship through the proposed moderation/mediation effects. Further, it will be practical to ground-test this study's proposed model with other samples. Multiple samples from diverse cultures or countries would provide very useful insights on how other cultures perceive these associations. Finally, a mixed methodology approach (both qualitative and quantitative techniques) could potentially assist investigators in developing more defined models and test the developed models cross-culturally.

Appendix A: Measurement Items (Insert Here)

Appendix B: Cross Loadings (Insert Here)

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Figure 1: Research model

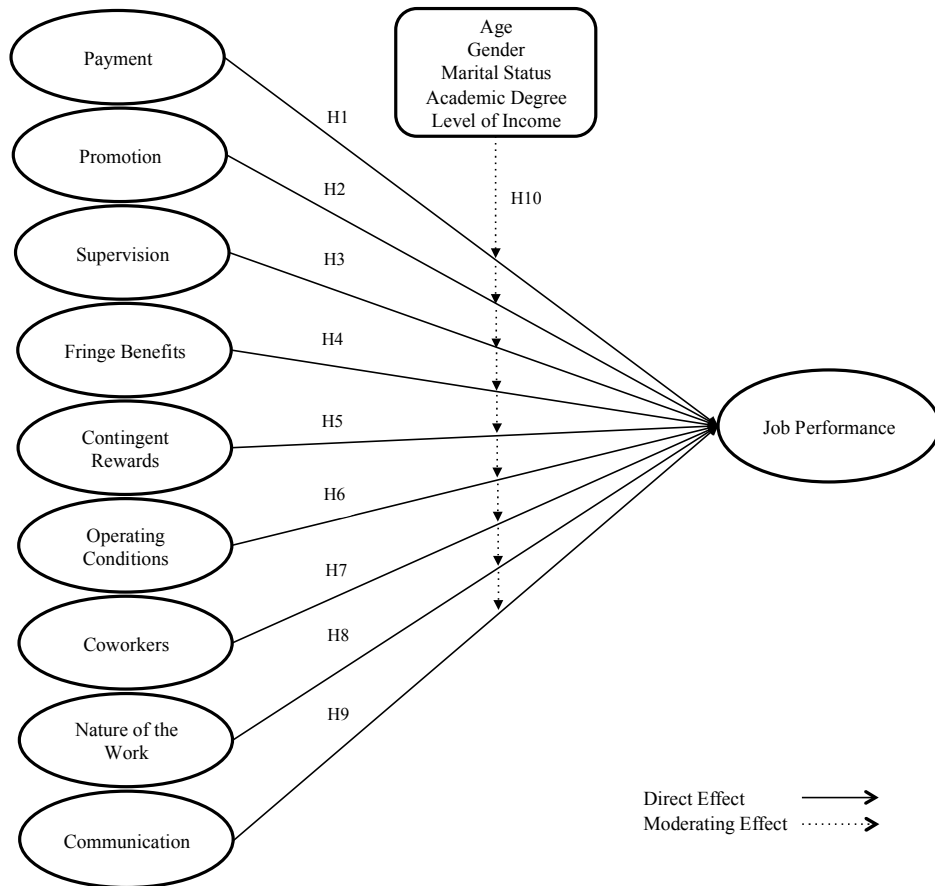


Figure 2: PLS Results

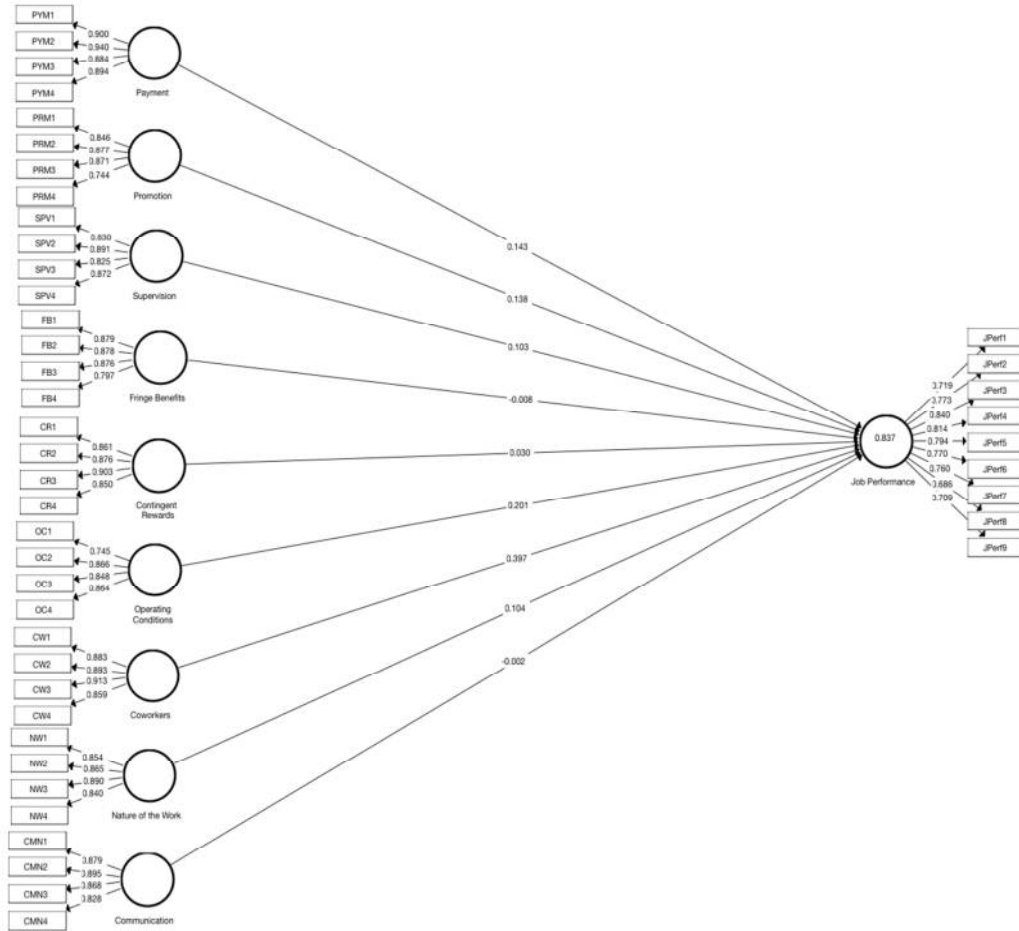


Figure 3: IPMA results

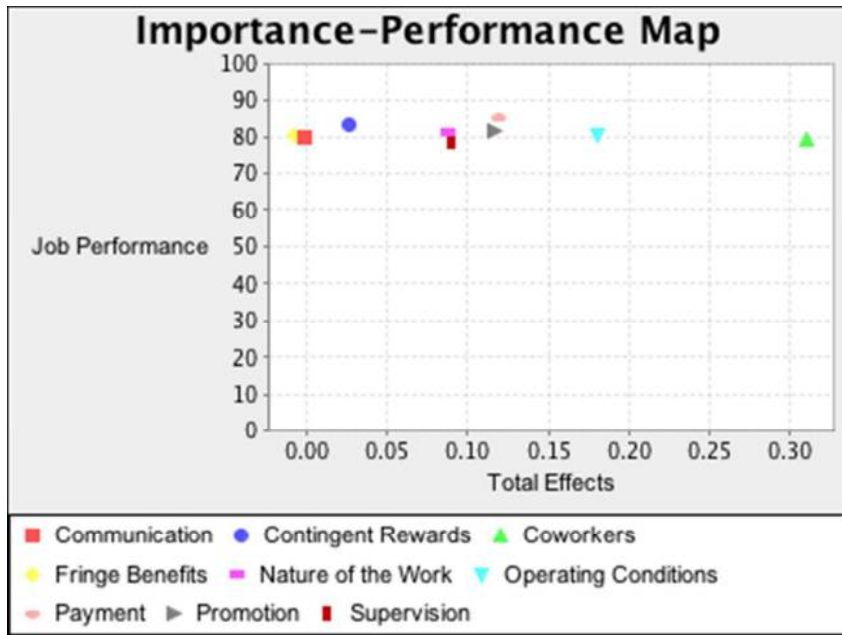


Table 1: Sample characteristic (N=220)

	Characteristics	Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	105	47.7
	Female	115	52.3
Age	20-25	7	3.2
	26-30	46	20.9
	31-35	37	33.2
	36-40	45	20.5
	41-45	30	13.6
	46-50	15	6.8
	51-55	4	1.8
Ethnicity	Malay	148	67.3
	Chinese	43	19.5
	Indian	20	9.1
	Others	9	4.1
Income Level	Less than RM 2000	9	4.1
	RM 2001-3000	72	32.7
	RM 3001-4000	83	37.7
	RM 4001-5000	47	21.4
	More than 5001	9	4.1
Marital Status	Single	145	65.9
	Married	75	34.1
Level of Education	Secondary School & Below	25	11.4
	Diploma	81	36.8
	Bachelor	93	42.3
	Master	21	9.5

Table 2: Goodness of model fit

Fit Criteria	Value	HI95
SRMR	0.047	0.059
d_{ULS}	1.935	3.109
d_G	1.996	3.154

Notes: HI95= 95% of bootstrap quantile.

Model assessment criteria: SRMR < 95% of bootstrap quantile (HI95 of SRMR), d_{ULS} < 95% of bootstrap quantile (HI95 of d_{ULS}), and d_G < 95% of bootstrap quantile (HI95 of d_G).

Table 3: Construct reliability and validity

Construct	Item	Item loading	AVE ^a	Composite ^b Reliability	Cronbach's Alpha	Dijkstra-Henseler's rho (ρ_A)
Communication	CMN1	0.879	0.753	0.924	0.891	0.910
	CMN2	0.895				
	CMN3	0.868				
	CMN4	0.828				
Contingent Rewards	CR1	0.861	0.762	0.928	0.896	0.888
	CR2	0.876				
	CR3	0.903				
	CR4	0.850				
Co-workers	CW1	0.883	0.787	0.937	0.910	0.857
	CW2	0.893				
	CW3	0.913				
	CW4	0.859				
Fringe Benefits	FB1	0.879	0.736	0.918	0.880	0.900
	FB2	0.878				
	FB3	0.876				
	FB4	0.797				
Nature of the Work	NW1	0.854	0.744	0.921	0.885	0.846
	NW2	0.865				
	NW3	0.890				
	NW4	0.840				
Operating Conditions	OC1	0.745	0.693	0.900	0.851	0.885
	OC2	0.866				
	OC3	0.848				
	OC4	0.864				
Payment	PYM1	0.900	0.818	0.947	0.926	0.875
	PYM2	0.940				
	PYM3	0.884				

	PYM4	0.894					
Promotion	PRM1	0.846	0.699	0.902	0.855	0.861	
	PRM2	0.877					
	PRM3	0.871					
	PRM4	0.744					
Supervision	SPV1	0.830	0.731	0.915	0.877	0.881	
	SPV2	0.891					
	SPV3	0.825					
	SPV4	0.872					
Job Performance	JPerf1	0.719	0.584	0.926	0.910	0.930	
	JPerf2	0.773					
	JPerf3	0.840					
	JPerf4	0.814					
	JPerf5	0.794					
	JPerf6	0.770					
	JPerf7	0.760					
	JPerf8	0.686					
	JPerf9	0.709					

a. Average variance extracted (AVE) = (summation of the square of the factor loadings)/[(summation of the square of the factor loadings) + (summation of the error variances)]

b. Composite reliability (CR) = (square of the summation of the factor loadings)/[(square of the summation of the factor loadings) + (square of the summation of the error variances)]

Table 4: Discriminant validity – Fornell-Larcker criterion

Construct	CMN	CR	CW	FB	JP	NW	OC	PYM	PRM	SPV
Communication	0.868^a									
Contingent Rewards	0.692	0.873								
Co-workers	0.779	0.643	0.887							
Fringe Benefits	0.601	0.632	0.633	0.858						
Job Performance	0.771	0.738	0.814	0.720	0.764					
Nature of Work	0.592	0.630	0.571	0.701	0.593	0.863				
Operating Conditions	0.795	0.778	0.634	0.620	0.670	0.585	0.832			
Payment	0.471	0.499	0.422	0.515	0.493	0.520	0.464	0.905		
Promotion	0.682	0.711	0.680	0.830	0.700	0.674	0.751	0.529	0.836	
Supervision	0.623	0.657	0.614	0.716	0.644	0.633	0.676	0.505	0.799	0.855

a. The off-diagonal values in the above matrix are the correlations between the latent constructs and diagonal are square values of AVEs.

Note: CMN (Communication), CR (Contingent Rewards), CW (Co-workers), FB (Fringe Benefits), JP (Job Performance), NW (Nature of the Work), OC (Operating Conditions), PYM (Payment), PRM (Promotion), SPV (Supervision).

Table 5: Discriminant validity – Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio

Construct	CMN	CR	CW	FB	JP	NW	OC	PYM	PRM
Contingent Rewards	0.774 ^a								
Coworkers	0.863	0.710							
Fringe Benefits	0.677	0.710	0.706						
Job Performance	0.850	0.815	0.887	0.804					
Nature of the Work	0.665	0.705	0.634	0.793	0.769				
Operating Conditions	0.821	0.885	0.717	0.711	0.868	0.670			
Payment	0.514	0.546	0.455	0.565	0.646	0.572	0.517		
Promotion	0.778	0.799	0.765	0.861	0.799	0.775	0.866	0.591	
Supervision	0.704	0.740	0.688	0.815	0.831	0.717	0.779	0.56	0.824

a. The criterion for HTMT is below or 0.90 (Gold and Arvind Malhotra, 2001; Teo *et al.*, 2008).

Note: CMN (Communication), CR (Contingent Rewards), CW (Co-workers), FB (Fringe Benefits), JP (Job Performance), NW (Nature of the Work), OC (Operating Conditions), PYM (Payment), PRM (Promotion), SPV (Supervision).

Table 6: Structural relationships and hypothesis testing

Hypothesis	Path	Beta	Standard Error	T-Statistics	Decision
H1	Payment → Job Performance	0.143	0.04	3.548***	Supported
H2	Promotion → Job Performance	0.138	0.067	2.043**	Supported
H3	Supervision → Job Performance	0.103	0.056	1.844*	Supported
H4	Fringe Benefits → Job Performance	-0.008	0.052	0.155	Not Supported
H5	Contingent Rewards → Job Performance	0.030	0.067	0.451	Not Supported
H6	Operating Conditions → Job Performance	0.201	0.074	2.728***	Supported
H7	Co-workers → Job Performance	0.397	0.082	4.845***	Supported
H8	Nature of the Work → Job Performance	0.104	0.048	2.170**	Supported
H9	Communication → Job Performance	-0.002	0.069	0.023	Not Supported

t*-values: 1.65 (10%); *t*-values: 1.96 (5%); ****t*-values: 2.58 (1%)

Table 7a: PLS-MGA results for age groups and gender (Examining H10)

Path	P-Value (G1 vs. G2)	P-Value (G1 vs. G3)	P-Value (G2 vs. G4)	P-Value (G2 vs. G3)	P-Value (G4 vs. G1)	P-Value (Male vs. Female)
Communication -> Job Performance	0.979^a	0.889	0.181	0.216	0.210	0.638
Contingent Rewards -> Job Performance	0.980	0.971	0.513	0.609	0.049	0.252
Co-workers -> Job Performance	0.615	0.283	0.124	0.132	0.734	0.651
Fringe Benefits -> Job Performance	0.218	0.435	0.729	0.759	0.487	0.836
Nature of the Work -> Job Performance	0.106	0.213	0.661	0.695	0.697	0.953
Operating Conditions -> Job Performance	0.149	0.128	0.567	0.352	0.690	0.229
Payment -> Job Performance	0.044	0.216	0.644	0.938	0.885	0.633
Promotion -> Job Performance	0.704	0.610	0.196	0.394	0.624	0.487
Supervision -> Job Performance	0.050	0.469	0.925	0.932	0.436	0.232

Note: G1 (Age group between 26 and 30), G2 (Age group between 31 and 35), G3 (Age group between 36 and 40), G4 (Age group between 41 and 45).

a. The bold values indicate significant differences between groups.

Table 7b: PLS-MGA results for marital status, academic degree, and income (Examining H10)

Path	P-Value (Single vs. Married)	P-Value (Diploma vs. Bachelor)	P-Value (G1 vs. G2)	P-Value (G1 vs. G3)	P-Value (G2 vs. G3)
Communication -> Job Performance	0.320	0.767	0.278	0.191	0.423
Contingent Rewards -> Job Performance	0.083	0.821	0.589	0.793	0.671
Co-workers -> Job Performance	0.590	0.519	0.320	0.237	0.389
Fringe Benefits -> Job Performance	0.455	0.432	0.823	0.782	0.465
Nature of the Work -> Job Performance	0.361	0.690	0.672	0.383	0.215
Operating Conditions -> Job Performance	0.943	0.037^a	0.453	0.580	0.618
Payment -> Job Performance	0.629	0.431	0.630	0.469	0.309
Promotion -> Job Performance	0.367	0.418	0.267	0.213	0.385
Supervision -> Job Performance	0.260	0.907	0.801	0.944	0.827

Note: G1 (Income level between 2001 and 3000), G2 (Income level between 3001 and 4000), G3 (Income level between 4001 and 5000).

a. The bold value indicates the significant difference between groups.

Appendix A: Measurement items

Latent Construct	Scales
1 Payment	PYM1 I feel I receive a fair salary for my job. PYM2 Raises are often and not far between. PYM3 I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me ®. PYM4 I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.
2 Promotion	PRM1 There is really too little chance for promotion on my job ®. PRM2 Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted. PRM3 People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places. PRM4 I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.
3 Fringe Benefits	FB1 I am satisfied with the benefits I receive. FB2 The benefits we receive are as good as most other companies offer. FB3 The benefit package we have is equitable. FB4 There are benefits we do not have which we should have ®.
4 Co-workers	CW1 I like the people I work with. CW2 I enjoy working with my co-workers. CW3 I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with ®. CW4 There is no bickering and fighting at work.
5 Supervision	SPV1 I like my supervisor. SPV2 My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job. SPV3 My supervisor is unfair to me ®. SPV4 My supervisor shows interest in the feelings of subordinates.
6 Contingent Rewards	CR1 When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive. CR2 I feel that the work I do is appreciated. CR3 There are few rewards for those who work here ®. CR4 I feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.
7 Operating Conditions	OC1 Our rules and procedures make doing a job simple. OC2 My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape. OC3 I have too much to do at work ®. OC4 I have little paperwork.
8 Nature of Work	NW1 I sometimes feel my job is meaningless ®. NW2 I like doing the things I do at work. NW3 I feel a sense of pride in doing my job. NW4 My job is enjoyable.
9 Communication	CMN1 Communications seem good within my company. CMN2 The goals of this organization are clear to me. CMN3 I feel that I know what is going on with the company. CMN4 Work assignments are not fully explained ®.
10 Job Performance	JPerf1 My work efficiency is much higher than average. JPerf2 My standards of work quality are higher than the formal standards for this job. JPerf3 My work meets expectations of my manager. JPerf4 I strive for higher quality work than required. JPerf5 I expect to be promoted faster than average. JPerf6 I am far more knowledgeable than others who work in my area of expertise. JPerf7 I find real enjoyment in my job, and I am fairly well satisfied. JPerf8 I like my job better than the average worker. JPerf9 I intend to remain in my profession.

Notes: *7-point Likert scales anchored by “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. ** ®: Reverse-coded item.

Appendix B: Cross Loadings

Construct	CMN	CR	CW	FB	JP	NW	OC	PYM	PRM	SPV
CMN1	0.879^a	0.617	0.762	0.541	0.610	0.551	0.646	0.407	0.586	0.571
CMN2	0.895	0.609	0.697	0.536	0.613	0.522	0.682	0.457	0.636	0.552
CMN3	0.868	0.579	0.651	0.527	0.651	0.489	0.721	0.417	0.57	0.528
CMN4	0.828	0.601	0.581	0.478	0.589	0.489	0.724	0.347	0.573	0.508
CR1	0.619	0.861	0.560	0.553	0.657	0.587	0.666	0.447	0.648	0.584
CR2	0.560	0.876	0.507	0.534	0.616	0.533	0.690	0.451	0.557	0.566
CR3	0.662	0.903	0.639	0.575	0.597	0.573	0.696	0.419	0.689	0.593
CR4	0.569	0.850	0.531	0.542	0.601	0.503	0.664	0.427	0.581	0.550
CW1	0.645	0.577	0.883	0.554	0.652	0.514	0.560	0.419	0.637	0.536
CW2	0.658	0.568	0.893	0.582	0.638	0.513	0.546	0.371	0.61	0.556
CW3	0.700	0.564	0.913	0.578	0.605	0.494	0.552	0.332	0.612	0.540
CW4	0.768	0.573	0.859	0.530	0.590	0.504	0.594	0.372	0.55	0.548
FB1	0.540	0.569	0.568	0.879	0.656	0.619	0.528	0.495	0.714	0.597
FB2	0.497	0.557	0.567	0.878	0.627	0.634	0.508	0.446	0.682	0.567
FB3	0.468	0.514	0.517	0.876	0.578	0.601	0.515	0.400	0.719	0.557
FB4	0.555	0.523	0.515	0.797	0.605	0.55	0.577	0.419	0.734	0.735
JPerf1	0.538	0.480	0.530	0.555	0.719	0.508	0.556	0.412	0.561	0.606
JPerf2	0.607	0.580	0.644	0.586	0.773	0.562	0.572	0.444	0.584	0.723
JPerf3	0.635	0.571	0.704	0.605	0.840	0.592	0.598	0.468	0.653	0.619
JPerf4	0.643	0.620	0.673	0.605	0.814	0.623	0.596	0.484	0.642	0.643
JPerf5	0.629	0.560	0.683	0.492	0.794	0.508	0.552	0.455	0.58	0.486
JPerf6	0.649	0.579	0.787	0.518	0.770	0.513	0.568	0.402	0.581	0.561
JPerf7	0.579	0.621	0.562	0.531	0.760	0.500	0.670	0.454	0.687	0.536
JPerf8	0.473	0.507	0.472	0.526	0.686	0.479	0.614	0.477	0.598	0.454
JPerf9	0.523	0.548	0.499	0.536	0.709	0.466	0.582	0.494	0.622	0.467
NW1	0.516	0.544	0.496	0.604	0.589	0.854	0.507	0.450	0.577	0.532
NW2	0.503	0.512	0.450	0.572	0.561	0.865	0.506	0.461	0.581	0.509
NW3	0.542	0.595	0.539	0.627	0.638	0.890	0.532	0.427	0.613	0.597
NW4	0.478	0.520	0.480	0.615	0.599	0.840	0.473	0.457	0.555	0.542
OC1	0.531	0.651	0.524	0.513	0.614	0.471	0.745	0.395	0.665	0.541
OC2	0.732	0.619	0.513	0.538	0.622	0.518	0.866	0.361	0.597	0.564
OC3	0.706	0.611	0.507	0.454	0.569	0.445	0.848	0.350	0.59	0.534
OC4	0.686	0.689	0.553	0.541	0.626	0.501	0.864	0.425	0.624	0.600
PRM1	0.561	0.492	0.533	0.739	0.592	0.555	0.580	0.425	0.846	0.669
PRM2	0.576	0.611	0.585	0.763	0.653	0.618	0.643	0.459	0.877	0.773

PRM3	0.575	0.576	0.563	0.728	0.655	0.597	0.616	0.456	0.871	0.692
PRM4	0.555	0.666	0.574	0.552	0.642	0.482	0.649	0.421	0.744	0.538
PYM1	0.439	0.445	0.401	0.446	0.547	0.463	0.419	0.900	0.447	0.442
PYM2	0.418	0.467	0.384	0.490	0.534	0.463	0.406	0.940	0.492	0.469
PYM3	0.370	0.396	0.305	0.400	0.476	0.425	0.394	0.884	0.442	0.432
PYM4	0.468	0.489	0.424	0.516	0.577	0.520	0.454	0.894	0.528	0.480
SPV1	0.536	0.510	0.553	0.565	0.635	0.526	0.511	0.389	0.585	0.830
SPV2	0.572	0.622	0.547	0.686	0.655	0.589	0.632	0.453	0.739	0.891
SPV3	0.518	0.576	0.523	0.604	0.624	0.55	0.582	0.437	0.719	0.825
SPV4	0.503	0.536	0.476	0.588	0.628	0.498	0.585	0.449	0.685	0.872

a. Bold values are loadings for each item that are above the recommended value of 0.5; and an item's loadings on its own variable are higher than all of its cross-loadings with other variable.

Note: CMN (Communication), CR (Contingent Rewards), CW (Co-workers), FB (Fringe Benefits), JP (Job Performance), NW (Nature of the Work), OC (Operating Conditions), PYM (Payment), PRM (Promotion), SPV (Supervision).