THE EFFECT OF THE USE OF SOCIAL NETWORKING SITES IN THE WORKPLACE ON JOB PERFORMANCE

A Dissertation

by

MURAD MOQBEL

Submitted to Texas A&M International University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

May 2012

Concentration: Management Information Systems

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Approved as to style and content by:

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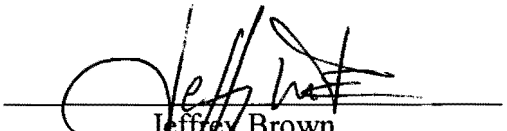

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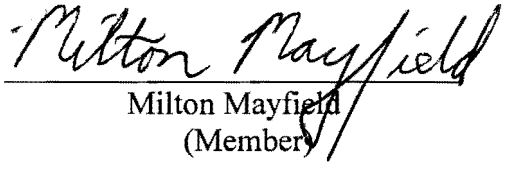

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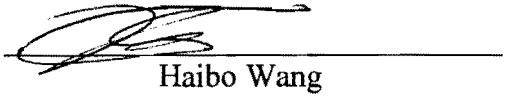

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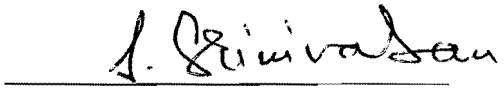

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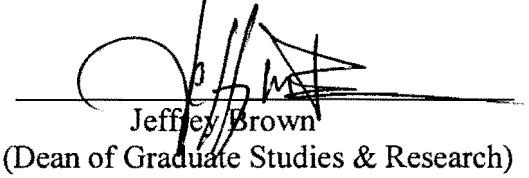

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ABSTRACT

The Effect of the Use of Social Networking Sites in the Workplace on Job Performance
(May 2012)

International Business Administration, Texas A&M International University, 2012

Chair of Committee: Ned Kock

There is considerable debate among academics and business practitioners on the value of social networking site use in the workplace. Some claim that their use in the workplace is a waste of time while others believe it leads to improvements in job performance. This study attempts to resolve this controversy by examining the use of social networking sites in the workplace and its effect on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, absenteeism, turnover intention, innovative behavior, and job performance. Based on literature, a research model and hypotheses were developed. The research model predicts that social networking site use intensity will influence employee work-related outcomes including job performance. In order to empirically test this research model, a survey was conducted on 426 full- or part-time employees focusing on the following latent variables: social networking site use intensity, perceived job satisfaction, perceived organizational commitment, absenteeism, turnover intention, innovative behavior, and job performance. The survey was conducted in Yemen and the United States. The data collected were analyzed to test the hypotheses and the results show significant support for the proposed model. As predicted, social networking site use intensity in the workplace influences job performance through mediating variables. In

addition, job satisfaction and innovative behavior were extremely important factors that directly influenced job performance and mediated the effect of social networking site use intensity on job performance. However, some variables – absenteeism, turnover intention, and organizational commitment – did not significantly intervene in the relationship between social networking site use intensity and job performance. No major differences between the two country models were found. Discussion of the results along with the limitations, future research, and implications are also presented.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Thank you God for everything you have bestowed upon me and making great people part of my life-changing academic milestone.

This dissertation could not have been written without the support, motivation, kindness, and wisdom of my dissertation chair Dr. Ned Kock at Texas A&M International University. He has not only always been there for me from the first moment I arrived at TAMIU, mentoring, advising, and making tremendous contributions in my success, but he has also been a friend, always there for me in good times and bad times. I also can't thank my committee members – Dr. Jeffrey Brown, Dr. Milton Mayfield, and Dr. Haibo Wang – enough for all the help and support they have provided me throughout this endeavor. They helped me with many questions and doubts I had about my work and assisted me with my job search and teaching activities.

The faculty and staff in Texas A&M International University are the most dedicated and kind people I have ever met, and I owe my professional development entirely to them. Their examples as scholars and teachers will guide me in my future academic career. Thank you Dr. William Gruben. Thank you to Ms. Pam Short for all your efforts in making sure that everything was in order before I was even admitted to the Ph.D. program. Thank you Peerayuth (Pete), Aziz, Ala'eddin, Jose, and all fellow Ph.D. students who have always been there for me for help and friendship. I would also like to thank all participants, from the US and Yemen, who helped me collect the data necessary for this study.

Finally, I would like to thank my family for their love and support: my parents Abdo Naji Moqbel and Badriah Saleh, and my sisters, brothers, and in-laws, who have given me a good foundation with which to go through life and meet all challenges. And last but not least, I thank my wife, Shohud Ismail, who has been an indispensable source of love and strength for me. Through her patience, support, and unwavering belief in me, I have been able to complete this dissertation.

I hope my work makes you proud.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Like several emerging technologies, social networking sites, and their use in the workplace, have been controversial issues. Some argue that the use of social networking sites in the workplace leads to better employee productivity through effects on intermediate variables, such as higher morale (AT&T, 2008; Bennett, Owers, Pitt, & Tucker, 2010; Leidner, Koch, & Gonzalez, 2010; Li & Bernoff, 2008; Patel & Jasani, 2010). Others argue that the biggest concern about the use of social networking sites in the workplace is the loss of labor productivity due to time wasted at work (Accountemps, 2010; Nucleus, 2009; O'Murchu, Breslin, & Decker, 2004; Rooksby, Baxter, Cliff, Greenwood, Harvey, Kahn, Keen, & Sommerville, 2009; Shepherd, 2011; Wavecrest, 2006). A study by Nucleus Research (2009) reported that the use of Facebook at work results in a 1.5 percent decrease in productivity. Leidner et al. (2010), however, found that the ability of employees to access Facebook at work was a great incentive for retention—particularly of new hires, as they can be socially connected with family, friends and other coworkers in the workplace. In addition, a European study commissioned by AT&T found that 65 percent of employees believed that using social networking sites in the workplace helped them be more productive (AT&T, 2008).

The majority of research studies on social networking sites rely mainly on college student data (Clark & Roberts, 2010; Dwyer, 2007; Dwyer, Hiltz, & Passerini, 2007; Ellison, Steinfield, & Lampe, 2007; Hargittai, 2008; Mainier & O'Brien, 2010) which might not be relevant to the business world. Unlike previous studies, this study collected data from employees in the workplace to test the hypotheses of whether the use of social networking

sites has an impact on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, absenteeism, turnover intention, innovative behavior, and, ultimately, job performance.

Several studies have been conducted about social networking sites. In particular, North (2010) examined the use of social networking sites in the workplace by prospective and current employees. He found that although some participants find social networking site use to have negative aspects, they believe that its use at work is worthwhile it because socializing online while at work makes them happier and, therefore, more productive. Leidner et al. (2010) describe the use of an internal social networking system at USAA, an investment/insurance firm based in San Antonio, Texas, and how it helped "new hires assimilate into the IT department" (p. 229). Leidner et al. (2010) concluded that the use of social networking at USAA offered "individual and organizational benefits" such as a strong sense of organizational commitment, "higher morale among new Generation Y workers," and a high retention rate of entry-level IT workers (p. 229). Furthermore, Patel and Jasani (2010) offer several guidelines that can be used by businesses when establishing corporate social media policies to ensure social media security. They also examine the effect of social networking sites on "corporate culture and corporate information security policies" (p. 628). A study done by Nucleus Research showed that, on average, 47 percent of the 237 office workers interviewed used Facebook in the workplace for 15 minutes every day. That study concluded that the use of Facebook at work results in a 1.5 percent decrease in productivity (Nucleus, 2009).

This dissertation is a response to North's (2010) call for research to investigate whether social networking site use by employees influences their productivity. Some studies claim that the use of social networking sites makes employees happier and, therefore, more

productive (AT&T, 2008; Bennett et al., 2010; Leidner et al., 2010; Li & Bernoff, 2008; Patel & Jasani, 2010) while other studies consider social networking site use a reason for reduced productivity since it can waste time and be addictive (Accountemps, 2010; Nucleus, 2009; O'Murchu et al., 2004; Rooksby et al., 2009; Shepherd, 2011; Wavecrest, 2006). These studies that argue that using social networking sites reduces productivity in the workplace looked only at the time wasted as a result of social networking site use in the workplace and ignored the possible indirect benefits such as enhanced job satisfaction, higher organizational commitment, lower absenteeism, higher retention rates, higher innovative behavior, and increased productivity. As for studies that argue that the use of social networking sites in the workplace is adding value to organizations, they did not empirically measure the positive effects of social networking site use in the workplace on work-related outcomes. This study, in turn, attempts to resolve this controversy by empirically studying the direct and mediating effects of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, absenteeism, turnover intention, and innovative behavior on the relationship between social networking site use intensity and job performance.

Research Question

Several studies have been conducted on social networking site use covering several topics ranging from ethical issues (Clark & Roberts, 2010) to privacy and security ones (Dinh, 2011; Dwyer et al., 2007; Patel & Jasani, 2010). No other research has yet examined whether the use of social networking sites in the workplace has any potential benefits for businesses in terms of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, absenteeism, turnover intention, innovative behavior, and job performance. Therefore, this study attempts to fill this

gap in the literature of social networking sites by examining whether the use of social networking sites in the workplace contributes to higher levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, absenteeism, turnover intention, innovative behavior, and ultimately job performance.

Significance of the Study

Studying the effect of social networking site use in the workplace on job performance is important for several reasons. First, professionals in charge of human resource departments will benefit from understanding the associations elicited by this study. Understanding relationships between social networking site use in the workplace and job satisfaction, organizational commitment, absenteeism, turnover intention, innovative behavior, and job performance can help reveal the underlying rationale for organizations to either allow or disallow the use of social networking sites in the workplace. Organizations are searching for available means to increase workplace productivity. If the use of social networking sites turns out to be one of these means, organizations will be able to add the use of social networking sites in the workplace to their arsenal of practices to enhance job satisfaction, organizational commitment, absenteeism, turnover intention, innovative behavior, and ultimately job performance. Second, this study contributes to social networking, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, absenteeism, turnover intention, innovative behavior, and job performance literature. After an extensive survey of the extant literature, it is concluded that this is the first study to analyze the relationship between those latent variables. The findings of this study will reveal whether the belief that happy workers work harder holds in the context of social networking site use in the workplace.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this survey study is threefold. First, it attempts to resolve the controversy of whether or not the use of social networking sites in the workplace leads to added value for organizations by examining the use of social networking sites in the workplace and its effect on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, absenteeism, turnover intention, innovative behavior, and job performance. Second, this study explores job satisfaction, organizational commitment, absenteeism, turnover intention, innovative behavior as likely mediators in the relationship between social networking site use intensity and job performance. The third objective is to test the same model in two culturally different countries (the US and Yemen). This study surveys participants, who were either full- or part-time employees, in the US and Yemen about the intensity of social networking site use, perceived job satisfaction, organizational commitment, absenteeism, turnover intention, innovative behavior, and job performance. This study attempts to investigate the psychological processes that explain the link between social networking site use intensity and job performance through the mediation of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, absenteeism, turnover intention, and innovative behavior.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Social Networking Site Use

The technological advances and increased use of the Internet in recent years have led to a communication revolution (Moqbel, 2012). This communication revolution, as well as the more technologically empowered lifestyle of individual users, has changed the way people communicate and connect with each other (Coyle, 2008; O'Murchu et al., 2004). Social networking sites are a recent trend in this revolution (Moqbel, 2012). Social networking sites are defined by Boyd and Ellison (2007) as

> web-based services that allow individuals to (1) construct a public or semi-public profile within a bounded system, (2) articulate a list of other users with whom they share a connection with, and (3) view and traverse their list of connections and those made by others within the system (p. 211).

Ellison, Steinfield, and Lampe (2007) classified social networking sites into several categories: "work-related contexts (e.g., LinkedIn.com), romantic relationship initiation (the original goal of Friendster.com), connecting those with shared interests such as music or politics (e.g., MySpace.com), or the college student population (the original incarnation of Facebook.com)" (p. 1143). In the book titled *Throwing Sheep in the Boardroom: How Online Social Networking Will Transform Your Life, Work and World*, Fraser and Dutta classified social networking sites into five categories

> "egocentric/identity" construction social networking sites such as Facebook and MySpace; "opportunistic" social networking sites for business connections such as LinkedIn; "community" social networking sites representing cultural or neighborhood

> groups; "media-sharing" social networking sites such as YouTube and Flickr; and "passion-centric" social networking sites for sharing common interests such as Dogster (Wilson, 2010, p. 417).

Social networking sites can be divided into two types: public social networking sites and internal social networking sites (Rooksby et al., 2009). Public social networking sites, such as Facebook, Twitter, and LinkedIn, are run by commercial providers and are often free. Internal social networking sites, like Watercooler at HP, Beehive at IBM, Harmony at SAP, D Street at Deloitte, and Town Square at Microsoft, are owned by organizations for their own use inside the organization.

The social networking sites – communication revolution phenomena – started to become popular in the mid 1990s. One of the first social networking sites was Classmates, a site initiated in 1995 (Rooksby et al., 2009). Friendster is another social networking site; it was established in March 2003 and focused on dating through one's friends (Boyd & Ellison, 2007).

LinkedIn is another social networking site; it was founded in May 2003 and has allowed professionals to create their own profiles as well as invite other professionals to be part of their networks (O'Murchu et al., 2004). LinkedIn also facilitates business inquiries and expertise requests, as well as job postings by recruiters (Leader-Chivée & Cowan, 2008).

MySpace, a social networking site launched in 2003 (Boyd & Ellison, 2007), allows teenagers to build, share, and launch their multimedia as well as invite friends to their networks (Parameswaran & Whinston, 2007). MySpace appeals to friends with mutual interests (Leader-Chivée & Cowan, 2008). YouTube is yet another social networking site and

was founded in 2005 (Boyd & Ellison, 2007). It allows individuals to post video clips containing music, political speeches, sporting events, and public events, among others.

Launched in February 2004, Facebook is arguably the most popular social networking site (Boyd & Ellison, 2007). The typical Internet user spends an average of six hours per month on Facebook, and more than 50 percent of Internet users use Facebook on their mobile phones (Shepherd, 2011).

Twitter, a micro-blogging site that focuses on status updates with posts limited to 140 characters, is a social networking site launched in July 2006 (Boyd & Ellison, 2007). Twitter is described as "a service for friends, family, and co-workers to communicate and stay connected through the exchange of quick, frequent answers to one simple question: what are you doing?" (Clark & Roberts, 2010, p. 508).

A plethora of studies have been conducted about social networking sites. For instance, North (2010) reviewed literature to explore the benefits and risks using social networking sites in the workplace. The results show that, although some participants find social networking site use to have negative aspects, they believe that its use at work is worthwhile arguing that socializing online while at work will make them happier and, therefore, more productive.

Boyd and Ellison (2007) provide a comprehensive literature review of social networking sites discussing the history of social networking sites in chronological order. The main contribution provided by the study was a detailed definition of social networking sites.

Social networking sites can be internal as well as public. Leidner et al. (2010) discuss personal and organizational benefits of using an internal social networking system. Some of these benefits include "increasing the feeling of cultural belonging, making the environment

of entry-level IT workers exciting, and creating high morale among a new Generation Y workforce" (p. 229).

Other studies conducted on social networking sites incorporated structural equation modeling (SEM) techniques to examine the acceptance of social networking sites to explain user intentions. Rosen and Sherman (2006) proposed a modified technology acceptance model for the acceptance of hedonic, pleasure-oriented rather than utilitarian, information systems by the Millennial generation or Generation Y, social networking site in this case, to explain user intention. They have not yet tested their model. This dissertation uses a SEM technique in order to examine the relationship between social networking site use intensity and job performance.

One use for social networking sites is developing new relationships, in addition to maintaining old ones. Ellison et al. (2007) studied the association between "the formation and maintenance of social capital and the use of Facebook" by surveying 286 undergraduate students (p. 1143). They studied the relationship between the three types of social capital – bridging, bonding, and maintained social capital – and Facebook intensity construct. The results showed a strong association between the use of Facebook and the types of social capital. The study also found that Facebook intensity might help benefit users with "low self-esteem and low life satisfaction" (p. 1143). In addition, Ellison et al. (2007) was the first to introduce a construct measurement called Facebook intensity. Ellison et al.'s (2007) study stimulates curiosity of whether social networking site use intensity, rather than Facebook intensity, will also help benefit employees with job satisfaction and work-related outcomes in general. Based on Ellison et al. (2007), social networking site use intensity construct was developed in this dissertation after modifying wording.

Different social networking sites are used by different types of users for different reasons. Hargittai (2008), in turn, investigated the types of user characteristics that are most likely to be related to social network sites usage of a group of freshmen students at an urban public university. Comparing social networking site users with non-users, the study found that "a person's gender, race and ethnicity, and parental educational background are all associated with use" (p. 276). One interesting finding is that students whose parents have a higher level of education tend to be Facebook users while students whose parents have a lesser educational level tend to be MySpace users. In addition, Hispanic users tend to use MySpace, and Asian and Asian American students tend to use Xanga and Friendster more than Whites.

Parameswaran and Whinston (2007) provided an overview of social networking sites and looked at important characteristics of social networking sites. The article suggested that "Information Systems research should expand its scope and adapt theories and methodologies from even more disciplines to address this challenge" (p. 336). This dissertation in turn responds to this suggestion by adopting the social support theory from organizational behavior field and studying the link between social networking sites – information systems – and work-related outcomes – human resource management.

This dissertation focuses on investigating whether social networking site use intensity has benefits or drawbacks in the workplace. Bennett et al. (2010) examined the association "between social networking and organizational culture" and explored the reasons why some organizations disallow social networking site use in the workplace (p. 138). The findings showed that the advantages of social networking site use in the workplace are still underestimated by many organizations.

Business Benefits of Social Networking Sites

People started to realize that social networking site use can be a great source of strategic benefits to businesses. It is forecasted that Web 2.0, of which social networking is part, "will replace email, instant messaging, and collaboration programs such as Microsoft SharePoint" in the not-too-distant future (Wavecrest, 2006, p. 3).

From the human resource perspective, turnover is a dominant problem affecting many organizations. A survey by the IBM Institute for Business Value and the Economist Intelligence Unit showed that more than 75 percent of human resource executives from 40 different countries are concerned about attracting, developing, and retaining future leaders (IBM, 2008). This concern surfaced as most future leaders and employees belong to the connected "Generation Y." This particular generation is characterized as a texting, mobile, Web savvy generation that requires constant access to social networking sites. For this age-group, "blogging, instant messaging, social media, viral communication and social networking are as natural as utilizing the proverbial water cooler has been to past generations as a source of information and social contact" (Isheriff, 2010, p. 4). As this age-group increases in the corporate world, they will bring with them these habits which will change the way business is done.

Social networking site use, in turn, can be used in resolving some HR problems by bridging "external and internal communications" and "recruiting retiree" (Leader-Chivée & Cowan, 2008, p. 41). This can be done through integrating social networking site use into all functions of the organization (Brodkin, 2008). Leader-Chivée and Cowan (2008) pointed out the benefits of social networking sites when creating communities for retirees and alumni

include leveraging talent and motivating alumni to rejoin the company. In fact, studies show that rehires are 300 percent more productive than new hires (Leader-Chivée & Cowan, 2008). Leidner et al. (2010) found out that the ability of employees to access Facebook at work was a great incentive for new hire retention as they can be socially connected with family, friends, and other coworkers in the workplace.

Social networking site use in the workplace can be an important means of communication among the company's internal and external stakeholders which aids knowledge transfer and communication (Bennett et al., 2010; Leader-Chivée & Cowan, 2008). The means of communication social networking sites can provide users include, but are not limited to, email, file sharing, blogging, instant messaging, discussion groups, and chatting. Those means help employees access new resources, contacts, and information, as well as maintain and nurture professional networking, as most businesses depend on team and project-related work. Several industries including tourism, entertainment, advertising, and several other service-related industries took advantage of social networking site use by adopting it in the workplace (Isheriff, 2010).

Not all firms allow social networking site use in the workplace. In fact, 23 percent of firms do not allow their employees to use social networking sites (Brodkin, 2008). However, with the advent of smart phones, it is even more difficult, if not impossible, for companies to block access to social networking sites. In fact, banning the use of social networking sites in the workplace can have detrimental business consequences such as stopping workers from discovering business opportunities, intelligence gathering, and working collaboratively (Bennett et al., 2010). This access to the "wise crowd" for ideas and solutions has been coined "crowdsourcing" by Jeff Howe (Howe, 2008).

Another worthwhile benefit of social networking site use is business intelligence. Using analytical tools, companies can transform social networking sites, such as Facebook or Twitter, into mines of market research information where businesses recognize trends as information about how customers interact with their, as well as with their competitor's, products and services (Wilson, 2009). One of the benefits of social networking site use for businesses is using customer communities for market research to get feedback on products and features, which can be a source of innovation in the product development process (Bughin, 2009; Parameswaran & Whinston, 2007). Those customer communities can also be used for recommending, tagging, reviewing, or recognizing products, such as in the case of Facebook where customers click "like."

Some studies list the business benefits of social networking site use in the workplace. For instance, Bennett et al. (2010) report that the benefits of social networking site use in the workplace can include enhanced collective knowledge, improved knowledge, increased productivity, improved morale (Leidner et al., 2010), sharpened strategic focus, and greater innovation. Not only Bughin (2009) mentioned greater employee satisfaction as one of the business benefits of social networking site use, but Patel and Jasani (2010) also emphasized it among other benefits such as collaboration of ideas.

Several companies use social networking sites to overcome challenges such as bridging geographic and enhancing innovative behavior. For instance, IBM has established its own internal social network called Beehive, allowing "activities such as event planning, photo-sharing, and discussion groups, to help employees build relationships across the large different locations of the organization in the world" (Leader-Chivée & Cowan, 2008, p. 45). Leidner et al. (2010) gives another example of how social networking site use helped new

hires assimilate into the IT department and led to greater "sense of cultural belonging and higher morale among new Generation Y employees", especially for those entry-level IT workers (p. 229). One more example of social networking's success in bridging the divide between its employees is Best Buy which launched its own corporate network that connects employees from different retail outlets to ask questions and share information with each other (Li & Bernoff, 2008). Not only did social networking site use help Best Buy with bridging geographical divide, but it also reduced turnover rate more than 50 percent (Li & Bernoff, 2008).

Social networking sites, just like other means of communication, TV, radio, newspapers, and telephone, can be used by companies to communicate their offerings to customers. Social networking tools can be a much faster means of communication, as information can be posted and retrieved quickly through them and feedback can be exchanged instantly between companies and their customers and clients (Patel & Jasani, 2010). Social networking channels are complementing, rather than substituting, traditional vehicles of communications (Nielsen, 2009).

Another use of social networking sites is in the area of marketing in general and advertising and branding in particular. For example, advertising can be targeted since social networking sites collect personal information such as favorite music and TV shows via profiles (O'Murchu et al., 2004). In addition, businesses can maximize level of customer service by listening and responding to what their customers are saying about their brands. Ramsay (2010) gives examples of companies that failed to listen to their customers. One of the examples is how Toyota failed to listen and respond to customers through the network in February 2010 when they reported problems with their Prius vehicles brakes. The result , due

to a lack of a social media strategy, was a recall that cost the company US$34 billion and its reputation for reliability (Ramsay, 2010).

Businesses can use social networking sites to find expertise. Locating an expert on subject rather than finding the answer itself is very important as "sharing expertise is important for enabling organizational learning, knowing and judging people's competencies, creating ad-hoc teams to solve time-critical problems, providing better technical assistance, maintaining customer relationships and developing social capital" (Rooksby et al., 2009, p. 18). Leidner et al. (2010) gave another example illustrating how social networking sites are used by management to identify experts within the organization when the employees of USAA used their internal social networking system to host a coding competition that developed a mobile banking application to improve the firm's customer experience.

Social networking sites are used by several organizations as a means of recruiting and hiring. Some employers admit that they use social networking sites as a quick, no-cost source of background information on job candidates, and some social networking site users use their pages as personal "billboards" to market themselves to employers (Clark & Roberts, 2010). Some social networking sites allow Internet search engines to search the names and profiles of their users which allow some employers to access information about prospective employees. Clark and Roberts (2010) justify using social networking sites as a source of background checks because social networking sites "provide an easy way to gain a character assessment of candidates without much hassle and allow the employer to learn more about a candidate than is possible any other way" (p. 513).

Companies use social networking when creating a good corporate culture which leads to increased levels of trust among employees (Patel & Jasani, 2010). Social networking site

use by firms empowers and enables employees to express their thoughts and ideas freely among other benefits, such as increasing the speed of communication and the ease of access to information and encouraging collaboration (Patel & Jasani, 2010).

A few companies realized the benefits of social networking site use in the workplace. According to a survey of more than 1,400 CIOs by Robert Half Technology (2009), about one in every five companies in the US allows the use of social networking sites for business purposes while only one in ten companies allows the use of social networking sites in the workplace for personal use. In addition, a European study commissioned by AT&T in 2008 found that 65 percent of employees believed that the use of social networking sites helped them be more productive (AT&T, 2008). The key sources of productivity, according to Isheriff (2010), are

- Increased knowledge and awareness of solutions to common problems.
- Quick access to a wider group of peers with ideas and experience in dealing with work-related issues.
- The ability to benchmark processes and systems with colleagues within a collaborative forum.
- Timely knowledge and awareness of events or developments which positively affect their jobs.

Social networking site use in the workplace can satisfy employees' higher needs such as the sense of belonging. Higher order needs are at the top of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (Maslow, 1954). For instance, in their empirical study, Lawler and Porter (1967) mentioned

that “satisfaction of higher order needs would be most closely related to performance” (p. 27). The sense of belonging to social networking sites is one of the elements used in the main independent variable in this dissertation.

Business Challenges of Social Networking Sites

Several companies are skeptical of the value social networking sites use can bring to the table, and they are concerned about the risks associated with adoption of social networking site use in the workplace. According to a survey by Robert Half Technology (2009), more than half of US companies block access to social networking sites to keep employees from wasting time, but it is also in order to mitigate risk (Leader-Chivée & Cowan, 2008). The major concerns of the use of social networking sites in the workplace according to Wilson (2009) are: “perceived loss in staff productivity; data leakage from staff gossiping freely in an open environment; malware and phishing scams practised by cyber-crooks; the open access potentially offered to the company servers by lax and outdated attitudes towards passwords” (p. 55).

Several studies show the biggest concern of social networking site use in the workplace is the loss of staff productivity from time wasted at work. Nucleus Research reported that the use of Facebook at work results in a 1.5 percent decrease in productivity (Nucleus, 2009). This wasted productivity adds up to money lost to wages and economic costs in the forms of decreased efficiency. Accountemps (2010), a staffing service firm specializing in accounting and finance, reported that 59 percent of 1400 interviewed chief financial officers (CFOs) listed employees wasting time as their greatest concern of social networking site use in the workplace. Statistics show the average Internet user spends on

average six hours per month on Facebook, which raises managers' concerns that those six hours may be spent in the workplace (Shepherd, 2011). Another report, by Robert Half Technology (2009), claims some workers spend around two hours a day on Facebook in the workplace.

According to the British Trades Union Congress (TUC), employers worry, when it comes to the use of social networking sites in the workplace, about "wasting time" and posting negative contents (Rooksby et al., 2009, p. 9). According to "a 2007 BBC article in the UK," social networking site use in the workplace is responsible for "as much as £132 million per day" of lost productivity in the UK; the same article reports that "233 million hours are lost every month … on social networking" (Isheriff, 2010, p. 2). This productivity loss and time wasted in the workplace happens because some sites are addictive (O'Murchu et al., 2004; Wavecrest, 2006).

Information security is one of the biggest challenges when it comes to the use of social networking sites in the workplace. According to the British Trades Union Congress (TUC), employers tend to worry social networking site use in the workplace will expose the organization to phishing attacks which can start with finding a user's work password, for example, the user's cat's name mentioned on Facebook (Rooksby et al., 2009). Social networking sites, such as Facebook and Twitter are used by hackers to distribute malware and spam by hacking user accounts and then sending spam and malware using trusted accounts because users tend to open links sent by their friends without thinking of possible risks (Isheriff, 2010). This breaches an organization's security if employees click on that malicious site link. An example of a malware component is key-logging software which

"records and reports the keystrokes of users, revealing passwords and other confidential information" (Isheriff, 2010, p. 3).

The obvious challenge of social networking site use in the workplace for businesses is the difficulty of distinguishing whether the employees are posting personal views or the views of the company they work for (Clark & Roberts, 2010). Several companies have established in their social networking site use policies, clear guidelines to mitigate such risks and protect the company and employees. For instance, IBM posts its social networking site use policies on the website where it requires its employees to identify themselves and encourages anyone posting, either inside or outside IBM, to use a disclaimer clarifying that the posting is not necessarily representing IBM's views (Patel & Jasani, 2010).

Although using social networking sites to check backgrounds of prospective new hires may be beneficial to businesses, as it is a quick and inexpensive source of information, some claim it harms society in several ways, such as the invasion of privacy (Clark & Roberts, 2010).

Privacy is a major concern in using social networking sites in the workplace. Social networking site use encourages users to provide information about themselves without giving much consideration to privacy issues. For instance, information collected from users' profiles can be potentially abused by social networking sites that can use them for targeted marketing (Dwyer et al., 2007; O'Murchu et al., 2004). Users' detailed information is likely vulnerable to identity theft, stalking, and abuse. Managing privacy issues poses a challenge for organizations since digital communications can be permanent as part of the system (Dwyer et al., 2007).

One of the negative consequences of using social networking sites in the workplace is the consumption of extra bandwidth that affects the efficiency of core business tasks. Some social networking sites, such as MySpace and YouTube, are considered high-bandwidth sites (Isheriff, 2010; Wavecrest, 2006). According to Isheriff (2010), "YouTube consumes anywhere from 75 percent to 90 percent of bandwidth within most typical organizations" (p. 3).

Job Satisfaction

There is a disagreement among researchers about the definition of job satisfaction (Sook, 2008). Most commonly in literature, job satisfaction refers to the extent to which employees have "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (Locke, 1976, p. 1304). Another definition of job satisfaction refers to employees' affective reactions to their jobs (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). In both definitions, the emotional reactions are emphasized. On the other hand, Weiss (2002) does not consider job satisfaction as an affective reaction, but he refers to it as an evaluative judgment involving objects. In particular, Weiss (2002) defines job satisfaction as "a positive/negative evaluative judgment one makes about one's job or job situation" (p. 175).

One of the commonly used measures for job satisfaction is the five-scale Job Descriptive Index (JDI) (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969). Another set of job satisfaction measurements is provided by the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (Weiss, 1967). One more set of job satisfaction measurements is the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) introduced by Spector (1985) which consists of nine subscales. Usually the results of studies on job satisfaction vary as a result of using different scales. Some studies ask about overall

job satisfaction evaluations as it is in Rehman and Waheed's (2011) study. Other studies ask about specific dimensions of job satisfaction such as satisfaction with pay, promotion, supervision, co-workers, and the work itself (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974). For instance, Hackman and Oldham's (1975) operationalization of job satisfaction consists of several dimensions including overall satisfaction about the job; one's specific satisfaction about job security, peers and co-workers, pay and other compensations, opportunities for personal growth, and relationship with one's supervisor; and one's self-motivation for doing the job. The overall job satisfaction evaluation is the most preferable as it is a more inclusive measure than the summation of multiple dimension measures (Scarpello & Campbell, 1983).

Job satisfaction has always been a variable of concern for organizations. This importance of studying job satisfaction could be attributed to its effect on organizational commitment and job performance (Christen, Iyer, & Soberman, 2006; Cohrs, Abele, & Dette, 2006; Rayton, 2006; Zhang & Zheng, 2009). High job satisfaction could lead to better personal and organizational outcomes. Understanding job satisfaction and organizational commitment is important because they both have important impacts on performance, and they also can be influenced by other human resource practices and policies (Rayton, 2006), such as the use of social networking sites in the workplace. Several studies have looked at the precedents of job satisfaction while others looked at the consequences of it. The current study does both. In particular, this dissertation investigates whether the use of social networking sites in the workplace influences job satisfaction. Second, it examines the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment and job performance.

Social networking site use can help enhance employees' job satisfaction in the workplace, because social networking site use can serve as a social resource (Lin, Ensel, &

Vaughn, 1981). This social resource, in turn, influences job satisfaction through the provision of social support. Hurlbert (1991) found that social support positively affects job satisfaction. In their survey study, Yang, Lai, Chao, Chen, and Wang (2009) concluded that "social networks serve as a social resource which affects job satisfaction through the provision of supportiveness" (p. 698). Social networking site use, whether inside or outside of the organization, can be an outlet for employees to socialize. In fact, Keenan and Shiri (2009) argue that social networking sites, such as Facebook, Twitter, MySpace, and LinkedIn, encourage sociability in unique ways. Hamilton et al. (1989) suggested that socialization is essential for growth and satisfaction in the workplace. In addition, social relationships with friends, family and coworkers are probably the greatest single cause of happiness (Argyle, 2001).

One of the components of social networking site use intensity measurements is the sense of belonging to a social networking site community, which is similar to the sense of community defined in the sense of community theory (Chavis, Hogge, McMillan, & Wandersman, 1986; McMillan, 1996; Sarason, 1974). In a survey study, Winter-Collins and McDaniel (2000) investigated the relationship between job satisfaction and sense of belonging for 95 new graduates and found that a sense of belonging for new graduates is strongly associated with increased job satisfaction.

There has been a debate about the direction of the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance, and it is still not resolved yet. In one of the recent attempts to study the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance, Judge, Thoresen, Bono and Patton (2001) found that the average true correlation between job satisfaction and job performance was estimated at 0.30. One of the earliest specifications that suggests job

satisfaction leads to job performance is often attributed to the human relations movement (Judge et al., 2001). Strauss (1968) remarked, "Early human relationists viewed the morale–productivity relationship quite simply: higher morale would lead to improved productivity" (p. 264). In addition, the belief that attitude leads to behavior is the most commonly accepted one in the literature (Judge et al., 2001). Attitude is defined by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) as a "learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner with respect to a given object" (p. 6). Similarly, the theory of planned behavior theorizes that attitude leads to behavior (Ajzen, 1991). Recently published evidence indicates that high levels of job satisfaction generate higher productivity (Rehman & Waheed, 2011; Zhang & Zheng, 2009). For example, Zhang and Zheng (2009) found that higher job satisfaction improved employees' affective attachment to the organization which ultimately produces better job performance.

The generally accepted relationship between job satisfaction and productivity suggested by the human relationists has not been taken for granted. For instance, the expectancy-based theorists of motivation argued that satisfaction is a result of the rewards produced by performance (Lawler III & Porter, 1967; Naylor, Pritchard, & Ilgen, 1980; Vroom, 1964). This argument assumes that performance leads to outcomes that are satisfying to individuals. Similarly, Locke (1970) argued that job satisfaction is an outcome of job performance because "performance entails or leads to the attainment of the individual's important job values" (p. 484). Furthermore, in their self-determination theory, Deci and Ryan (1985) argued that behavior would lead to job satisfaction because satisfaction results from "the attainment of a goal that is expected to yield satisfaction" (p. 237). On the other hand, another set of studies found that there is no relationship between job satisfaction and

job performance (Brayfield & Crockett, 1955; Brown, Cron, & Leigh, 1993; Herzberg, 1987; Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985; Srivastva, Salipante, Cummings, Notz, Bigelow, & Waters, 1981; Vroom, 1964). In a meta-analytic study, Iaffaldano and Muchinsky (1985) found there is no relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. The current study, however, follows the social psychology assertion that attitude leads to behavior and therefore job satisfaction influences job performance.

In the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment, job satisfaction is related to organizational commitment (Bhuian & Abdul-Muhmin, 1997; Hellman & McMillan, 1994; Jamal, 1999; Yavas & Bodur, 1999). Some studies showed positive relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Johnston, Varadarajan, Futrell, & Sager, 1987). However, the direction of the relationship between them has been debated (Bluedorn, 1982). For instance, some studies such as Lund (2003), Vandenberg and Lace (1992), and Bateman and Strasser (1984), find that organizational commitment causes job satisfaction. This group of studies infers that employees' job satisfaction responds to their level of commitment to the organization. Other studies find that the relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction goes in both directions. Examples of those studies include Farkas and Tetrick (1989), Mathieu (1991), and Lance (1991). Mathieu (1991) and Lance (1991) infer that the relationship going from organizational commitment to job satisfaction is weaker than the one from job satisfaction to organizational commitment. Another set of studies find no relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment; these include Dougherty, Bluedorn, and Keon (1985), Curry, Wakefield, Price, and Mueller (1986), Currivan (1999), and Rayton (2006). These studies attribute the lack of relationship between job satisfaction and organizational

commitment to a likely existence of a "spurious relationship" between organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Rayton, 2006, p. 124).

On the other hand, the majority of studies such as Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982), Wallace (1995), Gaertner and Robinson (1999), Elangovan (2001), Lincoln and Kalleberg (2003), Lambert (2004), find job satisfaction to predict organizational commitment. Lincoln and Kalleberg (2003) persuasively argued that the direction of causation is from job satisfaction to organizational commitment. They found a stronger relationship between lagged job satisfaction and organizational commitment than the one between lagged organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Researchers accept that job satisfaction causes organizational commitment because it is more precise and more quickly shaped (Williams & Hazer, 1986). This group of studies believes that satisfying jobs will result in better commitment of employees to their organizations and may lead to better work outcomes such as job performance. Based on the majority of the literature (Bhuian & Abdul-Muhmin, 1997; Brown et al., 1993; Brown & Peterson, 1993), the current study posits that job satisfaction is a precedent of organizational commitment.

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment has been categorized into three types: "affective," "continuance," and "normative" (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 1). Workers who have strong affective commitments remain because they have emotional attachments to the organization they work in and because they want to stay; those with strong normative commitment feel they ought to stay; and those with strong continuance commitment stay because they need to (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Affective organizational commitment is defined by Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974) as "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (p. 604). Employees who identify with and feel attached to their organizations tend to work harder (Riketta, 2002). Affective commitment has been validated by other researchers (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Price & Mueller, 1981; Zhang & Zheng, 2009). Therefore, the current study intends to use affective commitment (hereafter referred to as organizational commitment) type and to study the organizational commitment relationship with social networking site use intensity, job satisfaction, and job performance.

Organizational commitment has been a variable of interest in organizational behavior research (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Riketta, 2002). This interest is due to its presupposed influence on work-related outcomes (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982; Randall, 1990). In particular, existing evidence has indicated that employees tend to work harder when they identify and feel attached to their organizations (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Hellman & McMillan, 1994; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002; Riketta, 2002; Zhang & Zheng, 2009). For example, in their survey of 292 Chinese workers, Zhang and Zheng (2009) found that organizational commitment had a positive significant effect on job performance. The study indicated that organizational commitment mediated the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. In general, there seems to be a consensus in the literature that there is a significant relationship between organizational commitment and job performance (Riketta, 2002).

Organizational commitment is one of the issues that concerns organizations. Extant literature has emphasized the significance of keeping committed employees for the success of

organizations (Chew & Chan, 2008; Messmer, 2000). In order to respond to such concerns, organizations are searching for human resource management mechanisms in order to retain those committed employees (Chew & Chan, 2008). Therefore, the current study argues that social networking site use in the workplace can work as an effective mechanism in boosting the organizational commitment of employees. The use of social networking sites in the workplace may provide employees with a sense of social interaction. This social interaction serves as a social resource (Lin et al., 1981) for employees in the organization which, in turn, enhances employees' affective attachment to their organizations. In addition, Rai (2011) found that social support had a significant effect on organizational commitment. For instance, Leidner et al. (2010) found that the use of an internal social networking site at USAA provided new hires with supporting resources that lead to high commitment to the IT department in particular and to the organization in general. In addition, social networking site use can work as an outlet for employees to socialize with their co-workers, friends, and family members (Leidner et al., 2010). In particular, Hellman and McMillan (1994) found that socialization has a positive relationship with organizational commitment, and that socialization explains more variance in organizational commitment than job satisfaction.

Absenteeism

Absenteeism is defined by Casio (2010) as "any failure of an employee to report for or to remain at work as scheduled, regardless of the reason" (p. 49). This definition includes excusable absences such as medical illness reasons. The causes of absenteeism range from personal illness to stress (Cascio, 2010). Social networking site use may help reduce absenteeism in an organization by providing employees with social support. For example,

Undén (1996) found that social support was associated with decreased absenteeism. Social support from coworkers, family members, or friends can reduce the causes of absenteeism (Hausknecht, Hiller, & Vance, 2008). In particular, social networking site use provides employees with the social support needed to protect them "from potentially pathological influences of stressful events" that could cause absenteeism (Ulleberg & Rundmo, 1997, p. 216).

Absenteeism is arguably a major source of concern for organizations (Hausknecht et al., 2008). In fact, absenteeism leads to several complications in the workplace including direct costs and indirect costs (Mayfield & Mayfield, 2009). For instance, in 2005 alone, absenteeism cost organizations in the United States, on average, $660 per employee (Cascio, 2010). Recently, an Australian study found that "the average cost of absence was $354 per person per day" (Emery, 2010, p. 3). Previous research showed that the average number of absences per year in the US is nine days (Emery, 2010). Absenteeism is argued to be one of the largest sources of lost productivity in organizations (Baker-McClearn, Greasley, Dale, & Griffith, 2010). Absenteeism has negative impact on worker productivity in terms of time lost and costs associated with workforce absenteeism (Brook, Kleinman, Jun, Corey-Lisle, & Iloeje, 2011). As previously mentioned, the cost of absenteeism is large, and, therefore, organizations need to look for ways to intervene to reduce it.

Several studies in the extant literature have investigated the relationship between absenteeism and job performance (Staw & Oldham, 1978; Stumpf & Dawley, 1981). For example, Stumpf and Dawley (1981) found low positive correlation between absenteeism and the overall performance rating, concluding that as long as attendance reached a minimum threshold, it will not affect rated performance. This finding supports Staw and Oldham's

(1978) findings. From a theoretical point of view, some studies expect a negative relationship between job performance and absenteeism, viewing them as a personal disposition toward organizational delinquency (Hogan & Hogan, 1989). On the other hand, other studies argue that absenteeism can work as a coping mechanism to relieve work-related stress (Staw & Oldham, 1978), and they believe absences will contribute in boosting performance of absentees. However, in a recent meta-analytic study, Bycio (1992) concluded that "frequently absent employees also tended to be poor performers on both rating and non-rating indices" (186). This dissertation, therefore, posits that absenteeism negatively affects job performance.

Turnover Intention

Turnover intention refers to the extent to which an employee's "intent, desire, and plan to leave the organization" (Igbaria & Greenhaus, 1992, p. 38). Turnover can be controllable – voluntary by the employee – or uncontrollable – involuntary, for example due to death (Cascio, 2010). Moreover, turnover can be functional such as the departure of a low performer or dysfunctional when an employee's departure would not benefit the organization (Cascio, 2010). The turnover costs to organizations range from indirect costs, such as loss of skilled employees with tacit organizational knowledge, to more direct ones, such as replacement and training costs (Mitchell, Holtom, & Lee, 2001). The cost of turnover per employee is estimated around 1.5 to 2.5 times an employee's annual salary (Cascio, 2010; Hewlett, 2007; Mayfield & Mayfield, 2008; Mitchell et al., 2001). Therefore, effectively minimizing turnover rates will favor organizations.

Social networking site use in the workplace can be a double-edged sword. On one hand, some studies argue that social networks positively influence turnover intention (Moynihan & Pandey, 2008). This opinion argues that individuals with large social networks tend to have better opportunities in finding jobs. Granovetter (1974) suggested that the size of a social network plays a big role in finding job opportunities, rather than the quality of the relationships. On the other hand, social networking site use can provide employees with social support that can help reduce turnover intention. For example, Kim and Stoner (2008) found evidence for a negative direct relationship between social support and turnover intention among employees. In addition, the majority of recent studies have shown that social networking site use helps reduce turnover intention (Leidner et al., 2010; Li & Bernoff, 2008).

Studying turnover intention and its relationship with social networking site use is pivotal because baby boomers are increasingly retiring and Generation Y are soon to replace them. Generation Y has grown up with major technological advances such as social networking sites. In particular, Leidner et al. (2010) found that Generation Y's ability to access Facebook at work was a great incentive for the retention of new hires as they can be socially connected with family, friends, and other coworkers in the workplace. In addition, Best Buy's internal social networking site successfully bridged the geographic gap between employees by allowing employees from different retail outlets to ask questions (Li & Bernoff, 2008). Not only did social networking site use help Best Buy with bridging geographical divide, but it also reduced turnover rate more than 50 percent (Li & Bernoff, 2008). Therefore, the current study expects social networking site use in the workplace to reduce turnover intention. For the sake of this study, turnover intention is assumed to

strongly predict actual turnover, because turnover intention has been shown, in the literature, to be a proxy for the actual turnover (Bluedorn, 1982; Mayfield & Mayfield, 2008; Mobley, Horner, & Hollingsworth, 1978; Roberts & Coulson, 1999).

Turnover intention could lead to higher absenteeism because employees who intend to leave the organization will need time to look for another job. Although some studies argue that the direction between turnover intention and absenteeism is from absenteeism to turnover intention (Keller, 1984; Mitra, Jenkins, & Gupta, 1992), the current study argues that turnover intention is a predictor and stimulant for absenteeism because employees who intend to leave their current organizations tend to need more time to look for jobs, attend workshops, and go for interviews. In support of this view, Hanisch and Hulin (1991) theorized that absenteeism, as well as other withdrawal behaviors such as lateness, reflect attitude variables including intention to quit. Consistent with the current study's argument, Abraham (1998) hypothesized that turnover intention is a predictor of absenteeism. Therefore, this study expects turnover intention to predict absenteeism.

Turnover intention can also have an impact on innovative behavior. This impact can be in both directions. For instance, Shalley, Gilson, and Blum (2000) found that there is a negative relationship between the work environment and creative requirements of a job and the intention to leave. Valentine, Godkin, Fleischman, & Kidwell (2011), though, did not find a significant relationship between group creativity and turnover intention. In addition, Shih and Susanto (2011) found that innovative behavior had a positive and significant relationship with turnover intention. However, those studies failed to consider effects of turnover intention on employees' innovative behavior contribution. That is, if an employee intends to leave, he or she is less likely to contribute creative ideas to improve an existing

process, technology, product, service, or work relationship. This is because the employee is leaving that job and will not have any stake in that improvement. In support of this notion, Avgar, Givan, and Mingwei (2011) pointed out "the effects of a dramatic workplace innovation were delivered, in part, through decreasing employee turnover" (p. 427). This suggests that turnover intention is an essential predictor of innovative behavior. Therefore, my current study argues that turnover intention is a negative predictor of innovative behavior.

Innovative Behavior

In general, innovation is defined as any "idea, practice, or material artifact" that was adopted by an individual, group, or organization for the purpose of change (Zaltman, Duncan, & Holbek, 1984). Workplace innovation is known by several names including individual innovation (Bunce & West, 1995), and innovative behavior (Janssen, 2004; Kleysen & Street, 2001). In particular, innovative behavior is defined by Kleysen and Street (2001) as:

> all individual actions directed at the generation, introduction and/or application of beneficial novelty at any organizational level. Such beneficial novelty might include the development of new product ideas or technologies, changes in administrative procedures aimed at improving work relations or the application of new ideas or technologies to work processes intended to significantly enhance their efficiency and effectiveness (p. 285).

Great ideas and innovative behavior are byproducts of people's minds. Social networking sites, therefore, are essential for empowering individuals to successfully explore, develop, and adopt new ideas (Azua, 2009). Fraser and Dutta (2008) suggest that

technologies such as social networking sites can enhance workplace innovative behavior by providing crowdsourcing strategies that involve customers in the collaborative dialogue. They also claim crowdsourcing strategies could threaten to replace Research and Development departments. Crowdsourcing refers to "the act of taking a task traditionally performed by a designated agent (such as an employee or a contractor) and outsourcing it by making an open call to an undefined but large group of people" (Howe, 2008, p. 1).

Social networking site use intensity is posited to positively affect innovative behavior of employees in this study. This effect can be through social support received from work and non-work resources. In support of this notion, Madjar, Oldham, and Pratt (2002) found that social support from family, friends, coworkers, and supervisors helped increase creativity of employees. In addition, social networking sites enhance innovation because they enable employees to access the appropriate resources in a way that ensures success of the intended innovation (Jain, 2010).

Innovative behavior is an essential factor in achieving high performance. Employees with better access to supporting resources tend to be more innovative, and their qualities are valuable, rare, and hard for competitors to imitate which, in turn, leads to competitive advantage of the firm (Lengnick-Hall, 1992). Several studies have found a positive link between innovation and organizational performance (Battor & Battor, 2010; Chaveerug & Ussahawanitchakit, 2008; Thornhill, 2006). Since a firm's performance is a collective effort of that firm's individuals, we can argue that innovative behavior leads to better job performance at the individual level as well. In support of this notion, Emery (2010) found that innovativeness leads to higher productivity.

Job Performance

Job performance has been a concern for organizations and researchers. For decades, researchers have been looking for different ways to enhance employee job performance. Job performance refers to "behaviors or actions that are relevant to the goals of the organization in question" (McCloy, Campbell, & Cudeck, 1994, p. 493). Performance is a multidimensional variable in which every job has distinct performance components (McCloy et al., 1994). Porter and Lawler (1968) argued that attitudes influence performance. For example, Christen, et al. (2006), Cohrs, et al. (2006), Rayton (2006), and Zhang and Zheng (2009) found evidence that job satisfaction – an attitudinal variable – influences job performance – a behavioral variable. In their empirical study, Lawler and Porter (1967) reported that "satisfaction of higher order needs would be the most closely related to performance" (p. 27). Although the causal direction between job satisfaction and job performance is still not resolved, Judge, Thoresen, Bono, and Patton (2001) found that the average true correlation between job satisfaction and job performance was estimated to be 0.30.

In terms of the relationship between organizational commitment and job performance, there seems to be a consensus in the literature that there is a significant relationship between organizational commitment and job performance, averaging 0.20 (Riketta, 2002). Recent studies showed that employees who identify themselves with the organization they work at tend to perform better (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Hellman & McMillan, 1994; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002; Riketta, 2002; Zhang & Zheng, 2009). For example, in a survey study, Zhang and Zheng (2009) found that organizational commitment had a positive significant effect on job performance.

In terms of absenteeism and job performance, a number of studies have examined the relationship between absenteeism and job performance (Staw & Oldham, 1978; Stumpf & Dawley, 1981). Some studies argue that the relationship between absenteeism and job performance is positive (Bycio, 1992; Staw & Oldham, 1978; Stumpf & Dawley, 1981). However, the majority of studies found the relationship between absenteeism and job performance to be negative (Hogan & Hogan, 1989; Viswesvaran, 2002).

It is argued that innovative behavior in the workplace influences the performance of the organization (Battor & Battor, 2010; Chaveerug & Ussahawanitchakit, 2008; Thornhill, 2006). For example, in comparing three Australian studies, Emery (2010) found that innovativeness leads to higher productivity.

Job performance is usually measured using subjective measures such as self-reports and supervisory ratings. For example, in their meta-analytic study, Mabe and West (1982) suggested that self-report measures may be a more valid indicator of performance than typically believed. In fact, Iaffaldano and Muchinsky (1985) did not find much difference in the correlations between job satisfaction and job performance when performance was measured in either objective or subjective ways. On the other hand, some studies use objective measures of performance which are defined by Bommer, Johnson, Rich, Podsakoff, and MacKenzie (1995) as “direct measures of countable behaviors or outcomes” (p. 588). In the current study, however, subjective measures of performance are used based on the job performance measures study by Rehman (2011) and Rehman & Waheed (2011).

Culture

There are several seminal theories on culture including Hall's (1959, 1969), Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1973), Hofstede's (1980a), and Trompenaars's (1994). The current study concentrates on Hofstede's five cultural dimensions: Power distance index, uncertainty avoidance index, masculinity, individualism, and Confucian dynamism – known as long-term orientation. Culture is defined by Hofstede (2001) as "the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another" (p. 9).

Initially, Hofstede studied the cultural values of employees from around 70 countries working for IBM subsidiaries from the period 1967 to 1973. In the first study, Hofstede identified four cultural dimensions, namely power distance index, uncertainty avoidance index, masculinity, and individualism (Hofstede, 1980a). Later, in the mid-80s, long-term orientation was added to Hofstede's model using a survey called the Chinese Value Survey used in 23 countries (Hofstede, 1984).

Power Distance Index refers to "the extent to which a society accepts the fact that power in institutions and organizations is distributed unequally" (Hofstede, 1980b, p. 45). Inequality and power are basic facts of any society, and it is common for those societies to be unequal, but the severity of inequality differs from one society to another (Hofstede, 1980a).

Uncertainty Avoidance Index refers to "the extent to which a society feels threatened by uncertain and ambiguous situations and tries to avoid these situations by providing greater career stability, establishing more formal rules, not tolerating deviant ideas and behaviors, and believing in absolute truths and the attainment of expertise" (Hofstede, 1980b, p. 45). People from uncertainty- avoiding cultures attempt to reduce the possibility of unstructured

situations that are surprising and different from usual. Uncertainty-avoiding cultures tend to resort to strict laws and rules in order to mitigate uncertain and unstructured situations. Another characteristic of people from uncertainty- avoiding cultures is a tendency to be motivated by inner nervous energy, and they are more emotional than people from uncertainty- accepting cultures who are more likely to be open to opinions different from what they are used to (Hofstede, 1980a).

Masculinity versus femininity refers to the distribution of roles between males and females. Results from the IBM studies showed that women's values are less different among societies than those of men; men's values tend to range in different countries from very assertive to competitive. Men's values also tend to range from different to modest and caring and are sometimes similar to women's values. The men in masculine countries seem to be characterized with assertiveness (Hofstede, 1980b). On the other hand, women in the masculine countries tend to be moderately assertive and competitive, but not as much in comparison to men. Therefore, masculine countries show a gap between women's and men's values (Hofstede, 1980a).

According to Hofstede (1980b) "individualism implies a loosely knit social framework in which people are supposed to take care of themselves and of their immediate families only, while collectivism is characterized by a tight social framework in which people distinguish between in-groups and out-groups; they expect their in-group (relatives, clan, organizations) to look after them, and in exchange for that they feel they owe absolute loyalty to it" (p. 45). In individualistic societies, ties among its members are loose. That is, individuals are expected to look after their immediate families unlike individuals from

collectivistic societies who tend to be integrated into in-groups and extended families which protects them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty (Hofstede, 1980a).

Long-term orientation versus short-term orientation is the fifth cultural dimension and was introduced in a study among students in 23 countries around the world, using a questionnaire called the Chinese Value Survey. Long-term orientation values are characterized by perseverance and thrift, while short-term orientation values are characterized by respect for tradition, maintaining credibility and respect, and fulfilling social obligations. This cultural dimension is found in the teachings of Confucius – an influential Chinese philosopher – and applies to countries without Confucian tradition (Hofstede, 1984).

Hofstede's dimensions are used in this current study as a cultural manipulation check for identifying whether the surveys collected from the United States of America and Yemen consist of different populations and each of those samples is representative of its country.

CHAPTER 3

HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Social networking site use is a relatively new phenomenon that deserves researchers' attention. The effects of social networking site use in the workplace have been part of a debate both in academia and in the business world. Social networking site use can be a source of reduced productivity, since it can be a waste of time. It also can be seen as a source of high performance. This study posits that social networking site use offers employees social support which can eventually lead to less absenteeism and turnover intention and higher morale, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, innovative behavior, and job performance.

Social Support via Social Networking Site Use Intensity

Social support is defined by Thoit (1982) as "that subset of persons in the individual's social network upon whom he or she relies for socioemotional aid, instrumental aid, or both" (p. 148). Socioemotional aid can be in the form of, for example, affection, understanding, or esteem. Instrumental aid refers to support such as advice, information, and assistance with work responsibilities. Cobb (1976), in addition, proposed that social support provides three types of information. These types reflect "emotional support, derived from intimate and close relationships and fulfilling affiliation and succorance needs; esteem support, generally proclaimed in public and meeting needs for recognition and bolstering sense of self-worth; and belonging support, providing a sense of orientation in society and membership in a definite social group" (Vaux, 1988, p. 7). There is a consensus that social support can come

from both work and non-work sources (Adams, King, & King, 1996; Beehr & McGrath, 1992)

The social support studies date back to the nineteenth century when Durkheim (1897/1951) studied the effect of the diminishing social ties in rural societies as a result of industrialization and how this isolation led to higher suicide rate in the industrialized societies. Similarly, the pervasiveness of advanced technological tools enabling working from distant locations other than the workplace contribute even more to the diminishing face-to-face social interaction and social ties. However, as a result of the change in the way people communicate and connect with each other (Coyle, 2008; O'Murchu et al., 2004) and in the nature of work as a result of globalization and technological advances (Sullivan, 1999), social networking sites have become an instrumental means of communicating work and non-work experiences to friends, coworkers, and family members. As a result, this study posits that social networking site use intensity proxies social support. That is, employees who use social networking sites in the workplace to a large extent – that is, feel strongly attached and have a sense of belonging to their online social networking sites – will receive high social support and that, therefore, will translate to less absenteeism and turnover rate and improved job satisfaction, organizational commitment, innovative behavior and job performance. Social support can be in the form of sharing tasks and feelings, exchanging information, helping in work tasks, and giving advice (Vaux, 1988). In fact, Fisher (1985) found that social support has a direct effect on work-related outcomes like work performance. In addition, Rai (2011) found that social support had a significant effect on organizational commitment.

Social networking site use can serve as a social resource (Lin et al., 1981) that provides social ties. This social resource, in turn, influences job satisfaction through the provision of social support. Hurlbert (1991) and Seers, McGee, Serey, and Graen (1983) found that social support positively affects job satisfaction. In addition, Yang et al. (2009) reported that "social networks serve as a social resource which affects job satisfaction through the provision of supportiveness" (p. 698).

Social networking site use intensity may reduce withdrawal behavior in an organization since social networking site use provides employees with social support. For example, Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002), in a meta analysis, found that social support reduces withdrawal behavior. Social support from coworkers, family members, or friends can reduce the causes of absenteeism (Hausknecht et al., 2008). In particular, social networking site use provides employees with the social support needed to protect them "from potentially pathological influences of stressful events" that could cause absenteeism (Ulleberg & Rundmo, 1997, p. 216). Undén (1996) found that social support was associated with decreased absenteeism. As for the effect on turnover intention, Kim and Stoner (2008) found evidence for a negative direct relationship between social support and turnover intention among employees.

Social networking site use intensity is posited to positively affect innovative behavior of employees in this study. This effect can come through social support received from work and non-work resources. In support of this notion, Madjar, Oldham, and Pratt (2002) found that social support from family, friends, coworkers, and supervisors helped increase creativity of employees.

Social Networking Site Use Intensity

Several studies have focused on social networking sites, but they rarely touch on the effects of social networking sites on job performance. For instance, North (2010) examined the use of social networking sites in the workplace by prospective and current employees. He found that although some participants find social networking site use to have negative aspects, they believe that its use at work is worthwhile.

Social networking sites can be internal or public. Leidner et al. (2010) describe the use of an internal social networking system at USAA, an investment/insurance firm based in San Antonio, Texas, and how it helped "new hires be assimilated into the IT department" (p. 229). The authors discuss the personal and organizational benefits of the system. Some of these benefits include "increasing the feeling of cultural belonging, making the environment of entry-level IT workers exciting, and creating high morale among a new Generation Y workforce" (p. 229).

Two uses of social networking sites are developing new relationships as well as maintaining old ones. Ellison et al. (2007) studied the association between "the formation and maintenance of social capital and the use of Facebook" (p. 1143). Ellison et al. (2007) introduced a construct measurement called Facebook intensity. The authors studied the relationship among three types of social capital bridging, bonding, and maintained social capital and the Facebook intensity construct. The results showed a strong association between the use of Facebook and the types of social capital. The study also found that Facebook intensity might benefit users with "low self-esteem and low life satisfaction" (p. 1143). This finding stimulates curiosity of whether social networking site use intensity will

also help benefit employees with job satisfaction and work-related outcomes in general. Based on their study, social networking site construct was developed in the current study.

Social networking site use has benefits and drawbacks in the workplace. Bennett et al. (2010) provided a literature review on the advantages and disadvantages of social networking site use in the workplace and found that the advantages of social networking site use in the workplace are still underestimated by many organizations.

Some argue that the use of social networking sites in the workplace leads to better staff productivity, as a result of higher morale, among other benefits (AT&T, 2008; Bennett et al., 2010; Leidner et al., 2010; Li & Bernoff, 2008; Patel & Jasani, 2010). Others argue that social networking site use in the workplace leads to a loss of staff productivity (Accountemps, 2010; Nucleus, 2009; O'Murchu et al., 2004; Rooksby et al., 2009; Shepherd, 2011; Wavecrest, 2006). In fact, Nucleus Research (2009) reports that the use of Facebook at work results in a 1.5 percent decrease in productivity. On the other hand, Leidner et al. (2010) found that the ability of employees to access Facebook at work was a great incentive for the retention of new hires, as they can be socially connected with family, friends and other coworkers in the workplace. In addition, a European study found that 65 percent of employees believed that using social networking sites helped them be more productive (AT&T, 2008). This dissertation posits that social networking site use intensity can provide employees with, what McQuail (2010) defines in his mass communication theory, a sense of "social interaction" with friends, family members, and coworkers. This social interaction provides employees with valued informal resources, including work-related resources for task advice and strategic information (Burton, Wu, & Prybutok, 2010; Sparrowe, Liden, Wayne, & Kraimer, 2001). Some studies use "social support" interchangeably with "social

interaction" (Vaux, 1988). In addition, Fisher (1985) found that social support has a direct effect on work-related outcomes like work performance. This leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: Social networking site use intensity is positively associated with job performance.

By the same token, social networking site use intensity can enhance employees' job satisfaction in the workplace. This is because social networking site use can serve as a social resource (Lin et al., 1981) that provides social ties. This social resource, in turn, influences job satisfaction through the provision of social support. Hurlbert (1991) and Seers et al. (1983) found that social support positively affects job satisfaction. In addition, Yang et al. (2009) reported that "social networks serve as a social resource which affects job satisfaction through the provision of supportiveness" (p. 698). This leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: Social networking site use intensity is positively associated with job satisfaction.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction refers to the extent to which employees have "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (Locke, 1976, p. 1304). A debate continues about the direction of the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance, and it is still not yet resolved. In one of the recent attempts

to study the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance, Judge, Thoresen, Bono and Patton (2001) found that the average true correlation between job satisfaction and job performance was estimated to be 0.30. One of the earliest specifications that suggests job satisfaction leads to job performance is often attributed to the human relations movement (Judge et al., 2001). Strauss (1968) remarked, "Early human relationists viewed the morale–productivity relationship quite simply: higher morale would lead to improved productivity" (p. 264). In addition, the belief that attitude leads to behavior is the most commonly accepted one in the literature (Judge et al., 2001). Attitude is defined by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) as a "learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner with respect to a given object" (p. 6). Similarly, the theory of planned behavior claims that attitude leads to behavior (Ajzen, 1991).

Based on the generally accepted relationship between job satisfaction and productivity suggested by human relationists, this dissertation follows the general view that attitude leads to behavior, and more satisfied employees perform better. This leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3: Job satisfaction is positively associated with job performance.

Job satisfaction is related to organizational commitment (Bhuian & Abdul-Muhmin, 1997; Hellman & McMillan, 1994; Jamal, 1999; Yavas & Bodur, 1999). Some studies showed a positive relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Johnston et al., 1987), but the direction of the relationship between them is debated (Bluedorn, 1982). However, Lincoln and Kalleberg (2003) persuasively argued that the

direction of causation is from job satisfaction to organizational commitment. They found a stronger relationship between lagged job satisfaction and organizational commitment than the one between lagged organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Therefore, based on the majority of literature (Bhuian & Abdul-Muhmin, 1997; Brown et al., 1993; Brown & Peterson, 1993; Lincoln & Kalleberg, 2003), the current study hypothesizes that job satisfaction is a predictor of organizational commitment. The aforementioned discussion leads to the following hypothesis:

> ***Hypothesis 4:*** Job satisfaction is positively associated with organizational commitment.

Organizational Commitment

Affective organizational commitment is defined by Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974) as "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (p. 604). Commitment has been categorized into three types: "affective," "continuance," and "normative" (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Workers who have strong affective commitments remain because they have an emotional attachment to the organization they work in and because they want to stay; those with strong normative commitment feel they ought to stay; and those with strong continuance commitment stay because they need to (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Employees who identify with and feel attached to their organization tend to work harder (Riketta, 2002). Affective commitment has been widely used and validated by other researchers (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Price & Mueller, 1981). In particular, existing evidence in the literature has indicated that employees tend to

work harder when they identify with and feel attached to their organizations (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Hellman & McMillan, 1994; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002; Riketta, 2002; Zhang & Zheng, 2009). In general, there is a consensus in the literature about a significant relationship between organizational commitment and job performance, averaging 0.20 (Riketta, 2002). Job performance is an outcome of affective commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Hellman & McMillan, 1994; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002; Riketta, 2002). In accordance, this study posits that organizational commitment is positively associated with job performance. This leads to the following hypothesis:

> ***Hypothesis 5:*** Organizational commitment is positively associated with job performance.

Social networking site use intensity may also have an impact on organizational commitment. The use of social networking sites in the workplace provides employees with a sense of social interaction. This social interaction serves as a social resource for employees in the organization which, in turn, enhances employees' affective attachment to their organizations. In addition, Rai (2011) found that social support had a significant effect on organizational commitment. For instance, Leidner et al. (2010) found that the use of an internal social networking site at USAA provided new hires with supporting resources that lead to high commitment to the IT department in particular and the organization in general. In addition, Hellman and McMillan (1994) found that socialization has a positive relationship with organizational commitment and that socialization explains more variance in

organizational commitment than that of satisfaction. This leads to the following hypothesis:

> ***Hypothesis 6:*** Social networking site use intensity is positively associated with organizational commitment.

Absenteeism

Absenteeism is defined by Casio (2010) as "Any failure to report for or remain at work as scheduled, regardless of the reason" (p. 49). Social networking site use may reduce absenteeism in an organization since social networking site use provides employees with social support. Undén (1996) found that social support was associated with decreased absenteeism. Social support from coworkers, family members, or friends can reduce the causes of absenteeism (Hausknecht et al., 2008). In particular, social networking site use provides employees with the social support needed to protect them from potentially pathological influences of stressful events that could cause absenteeism (Ulleberg & Rundmo, 1997). This leads to the following hypothesis:

> ***Hypothesis 7:*** Social networking site use intensity is negatively associated with absenteeism.

Absenteeism leads to several complications in the workplace including direct costs and indirect costs (Mayfield & Mayfield, 2009). For instance, in 2005 alone, absenteeism cost organizations in the United States on average $660 per employee (Cascio, 2010). A recent Australian study also found that the average cost of absences per capita per day was

$354 (Emery, 2010). Absenteeism is one of the largest sources of lost productivity in organizations (Baker-McClearn et al., 2010). Absenteeism has a negative impact on worker productivity in terms of time lost and costs associated with workforce absenteeism (Brook et al., 2011). In a meta-analytic study, Bycio (1992) concluded that "frequently absent employees also tended to be poor performers on both rating and non-rating indices" (186). This leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 8: Absenteeism is negatively associated with job performance.

Turnover Intention

Turnover intention refers to the extent to which an employee's "intent, desire, and plan to leave the organization" (Igbaria & Greenhaus, 1992, p. 38). The costs of turnover to organizations range from indirect costs, such as loss of skilled employees with tacit organizational knowledge, to more direct ones such as replacement and training costs (Mitchell et al., 2001). The cost of turnover per employee is estimated to be around 1.5 to 2.5 times an employee's annual salary (Hewlett, 2007; Mitchell et al., 2001). Therefore, finding effective ways to minimize turnover rate will favor organizations. Social networking site use can be a double-edged sword. On one hand, some studies argue that social networks positively influence turnover intention (Moynihan & Pandey, 2008). This opinion states that individuals with large social networks tend to have better opportunities for finding jobs. Granovetter (1974) suggested that the size of a social network, rather than the quality of the relationships, plays a big role in finding job opportunities. On the other hand, the majority of

recent studies have shown that social networking site use helps reduce turnover intention (Leidner et al., 2010; Li & Bernoff, 2008).

Studying turnover intention and its relationship with social networking site use is relevant because baby boomers are increasingly retiring and Generation Y will soon to replace them. Generation Y have grown up with major technological advances, such as social networking sites. Leidner et al. (2010) found that the ability of Generation Y to access Facebook at work was a great incentive for the retention of new hires as they can be socially connected with family, friends, and other coworkers in the workplace. In addition, Best Buy's internal social networking site was successful in bridging the divide between employees and connecting employees from different retail outlets to ask questions and share information with each other (Li & Bernoff, 2008). Not only did social networking site use help Best Buy with bridging geographical divide, but it also reduced turnover rate more than 50 percent (Li & Bernoff, 2008).

Social networking site use can provide employees with social support that can help reduce turnover intention. For example, Kim and Stoner (2008) found evidence for a negative direct relationship between social support and turnover intention among employees. In addition, the majority of recent studies have shown that social networking site use helps reduce turnover intention (Leidner et al., 2010; Li & Bernoff, 2008). Therefore, this dissertation argues that social networking site use intensity in the workplace helps reduce turnover intention. This leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 9: Social networking site use intensity is negatively associated with turnover intention.

Turnover intention could lead to higher absenteeism because employees who intend to leave the organization will need time to look for another job. Although some studies argue that the direction between turnover intention and absenteeism is from absenteeism to turnover intention (Keller, 1984; Mitra et al., 1992), the current study posits that turnover intention is a predictor and stimulant for absenteeism as employees who intend to leave their current organizations tend to need more time to look for jobs, attend workshops, and go for interviews. In support of this view, Hanisch and Hulin (1991) theorized that absenteeism and other withdrawal behaviors, such as lateness, reflect attitude variables including intention to quit. Consistent with the current study's argument, Abraham (1998) hypothesized that turnover intention is a predictor of absenteeism. Therefore, my study expects turnover intention to predict absenteeism. This leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 10: Turnover intention is positively associated with absenteeism.

Turnover intention can also impact innovative behavior. This impact can be in both directions. For instance, Shalley, Gilson, and Blum (2000) found that there is a negative relationship between work environment and creative requirements of a job and the intention to leave. Valentine, Godkin, Fleischman, & Kidwell (2011) did not find a significant relationship between group creativity and turnover intention. In addition, Shih and Susanto (2011) found innovative behavior had a positive and significant relationship with turnover

intention. However, those studies failed to consider the effect of turnover intention on employees' innovative behavior contributions. That is, if an employee intends to leave, he or she is less likely to contribute creative ideas to improve an existing process, technology, product, service, or work relationship. This is because the employee is leaving that job and will not have any stake in that improvement. In support of this notion, Avgar, Givan, and Mingwei (2011) pointed out that "the effects of a dramatic workplace innovation were delivered, in part, through decreasing employee turnover" (p. 427). This suggests that turnover intention is an essential predictor of innovative behavior. Therefore, my study argues that turnover intention is a negative predictor of innovative behavior. This leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 11: Turnover intention is negatively associated with innovative behavior.

Innovative Behavior

Innovation is defined as any "idea, practice, or material artifact" that was adopted by an individual, group, or organization for the purpose of change (Zaltman et al., 1984, p. 10). Workplace innovation is known by several names, such as individual innovation (Bunce & West, 1995) and innovative behavior (Janssen, 2004; Kleysen & Street, 2001). In particular, innovative behavior is defined by Kleysen and Street (2001) as:

> all individual actions directed at the generation, introduction and or application of beneficial novelty at any organizational level. Such beneficial novelty might include the development of new product ideas or technologies, changes in administrative procedures aimed at improving work relations or the application of new ideas or

technologies to work processes intended to significantly enhance their efficiency and effectiveness (p. 285).

Great ideas and innovative behaviors are byproducts of people's minds. Social networking sites, therefore, are essential for empowering individuals to successfully explore, develop, and adopt new ideas (Azua, 2009). Fraser and Dutta (2008) suggest that technologies such as social networking sites can enhance workplace innovative behavior by providing crowdsourcing strategies that involve customers in the collaborative dialogue. They also claim crowdsourcing strategies could threaten to replace Research and Development departments. Crowdsourcing refers to "the act of taking a task traditionally performed by a designated agent (such as an employee or a contractor) and outsourcing it by making an open call to an undefined but large group of people" (Howe, 2008, p. 1). Social networking site use intensity is posited to positively affect innovative behavior of employees in this study. This effect can be through social support received from work and non-work resources. In support of this notion, Madjar, Oldham, and Pratt (2002) found that social support from family, friends, coworkers, and supervisors helped increase creativity of employees. In addition, social networking sites enhance innovation because they enable employees to access the appropriate resources in a way that ensures success of the intended innovation (Jain, 2010). This leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 12: Social networking site use intensity is positively associated with innovative behavior.

Innovative behavior is an essential factor in achieving high performance. Employees with better access to supporting resources are more innovative and their qualities are hard for competitors to imitate which, in turn, leads to the firm's competitive advantage (Lengnick-Hall, 1992). Several studies have found a positive link between innovative behavior and organizational performance (Battor & Battor, 2010; Chaveerug & Ussahawanitchakit, 2008; Thornhill, 2006). Since the performance of a firm is a collective effort of individuals in that firm, it can be argued that innovative behavior leads to better job performance at the individual level as well. In support of this notion, Emery (2010) found that innovativeness leads to higher productivity. This leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 13: Innovative behavior is positively associated with job performance.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY

Research Model

The hypotheses presented in the previous section are depicted by the research model presented in Figure 1. All research hypotheses are summarized in Table 1.

Figure 1: Research model and hypotheses

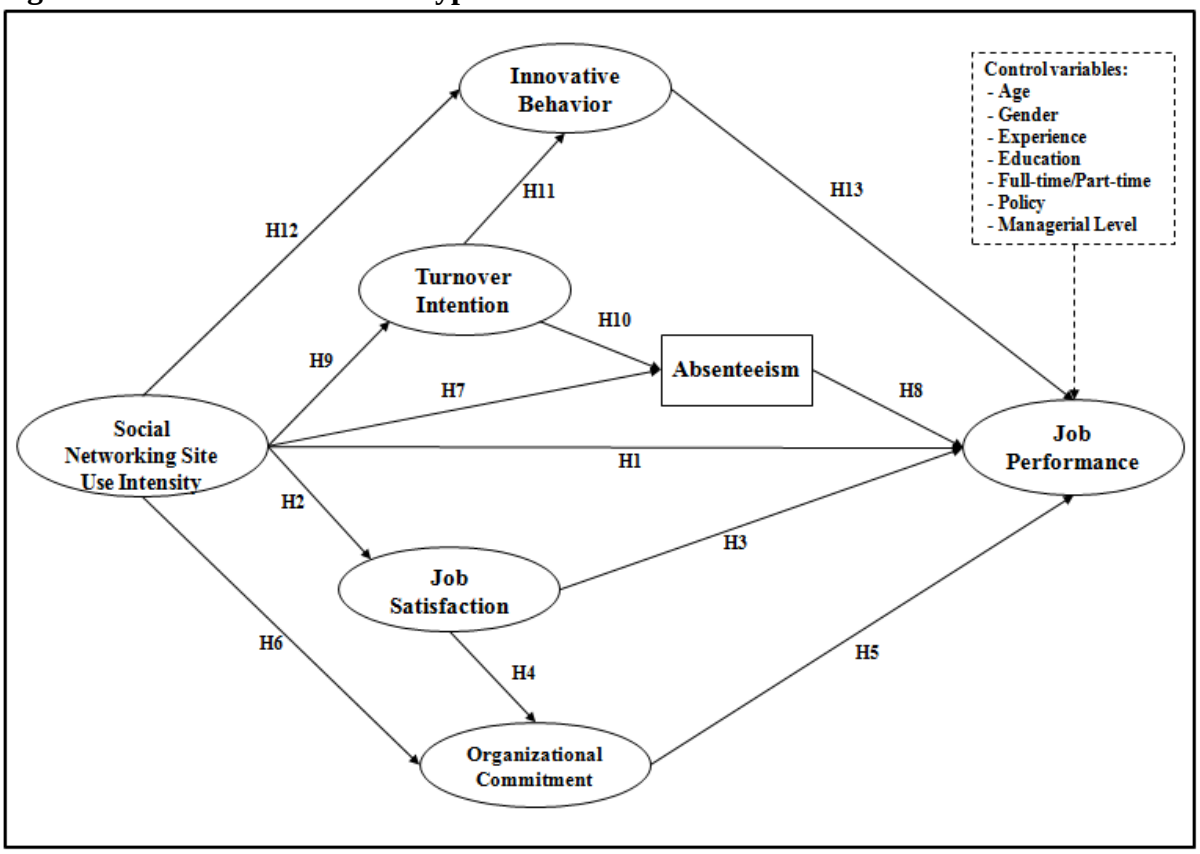


Table 1: Summary of research hypotheses

Hypothesis 1	Social networking site use intensity is positively associated with job performance.
Hypothesis 2	Social networking site use intensity is positively associated with job satisfaction.
Hypothesis 3	Job satisfaction is positively associated with job performance.
Hypothesis 4	Job satisfaction is positively associated with organizational commitment.
Hypothesis 5	Organizational commitment is positively associated with job performance.

Table 1: Continued

Hypothesis 6	Social networking site use intensity is positively associated with organizational commitment.
Hypothesis 7	Social networking site use intensity is negatively associated with absenteeism.
Hypothesis 8	Absenteeism is negatively associated with job performance.
Hypothesis 9	Social networking site use intensity is negatively associated with turnover intention.
Hypothesis 10	Turnover intention is positively associated with absenteeism.
Hypothesis 11	Turnover intention is negatively associated with innovative behavior.
Hypothesis 12	Social networking site use intensity is positively associated with innovative behavior.
Hypothesis 13	Innovative behavior is positively associated with job performance.

Measurement

Several constructs were operationalized as latent variables in order to minimize measurement error from perception-based question-statements and to reduce collinearity among latent variables (Gefen, Straub, & Boudreau, 2000; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). All latent variables were modeled as reflective (Chin, 1998).

A multidimensional scale developed by Ellison et al. (2007) was used to examine social networking site use intensity in the workplace after modifying wording including replacing "Facebook" with "social networking." This social networking site use intensity scale is comprised of six indicators measuring the intensity of the use of social networking sites in the workplace by employees. Those indicators inquire about an employee's degree of use and attachment to the use of social networking sites in the workplace. A sample of these questions include "At work, my social networking sites' account/s are/is a part of my everyday activity," "At work, social networking sites have become part of my daily routine," "At work, I feel I am part of the social networking sites community," and "At work, I feel out of touch when I haven't logged onto social networking sites for a while." A seven-point

Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = moderately disagree, 3 = slightly disagree, 4 = neutral, 5 = slightly agree, 6 = moderately agree, to 7 = strongly agree was used for the social networking site use intensity indicators scale.

Organizational commitment was measured using six-indicator affective commitment scale adopted from Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982). A sample indicator from the organizational commitment scale is "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization." A seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree was used for each indicator.

For job satisfaction, a multidimensional scale developed based on Rehman (2011) and Rehaman and Waheed (2011) was used to measure the overall satisfaction of employees with their jobs. A sample indicator from the job satisfaction scale is "I am very satisfied with my current job." All indicators were measured on a seven-point Likert scale from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree.

The absenteeism variable was measured using a one-indicator scale adopted from Mayfield and Mayfield (2009). The question, "How many work days have you missed in the past 30 days?" was used to capture the number of days missed in the past month.

The Mayfield and Mayfield (2008) seven-indicator scale measuring turnover intention was used. Two sample scale indicators include "I am actively looking for another job" and "I would feel very happy about working for another employer." A seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree was used.

A multi-dimensional scale developed by Kleysen and Street (2001) was used to measure innovative behavior. This scale consists of six indicators inquiring about how often an employee explores opportunities and generates, investigates, champions, and implements

new ideas at the workplace. A sample of these questions includes “In your current job, how often do you look for opportunities to improve an existing process, technology, product, service, or work relationship?,” “In your current job, how often do you generate ideas or solutions to address problems?,” and “In your current job, how often do you incorporate new ideas for improving an existing process, technology, product or service into daily routines?”

A three-indicator scale developed based on Rehman (2011) and Rehaman and Waheed (2011) was used to measure the overall job performance of employees. A sample indicator from the job performance scale is “My performance in my current job is excellent.” The indicators were measured on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1= strongly disagree to 5 =strongly agree.

The social networking site use intensity latent variable was measured using six indicators, job satisfaction was measured using five indicators, organizational commitment by using five indicators, absenteeism by one indicator, turnover intention by seven indicators, innovative behavior by six indicators, and perceived performance was measured using three indicators. See Appendices A and B for a description of the complete measurement instrument used in English and Arabic respectively.

Several control variables were included to remove other possible explanations for the relationships between social networking site use intensity and job performance, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, absenteeism, innovative behavior, and turnover intention. Specifically, the control variables included gender, age, education, organizational tenure, organizational level, whether the organization has a formal policy on social networking site use, and full- or part-time employment.

Participants in this study were asked to report their age. Gender was included in the instrument and was coded as follows: female = 0 and male = 1. Participants in this study were asked to indicate the number of years and/or months they had been employed by the current organization. Information about the highest educational degree obtained by participants was collected on five choices: high school = 1, two-year degree = 2, four-year degree = 3, master's degree = 4, and doctoral degree = 5. Participants were asked to report their organizational level by way of five options coded as junior staff = 1, senior staff = 2, junior manager = 3, middle-level manager = 4, and senior manager = 5.

Participants were asked to identify whether they hold a part-time or a full-time position. Positions were coded as follows: full-time = 1 and part-time = 0. Data on whether the current organization a participant works at has a formal social networking site use policy or not was collected. Participants whose organization had a formal policy were coded as 1; and those who did not have a formal policy were coded as 0.

Data Collection

This study consists of a total 426 completed questionnaires obtained from professionals across the US and Yemen. A total of 1000 questionnaires were sent in Yemen and 700 in the US, but only 204 were received from Yemen and 222 were received from the US; for 20.4 and 31.7 percent response rates, respectively. While all surveys collected from Yemen were obtained online, only 151of the US surveys were received online with an additional 71 received by mail.

US Sample

The most widely used social networking sites among the US respondents were Facebook (91.0 percent), Twitter (10.8 percent), LinkedIn (9.5 percent), Google+ (6.8 percent), other (6.3 percent), and MySpace (0 percent). Females contributed 51.4 percent of responses. The average age of respondents was 31.2 years, with a standard deviation of 11.6 years. In terms of their education level, 10.4 percent of respondents had only completed high school, 12.2 percent had a two-year college degree, 36.9 percent had a four-year college degree, 30.6 percent had a master's degree, and 9.5 percent had a doctoral degree.

In terms of employment status, 47.7 percent of respondents were employed full-time, with the others employed on a part-time basis. Policies restricting or regulating the use of social networking sites were present in 43.7 percent of the organizations employing respondents. The rank of respondents' managerial level was 32.4 percent junior staff, 18.5 percent senior staff, 9.5 percent junior managers, 18.5 percent middle-level managers, and 18.0 percent senior managers.

Several control variables were included: gender (male/female), employment status (full-time/part-time), ethnicity, education level (high school through doctorate), social networking site use policy at work (presence/absence), managerial rank, and age in years.

Yemen Sample

The most popular social networking sites among Yemen respondents were Facebook (100 percent), Google+ (35.8 percent), Twitter (19.1 percent), LinkedIn (2.9 percent), other (5.4 percent), and MySpace (0.5 percent). Females contributed 3.0 percent of responses. The

average age of the respondents was 31.0 years, with a standard deviation of 6.7 years. In terms of their education level, 5.9 percent of respondents had only completed high school, 15.7 percent had a two-year college degree, 58.3 percent had a four-year college degree, 13.7 percent had a master's degree, and 6.4 percent had a doctoral degree.

In terms of employment status, 69.6 percent of the respondents were employed full-time, with the others employed on a part-time basis. Policies restricting or regulating the use of social networking sites were present in 27.0 percent of the organizations employing respondents. The rank of respondents' managerial level was 23.5 percent junior staff, 22.1 percent senior staff, 21.1 percent junior managers, 27.0 percent middle-level managers, and 6.4 percent senior managers.

Several control variables were included: gender (male/female), employment status (full-time/part-time), ethnicity, education level (high school through doctorate), social networking site use policy at work (presence/absence), managerial rank, and age in years.

Table 2 shows the breakdown of descriptive statistics by each control variable. One anomaly in the data is the low number of female participants in the Yemen sample. This can be explained by cultural differences where fewer females participate in the workforce and have access to social networking sites. In fact, females account for only 12.1 percent of the workforce in Yemen (Al-Sabeh, 2012).

Table 2: Control variables descriptive statistics

Category	US Sample	Yemen Sample	Entire Sample
Total Subjects	222	204	426
Males	114 (51%)	198 (97%)	312 (73%)
Females	108 (49%)	6 (3%)	114 (27%)
Junior Staff	79 (36%)	13 (6%)	92 (22%)
Senior Staff	41 (19%)	55 (27%)	96 (23%)
Junior Manager	21 (10%)	43 (21%)	64 (15%)
Middle-level Manager	41 (19%)	45 (22%)	86 (20%)

Table 2: Continued

Category	US Sample	Yemen Sample	Entire Sample
Senior-level Manager	40 (18%)	48 (24%)	88 (21%)
High-school	23 (10%)	12 (6%)	35 (8%)
2-year college	27 (12%)	32 (16%)	59 (14%)
Bachelor degree	82 (37%)	119 (58%)	201 (47%)
Masters degree	68 (31%)	28 (14%)	96 (23%)
Doctorate degree	22 (10%)	13 (6%)	35 (8%)
Avg. Age in years	31.23	31.02	31.13
Avg. Tenure in years	4.06	5.23	4.65

Translation of the Instrument

In order to be used in Yemen, the instrument was first translated from English to Arabic by the researcher, a native Arabic speaker educated in the United States. In addition, another native Arabic speaker, a Fulbright Scholar teaching Arabic at a university in the southwestern United States, back-translated the survey from Arabic to English. The differences between the two versions were discussed to minimize any major alteration in meanings. In order to rule out any possible alterations in meanings, a third native Arabic speaker, currently an assistant professor in English Literature at a US university identified whether there was any loss of meaning as a result of the translation or the back-translation. He confirmed that both versions still hold the same meaning.

Data Preparation

For data preparation, a check for missing data was conducted. The Yemen sample had less missing data because the online instrument was programmed in a way that required each field to be filled. In a few cases, respondents filled out some fields with "NA" indicating their

desire not to answer a particular question, mostly demographic ones. As for the US sample, there were few missing data, mostly from the mail surveys, but less missing data from the online instrument. In total for both samples, less than 10 percent of the variable values were missing. In this case, it is permissible to conduct a data replacement procedure without risking the integrity of the data set (Kline, 2005). The software used in this study automatically standardizes the data and replaces the missing data with the column mean (Kock, 2012).

Cultural Manipulation Check

It is important to ensure that the samples collected from the two groups are representative of their respective countries. For this purpose, the survey included 15 questions adopted from Hofstede's cultural dimensions study (Hofstede, 1980b, 1993). The analysis of those questions will reveal any expected differences in the cultural dimensions between the two countries and will ensure the representations of the respondents of their respective countries. Although Hofstede's study has received criticism, it has been used by several studies (Rai, Maruping, & Venkatesh, 2009; Ribière, Haddad, & Philippe Vande, 2010; Srite, 2006). Each of the five cultural dimensions consists of three indicators in the instrument used for this study (see Appendices A and B). Yemen is part of the Arab countries index listed in Hofstede's cultural dimension study (Hofstede, 2001). When comparing the power distance dimension, Yemen received an index of 80 and the US an index of 40, with a difference of 40. For uncertainty avoidance, Yemen received a score of 68 while the US received a score of 46, a difference of 22. In the individualism/collectivism dimension, Yemen received a score of 38 while the US received a score of 91, a difference of 53. For

masculinity/femininity, Yemen received a score of 53 and the US a score of 62, a difference of nine. However, the last cultural dimension score (long-/short-term orientation) is not available for Yemen. Table 3 shows the index scores and the ranks for Yemen and the US.

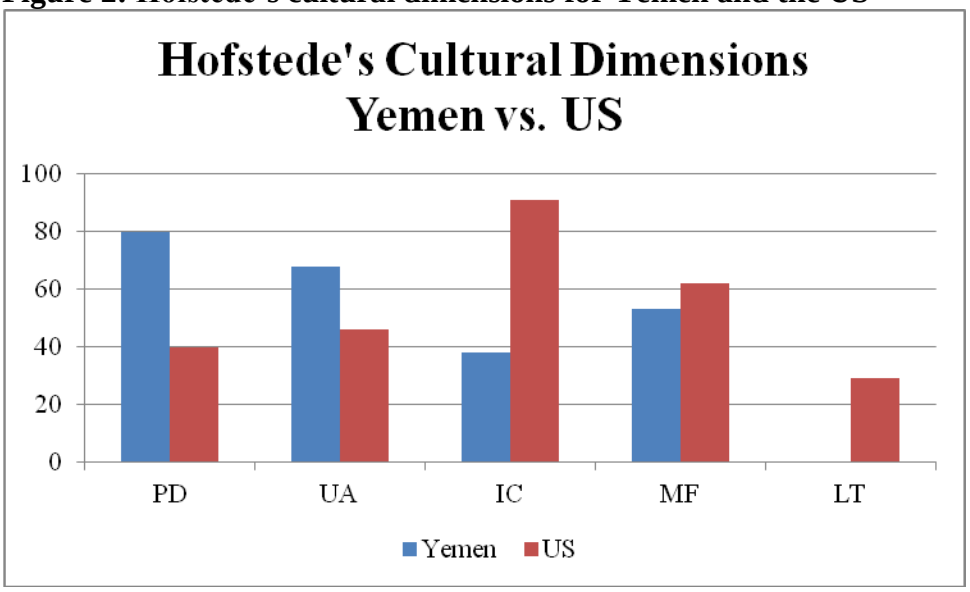
Table 3: Hofstede's cultural dimensions: Yemen vs. the US

Country	Power Distance		Uncertainty Avoidance		Individualism /Collectivism		Masculinity /Femininity		Long- /Short-term Orientation	
	Index	Rank	Index	Rank	Index	Rank	Index	Rank	Index	Rank
Yemen	80	7	68	27	38	26	53	23	N/A	N/A
US	40	38	46	43	91	1	62	15	29	27
Difference		31		16		25		8		27

From Hofstede (2001, p. 500)

When looking at Table 3, one could predict significant cultural differences to be found between the US and Yemen, as previously found by Hofstede's (2001) indexes. Previous studies in the extant literature used only one (Tan, Wei, Watson, Clapper, & McLean, 1998) or two (Chatelain-Jardon, 2010) dimensions to compare cultural differences among countries. This suggests that using one dimension would suffice to represent the cultural differences between countries. Rather than using only one dimension, two cultural dimensions are used in the current study in order to validate that the US sample is culturally different from that of Yemen. The two cultural dimensions selected in order to perform a test of differences between the two groups are masculinity/femininity and power distance because they are the dimensions with the lowest (8) and highest (31) ranking differences between the two countries, respectively (shaded cell in Table 3).

Figure 2: Hofstede's cultural dimensions for Yemen and the US



Notes:
- PD = power distance; UA = uncertainty avoidance; IC = individualism/collectivism; MF = masculinity/femininity; LT = long-/short-term orientation.
- Long-term orientation score for Yemen is not available.

WarpPLS 3.0 is used to conduct the cultural manipulation check assessment where a country dummy variable is used to do the comparison. The country dummy variable is pointed at the cultural dimension latent variables that aggregate the respective cultural dimension indicators collected in this study. If there are significant betas, this would show there is a statistically significant difference in cultural dimension variability between the two countries, indicating samples are representative of their respective countries.

Table 4: Cultural manipulation check between Yemen and the US

	Beta	P-Value
Masculinity/Femininity	-0.045	0.178 ^{NS}
Power Distance	-0.151	0.002***

Notes:
- * = P<0.05; ** = P<0.01; *** = P<0.001; NS = not statistically significant.

As expected, the test showed a significant difference between Yemen and the US in power distance (see Table 4). This means that the two samples are statistically different from each other in the power distance dimension. As anticipated, the masculinity/femininity dimension, in which Yemen and the US are similar, is not significantly different. This shows that the two samples are representative of their countries because they are not statistically different in the only dimension where they are closely similar. This allows us to conclude that, in accordance with Hofstede's cultural study, the two samples are different and that each represents its respective country.

Partial Least Squares

The data will be analyzed employing Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), a second generation multivariate statistical technique used to estimate the parameters of a structural model. The main goal of SEM is to test hypothesized models that depict relationships among variables (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). SEM has become popular among researchers because it takes into account measurement error when statistically analyzing data. SEM can be either variance-based, like those used in Partial Least Squares (PLS) analysis, or covariance-based, such as those used in LISREL.

Covariance-based SEM techniques are not appropriate for some types of studies because they have restrictions. Unlike variance-based SEM, which does not require a sound theory base, covariance-based SEM techniques support only confirmatory types of research, as opposed to exploratory ones. Other restrictions imposed by covariance-based SEM techniques include requirements for normal distribution, large sample size, usually more than 100 cases, and only reflective variables (Gefen et al., 2000). Reflective latent variables refer

to when indicators of a latent variable "are viewed as affected by the same underlying concept" (Chin, 1998, p. ix).

Partial Least Squares (PLS), a second generation multivariate variance-based technique used to estimate the parameters of a structural model, was developed by Wold (1975) for situations where data cannot meet the restrictive assumptions of covariance-based SEM techniques (Fornell & Bookstein, 1982). PLS maximizes the explained variance of dependent variables by disaggregating the overall causal model into partial equations which are solved simultaneously (Chin, 1998). Variance-based SEM is a multivariate analysis technique that shares similarities with covariance-based SEM but differs from it in that it builds on techniques, such as resampling, which do not require parametric assumptions to be met (Diaconis & Efron, 1983; Lohmoller, 1989; Rencher, 1998). Variance-based SEM is more suitable when the requirement of multivariate normality is not met in a dataset (Chin, 1998; Siegel & Castellan, 1988).

PLS is preferred by researchers for several flexibilities it offers. PLS regression can be used for theory development, as it tests and validates exploratory models, does not require a large sample size, can estimate complex models with several latent and manifest variables, does not require normality, is suitable for prediction-oriented research, and can deal with reflective, as well as formative, measurement models (Gefen et al., 2000; Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics, 2009).

PLS can be implemented as a regression model or as a path model. WarpPLS, a nonlinear variance-based structural equation modeling software tool that uses PLS regression algorithm to implement variance-based SEM, was used in this study. Although many relationships in nature are nonlinear, extant SEM software tools are confined to linear

relationship analysis (Kock, 2012). Unlike other PLS regression software tools, WarpPLS software specifies nonlinear relationships among latent variables. It can perform a standard PLS regression, robust path analysis, or a WarpPLS regression analysis. The software allows for the use of three alternative resampling algorithms: bootstrapping, jackknifing, and blind-folding (Kock, 2012). The jackknifing resampling algorithm tends to be more stable for samples with small size or outliers (Chiquoine & Hjalmarsson, 2009). The number of resamples in this particular technique is the original sample size, and every resample removes one row from the sample. Although using the jackknifing resampling technique might reduce the speed of the SEM analysis, it often results in more "stable parameter estimates with warped analysis" (Kock, 2012, p. 28). The jackknifing resampling algorithm is used here because it produces more stable coefficients in comparison to bootstrapping or blindfolding resampling techniques.

CHAPTER 5

MODEL ASSESSMENT

Descriptive Statistics

Tables 5 and 6 present the correlations, means, and standard deviations for the indicators of all latent variables in the US and Yemen models, respectively.

Table 7 shows variables' means and standard deviations. Calculated means indicated that respondents from Yemen use social networking sites more intensely (M = 3.71) than the respondents from the US (M = 2.72). The average monthly absences in Yemen equaled 1.61 days while the average number of days missed from work in the US was 0.86. Respondents from the US reported stronger job satisfaction (M = 5.82) than respondents from Yemen (M = 4.81). The mean for organizational commitment for the US sample was 5.78, and for the Yemen sample, the mean was 4.27. Respondents from the US reported more moderate turnover intention (M = 3.33) than respondents from Yemen (M = 3.72). The mean for innovative behavior in the US sample was 4.50 and for Yemen sample, the mean was 4.72. The average performance rating in the US equaled 5.78, while the average rating of performance in Yemen was 5.25.

Table 5: Indicator correlation matrix for Yemen

	SNSUI1	SNSUI2	SNSUI3	SNSUI4	SNSUI5	SNSUI6	SAT1	SAT2	SAT3	SAT4	SAT5	COM1	COM2	COM3	COM4	COM5	PERF1	PERF2	PERF3	TUROV1	TUROV2	TUROV3	TUROV4	INOV1	INOV2	INOV3	INOV4	INOV5	INOV6
SNSUI1	1.00																												
SNSUI2	0.38	1.00																											
SNSUI3	0.68	0.40	1.00																										
SNSUI4	0.24	0.22	0.38	1.00																									
SNSUI5	0.51	0.39	0.55	0.46	1.00																								
SNSUI6	0.38	0.21	0.47	0.36	0.56	1.00																							
SAT1	0.14	0.06	0.17	0.18	0.19	0.12	1.00																						
SAT2	0.15	0.08	0.15	0.14	0.22	0.08	0.84	1.00																					
SAT3	0.06	0.06	0.15	0.06	0.10	0.05	0.61	0.68	1.00																				
SAT4	0.09	0.06	0.12	0.11	0.16	-0.01	0.78	0.87	0.72	1.00																			
SAT5	0.10	0.04	0.10	0.09	0.10	0.03	0.57	0.62	0.63	0.67	1.00																		
COM1	0.09	0.10	0.07	0.14	0.15	0.06	0.51	0.56	0.47	0.59	0.48	1.00																	
COM2	0.15	0.08	0.11	0.18	0.20	0.09	0.56	0.60	0.49	0.62	0.50	0.75	1.00																
COM3	0.12	0.12	0.13	0.18	0.15	0.08	0.41	0.46	0.47	0.45	0.35	0.63	0.81	1.00															
COM4	0.10	0.06	0.07	0.08	0.09	0.11	0.20	0.25	0.25	0.27	0.20	0.53	0.56	0.62	1.00														
COM5	0.05	0.07	0.09	0.07	0.08	0.00	0.33	0.34	0.34	0.38	0.31	0.55	0.57	0.57	0.65	1.00													
PERF1	0.09	0.08	0.10	0.05	0.08	0.09	0.57	0.57	0.48	0.64	0.53	0.46	0.56	0.38	0.31	0.41	1.00												
PERF2	0.07	0.17	0.17	0.07	0.13	0.15	0.31	0.35	0.33	0.39	0.39	0.22	0.32	0.18	0.15	0.18	0.57	1.00											
PERF3	0.01	0.04	0.03	0.08	0.08	0.11	0.48	0.49	0.42	0.55	0.48	0.36	0.44	0.26	0.20	0.24	0.68	0.78	1.00										
TUROV1	0.07	0.04	0.10	0.09	0.12	0.02	-0.40	-0.39	-0.31	-0.40	-0.26	-0.33	-0.38	-0.32	-0.25	-0.33	-0.30	-0.19	-0.22	1.00									
TUROV2	-0.03	-0.08	0.02	-0.03	0.05	0.05	-0.33	-0.36	-0.25	-0.34	-0.18	-0.47	-0.42	-0.38	-0.33	-0.43	-0.23	-0.08	-0.13	0.51	1.00								
TUROV3	0.06	-0.03	0.03	-0.10	0.03	0.04	-0.36	-0.43	-0.27	-0.36	-0.19	-0.45	-0.40	-0.33	-0.25	-0.34	-0.28	-0.12	-0.18	0.51	0.67	1.00							
TUROV4	0.10	0.09	0.12	-0.01	0.10	0.07	-0.25	-0.31	-0.22	-0.26	-0.11	-0.29	-0.28	-0.29	-0.18	-0.23	-0.25	-0.16	-0.25	0.33	0.45	0.65	1.00						
INOV1	0.05	0.13	0.01	0.03	0.07	0.16	0.10	0.05	0.10	0.01	0.05	0.01	0.03	0.01	-0.01	-0.03	0.10	0.04	0.03	0.08	0.22	0.12	0.05	1.00					
INOV2	0.03	0.11	0.05	0.00	0.03	0.16	0.18	0.19	0.18	0.14	0.21	0.08	0.16	0.13	0.11	0.09	0.19	0.17	0.13	-0.09	-0.03	-0.07	-0.03	0.47	1.00				
INOV3	0.07	0.18	0.06	-0.02	0.07	0.10	0.12	0.13	0.24	0.13	0.14	0.09	0.17	0.15	0.11	0.08	0.12	0.27	0.18	-0.07	0.04	-0.01	-0.02	0.40	0.54	1.00			
INOV4	0.17	0.20	0.16	-0.07	0.14	0.22	0.18	0.23	0.28	0.21	0.21	0.09	0.18	0.11	0.12	0.11	0.20	0.27	0.26	-0.08	-0.05	-0.11	-0.09	0.36	0.59	0.61	1.00		
INOV5	0.13	0.09	0.16	0.00	0.06	0.16	0.09	0.13	0.18	0.04	0.13	0.03	0.08	0.08	0.07	0.05	0.02	0.13	0.13	-0.08	0.04	-0.03	-0.03	0.30	0.46	0.43	0.62	1.00	
INOV6	0.11	0.13	0.09	-0.01	0.00	0.07	0.17	0.18	0.17	0.17	0.19	0.03	0.12	0.10	0.05	0.04	0.13	0.32	0.28	-0.04	0.06	0.04	-0.03	0.39	0.45	0.50	0.63	0.62	1.00
Mean	3.39	4.07	3.60	3.54	3.55	4.13	4.87	4.73	4.80	4.71	4.93	4.07	4.85	4.47	3.75	4.23	4.88	5.55	5.32	3.59	3.78	4.03	3.46	5.03	4.63	4.85	4.61	4.56	4.66
SD	2.10	2.23	2.31	2.32	2.16	2.41	1.87	1.82	1.98	1.90	1.86	2.07	1.91	1.99	2.04	2.06	1.80	1.51	1.66	2.34	2.32	2.10	1.95	1.07	1.28	1.06	1.12	1.29	1.19

Table 6: Indicator correlation matrix for the US

	SNSUI1	SNSUI2	SNSUI3	SNSUI4	SNSUI5	SNSUI6	SAT1	SAT2	SAT3	SAT4	SAT5	COM1	COM2	COM3	COM4	COM5	PERF1	PERF2	PERF3	TUROV1	TUROV2	TUROV3	TUROV4	INOV1	INOV2	INOV3	INOV4	INOV5	INOV6
SNSUI1	1.00																												
SNSUI2	0.52	1.00																											
SNSUI3	0.85	0.54	1.00																										
SNSUI4	0.51	0.31	0.56	1.00																									
SNSUI5	0.69	0.58	0.74	0.59	1.00																								
SNSUI6	0.60	0.41	0.63	0.63	0.67	1.00																							
SAT1	0.07	0.15	0.07	-0.03	0.12	0.04	1.00																						
SAT2	0.12	0.16	0.11	-0.01	0.12	0.05	0.86	1.00																					
SAT3	0.10	0.19	0.08	-0.01	0.14	0.05	0.76	0.88	1.00																				
SAT4	0.11	0.17	0.10	-0.03	0.12	0.05	0.92	0.89	0.84	1.00																			
SAT5	0.12	0.16	0.12	0.01	0.15	0.09	0.70	0.70	0.61	0.75	1.00																		
COM1	0.11	0.09	0.09	0.12	0.21	0.12	0.47	0.49	0.51	0.49	0.38	1.00																	
COM2	0.15	0.20	0.16	0.13	0.24	0.14	0.70	0.68	0.63	0.69	0.57	0.66	1.00																
COM3	0.20	0.17	0.19	0.17	0.28	0.14	0.55	0.57	0.58	0.54	0.46	0.61	0.82	1.00															
COM4	0.09	0.08	0.09	0.15	0.23	0.09	0.39	0.38	0.38	0.35	0.30	0.56	0.44	0.54	1.00														
COM5	0.14	0.08	0.14	0.09	0.21	0.16	0.40	0.42	0.46	0.41	0.29	0.54	0.44	0.51	0.65	1.00													
PERF1	0.07	0.09	0.02	-0.05	0.01	0.05	0.52	0.52	0.49	0.52	0.39	0.30	0.42	0.30	0.26	0.22	1.00												
PERF2	0.09	0.13	0.03	-0.04	0.05	0.08	0.45	0.47	0.44	0.47	0.35	0.27	0.35	0.24	0.20	0.13	0.87	1.00											
PERF3	0.07	0.14	0.05	-0.04	0.05	0.12	0.45	0.45	0.43	0.47	0.33	0.24	0.35	0.23	0.14	0.12	0.83	0.85	1.00										
TUROV1	-0.04	0.10	0.00	0.03	0.00	0.05	-0.31	-0.29	-0.19	-0.28	-0.22	-0.23	-0.25	-0.21	-0.08	-0.18	-0.15	-0.07	-0.08	1.00									
TUROV2	0.03	0.02	0.09	0.01	0.07	0.06	-0.38	-0.31	-0.27	-0.33	-0.15	-0.28	-0.30	-0.27	-0.23	-0.30	-0.17	-0.18	-0.17	0.39	1.00								
TUROV3	0.04	0.03	0.06	0.03	-0.03	0.02	-0.45	-0.39	-0.40	-0.45	-0.34	-0.42	-0.37	-0.33	-0.33	-0.39	-0.14	-0.07	-0.10	0.44	0.49	1.00							
TUROV4	-0.03	0.09	0.01	0.02	-0.03	0.06	-0.35	-0.29	-0.27	-0.33	-0.26	-0.39	-0.31	-0.32	-0.40	-0.42	-0.17	-0.12	-0.16	0.46	0.44	0.64	1.00						
INOV1	0.19	0.17	0.10	0.10	0.16	0.13	0.20	0.23	0.24	0.20	0.06	0.36	0.29	0.30	0.20	0.15	0.28	0.27	0.20	-0.03	-0.16	-0.04	-0.02	1.00					
INOV2	0.17	0.15	0.09	0.10	0.16	0.15	0.27	0.28	0.31	0.25	0.16	0.35	0.35	0.35	0.22	0.19	0.36	0.31	0.30	-0.04	-0.14	-0.04	-0.07	0.82	1.00				
INOV3	0.13	0.15	0.06	0.07	0.09	0.08	0.22	0.25	0.27	0.21	0.10	0.32	0.28	0.27	0.20	0.15	0.41	0.39	0.36	-0.03	-0.17	-0.07	-0.03	0.75	0.77	1.00			
INOV4	0.16	0.13	0.11	0.09	0.10	0.21	0.25	0.27	0.30	0.24	0.17	0.32	0.33	0.32	0.21	0.16	0.38	0.38	0.35	-0.10	-0.14	-0.12	-0.12	0.62	0.66	0.71	1.00		
INOV5	0.20	0.14	0.15	0.09	0.14	0.18	0.24	0.28	0.30	0.24	0.11	0.32	0.31	0.34	0.25	0.22	0.38	0.36	0.35	-0.12	-0.14	-0.14	-0.13	0.63	0.64	0.72	0.81	1.00	
INOV6	0.19	0.14	0.16	0.16	0.18	0.23	0.19	0.24	0.25	0.20	0.09	0.33	0.30	0.32	0.26	0.22	0.34	0.33	0.33	-0.05	-0.11	-0.05	-0.08	0.70	0.68	0.72	0.75	0.82	1.00
Mean	2.68	3.00	2.68	2.57	2.77	2.71	5.91	5.87	5.80	5.82	5.76	4.55	5.33	4.94	3.73	4.22	5.78	5.79	5.76	3.52	2.83	3.20	3.78	4.68	4.71	4.58	4.40	4.32	4.33
SD	1.94	1.89	2.00	1.91	1.90	2.05	1.38	1.41	1.50	1.47	1.57	2.05	1.72	1.79	1.97	2.11	1.28	1.19	1.27	2.12	2.03	1.88	1.72	1.25	1.20	1.13	1.15	1.12	1.18

Table 7: Latent variables means and standard deviation

	Yemen		US	
Variable	**Mean**	**SD**	**Mean**	**SD**
SNSUI	3.71	1.61	2.72	1.59
SAT	4.81	1.64	5.82	1.35
COM	4.27	1.68	5.78	1.28
ABSENT	1.61	3.71	0.86	2.64
TUROV	3.72	1.74	3.33	1.50
INOV	4.72	0.89	4.50	1.02
PERF	5.25	1.47	5.78	1.18

Notes:

- PERF = job performance; COM = organizational commitment; SAT = job satisfaction; SNSUI = social networking site use intensity; TUROV = turnover intention; INOV = innovative behavior.

Validity

The proposed model is evaluated using variance-based SEM (Chin, 1998; Lohmoller, 1989), a powerful multivariate technique for the analysis of causal models with concurrent estimation of structural and measurement models. Variance-based SEM is a multivariate analysis technique that shares similarities with covariance-based SEM, but it differs in that it builds on nonparametric techniques such as resampling (Diaconis & Efron, 1983; Lohmoller, 1989; Rencher, 1998). Variance-based SEM is more suitable when the criterion of multivariate normality is not met in a dataset (Chin, 1998; Siegel & Castellan, 1988).

The structural model is used to examine the strength and statistical significance of relationships among theoretical latent variables. The measurement model is tested using confirmatory factor analysis and related techniques to examine if the latent variables have sufficient reliability and validity. WarpPLS 3.0 is used to assess the measurement and the structural model for this study (Kock, 2010, 2011, 2012).

Measurement Model

The measurement model for latent variable validity and reliability was assessed. A confirmatory factor analysis used principal components as the means of extraction and oblique rotation. A confirmatory factor analysis established whether widely accepted criteria for acceptable discriminant and convergent validity were met. The loadings of all indicators should be 0.50 (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1992) or above on their hypothesized component and they should be significant ($P < 0.05$, $t \geq 2.0$) (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Sujan, Barton, & Kumar, 1994). Tables 8 and 9 show loadings, cross-loadings, and the probabilities (P values) obtained from the confirmatory factor analysis for all latent variables used in this study for the US and Yemen, respectively. All standardized factor loadings are not rotated, and the cross-loadings are after an oblique rotation (Ehrenberg, 1976; Thompson, 2004). This type of rotation is recommended in SEM as latent variables are anticipated to correlate with each other (Kline, 2005; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).

Three of the turnover intention indicators did not load properly in either sample; therefore, they were removed from the study since their values were less than the 0.5 threshold. All of the standardized factor loadings included in this study were significant at the $P<0.001$ level, and they ranged from 0.577 to 0.966**,** as shown in Tables 8 and 9. The loadings suggest that the instrument has acceptable convergent validity (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010).

Table 8: Loadings and cross-loadings for latent variables for the US

	SNSUI	**SAT**	**COM**	**PERF**	**TUROV**	**INOV**
SNSUI1	**(0.867)**	0.051	-0.157	0.011	-0.087	0.077
SNSUI2	**(0.672)**	0.206	-0.071	0.039	0.111	-0.017

Table 8: Continued

	SNSUI	SAT	COM	PERF	TUROV	INOV
SNSUI3	**(0.896)**	0.097	-0.097	-0.027	-0.011	-0.043
SNSUI4	**(0.731)**	-0.175	0.101	-0.024	-0.041	-0.004
SNSUI5	**(0.881)**	-0.083	0.196	-0.034	0.025	-0.026
SNSUI6	**(0.810)**	-0.085	0.029	0.044	0.024	0.011
SAT1	-0.030	**(0.930)**	-0.006	0.036	-0.093	-0.026
SAT2	-0.006	**(0.950)**	-0.001	0.001	0.011	0.048
SAT3	0.000	**(0.896)**	0.111	-0.005	0.060	0.080
SAT4	-0.004	**(0.966)**	-0.039	0.029	-0.043	-0.018
SAT5	0.046	**(0.818)**	-0.068	-0.071	0.079	-0.092
COM1	-0.020	-0.051	**(0.831)**	0.020	-0.055	0.001
COM2	0.025	0.436	**(0.834)**	-0.019	0.078	-0.018
COM3	0.024	0.185	**(0.867)**	-0.077	0.096	0.039
COM4	-0.062	-0.394	**(0.775)**	0.111	-0.006	-0.015
COM5	0.030	-0.231	**(0.761)**	-0.026	-0.129	-0.011
PERF1	-0.042	0.016	0.073	**(0.946)**	0.001	0.018
PERF2	0.011	-0.023	0.002	**(0.956)**	0.033	0.002
PERF3	0.031	0.008	-0.076	**(0.941)**	-0.035	-0.020
TUROV1	-0.007	-0.160	0.313	0.035	**(0.719)**	-0.024
TUROV2	-0.003	0.082	0.036	-0.093	**(0.734)**	-0.046
TUROV3	0.009	-0.140	-0.080	0.137	**(0.835)**	0.011
TUROV4	0.000	0.208	-0.225	-0.086	**(0.824)**	0.051
INOV1	0.010	0.021	0.003	-0.091	0.022	**(0.858)**
INOV2	0.017	0.090	0.009	-0.055	0.048	**(0.871)**
INOV3	-0.049	-0.031	-0.040	0.084	-0.004	**(0.888)**
INOV4	-0.011	0.087	-0.092	0.017	-0.029	**(0.864)**
INOV5	0.010	-0.037	0.007	0.019	-0.061	**(0.881)**
INOV6	0.023	-0.125	0.111	0.023	0.025	**(0.891)**

Notes:

- PERF = job performance; COM = organizational commitment; SAT = job satisfaction; SNSUI = social networking site use intensity; TUROV = turnover intention; INOV = innovative behavior.

- Loadings are shown within parentheses; the loadings are from a structure matrix (i.e., un-rotated), and the cross-loadings from a pattern matrix (i.e., rotated); all loadings are significant at the $P<0.001$ level.

Table 9: Loadings and cross-loadings for latent variables for Yemen

	SNSUI	SAT	COM	PERF	TUROV	INOV
SNSUI1	**(0.760)**	0.069	-0.008	-0.102	-0.025	0.049
SNSUI2	**(0.577)**	-0.175	0.006	0.091	-0.121	0.172
SNSUI3	**(0.828)**	0.116	-0.025	-0.030	0.046	0.004
SNSUI4	**(0.593)**	0.025	-0.008	-0.002	-0.035	-0.201
SNSUI5	**(0.822)**	0.079	0.020	-0.028	0.090	-0.077
SNSUI6	**(0.695)**	-0.182	0.016	0.107	-0.003	0.061
SAT1	0.093	**(0.874)**	-0.083	-0.038	-0.078	-0.009
SAT2	0.074	**(0.925)**	-0.046	-0.038	-0.120	-0.006
SAT3	-0.056	**(0.828)**	0.018	-0.083	0.031	0.100
SAT4	-0.053	**(0.932)**	0.047	0.061	0.003	-0.068
SAT5	-0.069	**(0.791)**	0.071	0.101	0.190	-0.006
COM1	0.050	0.260	**(0.830)**	-0.045	-0.088	-0.048
COM2	0.016	0.162	**(0.889)**	0.076	-0.007	-0.024
COM3	0.027	0.056	**(0.873)**	-0.096	0.006	0.033
COM4	-0.023	-0.337	**(0.799)**	0.031	0.077	0.064
COM5	-0.077	-0.177	**(0.791)**	0.036	0.016	-0.024
PERF1	-0.049	0.224	0.151	**(0.840)**	0.011	-0.078
PERF2	0.085	-0.211	-0.113	**(0.888)**	-0.040	0.074
PERF3	-0.037	0.000	-0.029	**(0.930)**	0.029	0.000
TUROV1	0.136	-0.201	-0.046	0.032	**(0.717)**	-0.052
TUROV2	-0.048	0.047	-0.205	0.130	**(0.829)**	0.043
TUROV3	-0.069	-0.011	0.075	0.028	**(0.894)**	0.009
TUROV4	0.006	0.153	0.181	-0.206	**(0.753)**	-0.008
INOV1	0.059	0.150	-0.120	-0.157	0.117	**(0.608)**
INOV2	-0.078	0.048	0.106	-0.079	0.035	**(0.770)**
INOV3	-0.073	-0.061	0.110	0.053	0.042	**(0.769)**
INOV4	0.041	-0.007	-0.023	0.064	-0.107	**(0.851)**
INOV5	0.090	-0.037	-0.052	-0.099	-0.087	**(0.759)**
INOV6	-0.028	-0.060	-0.043	0.171	0.033	**(0.793)**

Notes:

- PERF = job performance; COM = organizational commitment; SAT = job satisfaction; SNSUI = social networking site use intensity; TUROV = turnover intention; INOV = innovative behavior.
- Loadings are shown within parentheses; the loadings are from a structure matrix (i.e., un-rotated), and the cross-loadings from a pattern matrix (i.e., rotated); all loadings are significant at the $P<0.001$ level.

The purpose of discriminant validity is to test whether the latent variables differ from each other (Bollen, 1989; Chin, Marcolin, & Newsted, 2003; Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Discriminant validity was tested by comparing the interconstruct correlations with the square roots of their respective average variances extracted (shown on the diagonal of Tables 10 and 11 for the US and Yemen, respectively). The square roots of average variances extracted (AVEs) for each latent variable are shown in diagonal and within parentheses. When comparing the square roots of the AVEs with the other values on each column, the square roots of the AVEs for each latent variable are greater than any correlation relating to each latent variable. The results indicate that the discriminant validity of the latent variables was satisfactory (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Table 10: Correlation between latent variables and square roots of AVEs for the US

	SNSUI	SAT	COM	PERF	TUROV	INOV
SNSUI	(0.814)					
SAT	0.121	(0.913)				
COM	0.226	0.657	(0.814)			
PERF	0.063	0.522	0.326	(0.948)		
TUROV	0.044	-0.445	-0.478	-0.177	(0.780)	
INOV	0.194	0.277	0.387	0.405	-0.129	(0.876)

Notes:
- PERF = job performance; COM = organizational commitment; SAT = job satisfaction; SNSUI = social networking site use intensity; TUROV = turnover intention; INOV = innovative behavior.
- AVE = average variance extracted.
- Square roots of AVEs are shown on diagonal within parentheses.

Table 11: Correlation between latent variables and square roots of AVEs for Yemen

	SNSUI	SAT	COM	PERF	TUROV	INOV
SNSUI	(0.720)					
SAT	0.170	(0.872)				
COM	0.171	0.575	(0.837)			
PERF	0.138	0.600	0.418	(0.887)		
TUROV	0.068	-0.429	-0.503	-0.275	(0.801)	
INOV	0.155	0.231	0.133	0.251	-0.022	(0.762)

Notes:
- PERF = job performance; COM = organizational commitment; SAT = job satisfaction; SNSUI = social networking site use intensity; TUROV = turnover intention; INOV = innovative behavior.
- AVE = average variance extracted.
- Square roots of AVEs are shown on diagonal within parentheses.

Measurement model reliability is typically assessed using composite reliability (CR) or Cronbach's alpha (CA) based tests. CA provides an estimate of the indicator inter-

correlations (Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics, 2009). An acceptable measure for CA is 0.7 or higher (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Tables 12 and 13, for the US and Yemen, respectively, show that all latent variables studied are above the suggested threshold.

In addition to using CA, reliability is measured using the CR. In order to display good reliability, a latent variable's CR should generally be 0.70 or higher (Hair et al., 1992; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). The CR estimate, unlike CA, takes into consideration the indicators' different loadings. As shown in Tables 12 and 13, the CRs for all latent variables have exceeded the threshold mentioned.

Table 12: Latent variable coefficients for the US

	SNSUI	SAT	COM	PERF	TUROV	INOV
R-squared		0.046	0.456	0.302	0.020	0.074
Composite reliability	0.921	0.962	0.908	0.964	0.861	0.952
Cronbach's alpha	0.895	0.949	0.872	0.944	0.783	0.939
Average variance extracted	0.662	0.834	0.663	0.899	0.608	0.767
Q-squared		0.045	0.456	0.310	0.021	0.073

Notes: PERF = job performance; SNSUI = social networking site use intensity; SAT = job satisfaction; COM = organizational commitment; TUROV = turnover intention; INOV = innovative behavior.

Table 13: Latent variable coefficients for Yemen

	SNSUI	SAT	COM	PERF	TUROV	INOV
R-squared		0.044	0.347	0.425	0.005	0.033
Composite reliability	0.863	0.940	0.921	0.917	0.877	0.892
Cronbach's alpha	0.807	0.920	0.893	0.863	0.811	0.853
Average variance extracted	0.518	0.760	0.701	0.786	0.641	0.581
Q-squared		0.044	0.348	0.417	0.007	0.036

Notes: PERF = job performance; SNSUI = social networking site use intensity; SAT = job satisfaction; COM = organizational commitment; TUROV = turnover intention; INOV = innovative behavior.

In addition, a full collinearity test was run to examine if there was multicollinearity among all of the latent variables. This test relies on the variance inflation factors (VIFs) calculated for each latent variable in relation to all of the other latent variables (Kline, 2005). The full collinearity test was automatically conducted by WarpPLS 3.0 software (Kock, 2012). Testing found that the VIF values for all latent variables were less than the threshold

of 5 as suggested by Hair et al. (2010). The highest VIF value was 2.544 for job satisfaction in the US model, as shown in Table 14, and 2.234 for job satisfaction in the model for Yemen, as shown in Table 15. This means that collinearity can be ruled out as a significant source of bias.

Table 14: Variance inflation factors from full collinearity test for the US

SNSUI	1.213
SAT	2.544
COM	2.335
PERF	1.623
TUROV	1.460
INOV	1.508
ABSEN	1.032
AGE	2.526
GENDER	1.176
TENUR	2.005
EDU	1.612
EMP	1.322
POLI	1.075
RANK	1.254

Notes:
- Variance inflation factors (VIFs) obtained through a full collinearity test.
- A VIF lower than 5 suggests no collinearity between a variable and other variables.
- PERF = job performance; SNSUI = social networking site use intensity; SAT = job satisfaction; COM = organizational commitment; TUROV = turnover intention; INOV = innovative behavior; ABSENT = absenteeism; Gender = male/female; EMP = full-time/part-time employed; EDU = education level (high school … doctorate); POLI = presence/absence of social networking site use policy at work; AGE = age in years; TENUR = number of years of experience in the current organization; RANK = managerial level (junior staff … senior manager).

Table 15: Variance inflation factors from full collinearity test for Yemen

SNSUI	1.184
SAT	2.234
COM	2.016
PERF	1.690
TUROV	1.567
INOV	1.247
ABSENT	1.116
AGE	2.049
GENDER	1.079
TENUR	1.646
EDU	1.205
EMP	1.126
POLI	1.073

Table 15: Continued

RANK	1.403

Notes:
- Variance inflation factors (VIFs) obtained through a full collinearity test.
- A VIF lower than 5 suggests no collinearity between a variable and other variables.
- PERF = job performance; SNSUI = social networking site use intensity; SAT = job satisfaction; COM = organizational commitment; TUROV = turnover intention; INOV = innovative behavior; ABSENT = absenteeism; Gender = male/female; EMP = full-time/part-time employed; EDU = education level (high school … doctorate); POLI = presence/absence of social networking site use policy at work; AGE = age in years; TENUR = number of years of experience in the current organization; RANK = managerial level (junior staff … senior manager).

In summary, the measurement model passes several stringent tests of convergent validity, discriminant validity, reliability, and collinearity. These results show that our model meets widely accepted data validation criteria, suggesting that the results of the SEM can be generally trusted as free from data measurement problems (Kline, 2005; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).

Structural Model

Model fit was assessed through the following measures: average path coefficient (APC), average R-squared (ARS), and average variance inflation factor (AVIF). It is recommended that the values for both the APC and ARS be significant at least at the 0.05 level, while the AVIF should be lower than 5 (Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2005; Kock, 2011). Tables 16 and 17, for the US and Yemen respectively, show that the model meets these requirements, suggesting the data is a good fit with the proposed model.

Table 16: Model Fit Indices for the US

APC	ARS	AVIF
0.149***	0.150***	1.268

Notes:
-*** = P<0.001

Table 17: Model Fit Indices for Yemen

APC	ARS	AVIF
0.120***	0.143***	1.161

Notes:

-*** = P<0.001

Measurement Model Differences

Table 18 shows the measurement model differences by reporting the significance of differences in indicator weights for the US and Yemen. As seen in Table 18, there are significant differences in two indicator weights for social networking site use intensity, namely SNSUI3 and SNSUI5. This indicates that the intensity level of social networking sites use was different between the US and Yemen samples in those particular indicators. In addition, one indicator for performance, and another for turnover intention, had marginal statistically significant differences. Innovative behavior's latent variable also has one indicator that is marginally significant and two that were statistically significant indicating that there were different levels of innovative behavior reported in the two samples.

The procedure used to estimate the T and P values in the table is documented by Keil et al. (2000). This procedure builds on the weight coefficients, standard errors, and sample sizes of the datasets being compared (the US and Yemen); the standard errors were calculated based on resampling (Nevitt & Hancock, 2001).

Table 18: Measurement model differences

	US		**Yemen**			
	Weight	**SE**	**Weight**	**SE**	**T-Value**	**P-Value**
SNSUI1	0.218	0.010	0.245	0.020	-1.277	0.101
SNSUI2	0.169	0.020	0.186	0.020	-0.668	0.252
SNSUI3	0.226	0.010	0.267	0.020	-2.007	0.023
SNSUI4	0.184	0.020	0.191	0.020	-0.261	0.397
SNSUI5	0.222	0.010	0.265	0.020	-2.103	0.018
SNSUI6	0.204	0.010	0.224	0.020	-0.914	0.181

Table 18: Continued

	US		Yemen			
	Weight	**SE**	**Weight**	**SE**	**T-Value**	**P-Value**
SAT1	0.223	0.020	0.230	0.010	-0.278	0.390
SAT2	0.228	0.020	0.243	0.010	-0.711	0.239
SAT3	0.215	0.020	0.218	0.010	-0.146	0.442
SAT4	0.232	0.020	0.245	0.010	-0.578	0.282
SAT5	0.196	0.020	0.208	0.020	-0.509	0.306
COM1	0.251	0.020	0.237	0.010	0.681	0.248
COM2	0.252	0.020	0.254	0.010	-0.103	0.459
COM3	0.261	0.010	0.249	0.010	0.676	0.250
COM4	0.234	0.020	0.228	0.010	0.303	0.381
COM5	0.229	0.020	0.226	0.010	0.139	0.445
PERF1	0.351	0.030	0.356	0.030	-0.129	0.449
PERF2	0.355	0.030	0.377	0.020	-0.616	0.269
PERF3	0.349	0.030	0.394	0.020	-1.321	0.094
TUROV1	0.296	0.020	0.279	0.020	0.547	0.292
TUROV2	0.302	0.020	0.323	0.020	-0.718	0.236
TUROV3	0.343	0.020	0.348	0.020	-0.181	0.428
TUROV4	0.339	0.020	0.293	0.020	1.501	0.067
INOV1	0.187	0.010	0.175	0.020	0.468	0.320
INOV2	0.189	0.010	0.221	0.020	-1.561	0.060
INOV3	0.193	0.010	0.221	0.030	-0.945	0.173
INOV4	0.188	0.010	0.244	0.020	-2.732	0.003
INOV5	0.192	0.010	0.218	0.020	-1.110	0.134
INOV6	0.194	0.010	0.228	0.020	-1.659	0.049

Notes: PERF = job performance; SNSUI = social networking site use intensity; SAT = job satisfaction; COM = organizational commitment; TUROV = turnover intention; INOV = innovative behavior.
- Weight = indicator weight.
- SE = standard error of beta coefficient; T = T statistic; P = P value for T statistic.

Another SEM analysis was conducted after removing the significantly different indicators from both models to check if there is any significant difference in the results. As seen in Appendix F, there was no quality difference in the total results. This confirms that the SEM analysis results still hold even after the removal of the statistically different indicators from both models.

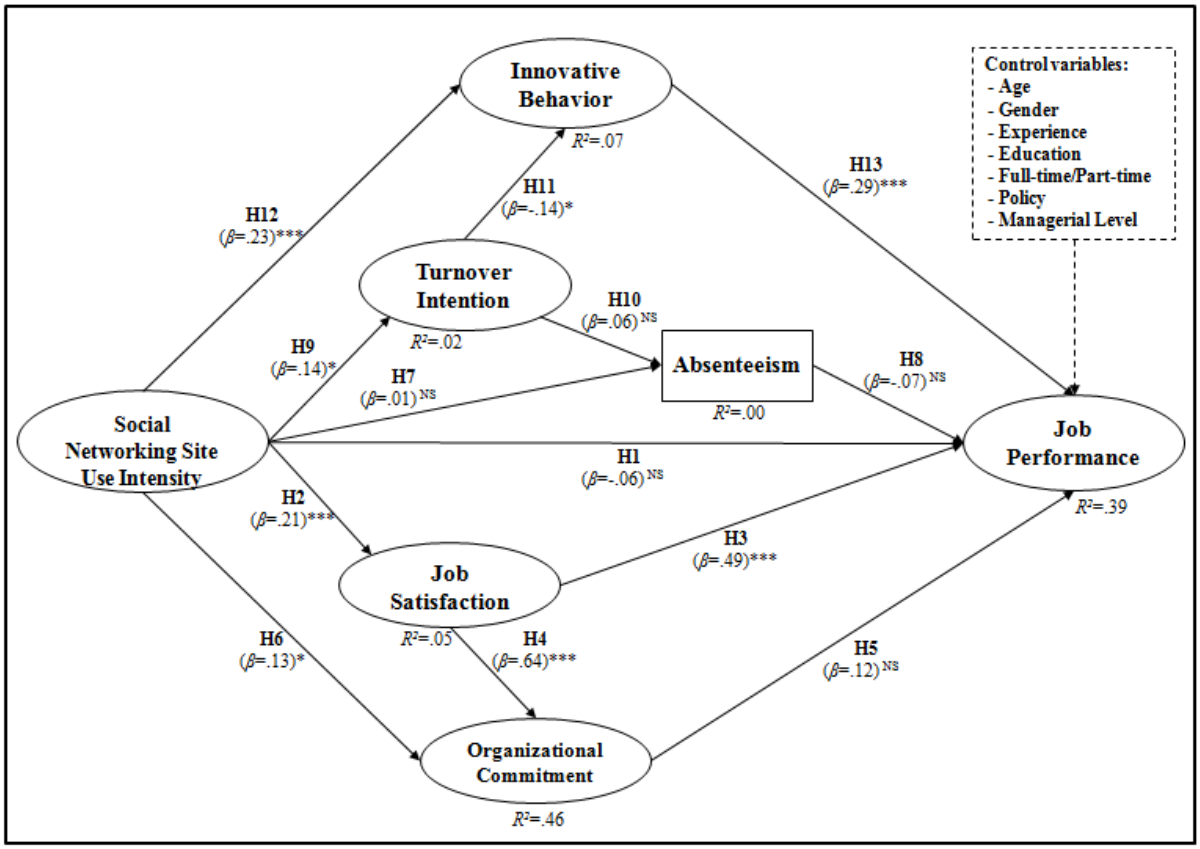
CHAPTER 6

RESULTS

Model

Figures 3 and 4 show the related SEM analysis results along with the hypotheses. Each hypothesis refers to a link in the model while links refer to variable-pair relationships, except for the link that refers to the control variables. The latent variables are represented by oval shapes while the manifest variables are represented by a square. The latent variables are reduced to individual scores using a PLS regression algorithm. Beta coefficients, standardized partial regression coefficients, denote the strengths of the multivariate associations among variables in the model. The symbol "*" refers to beta coefficients with a significance level lower than 5 percent ($P<0.05$) the symbol "**" to $P<0.01$ and the symbol "***" to $P<0.001$. The symbol "NS" represents beta coefficients that were not statistically significant. R-squared coefficients, under endogenous variables, show the percentage of variance explained by the variables that point to them in the model.

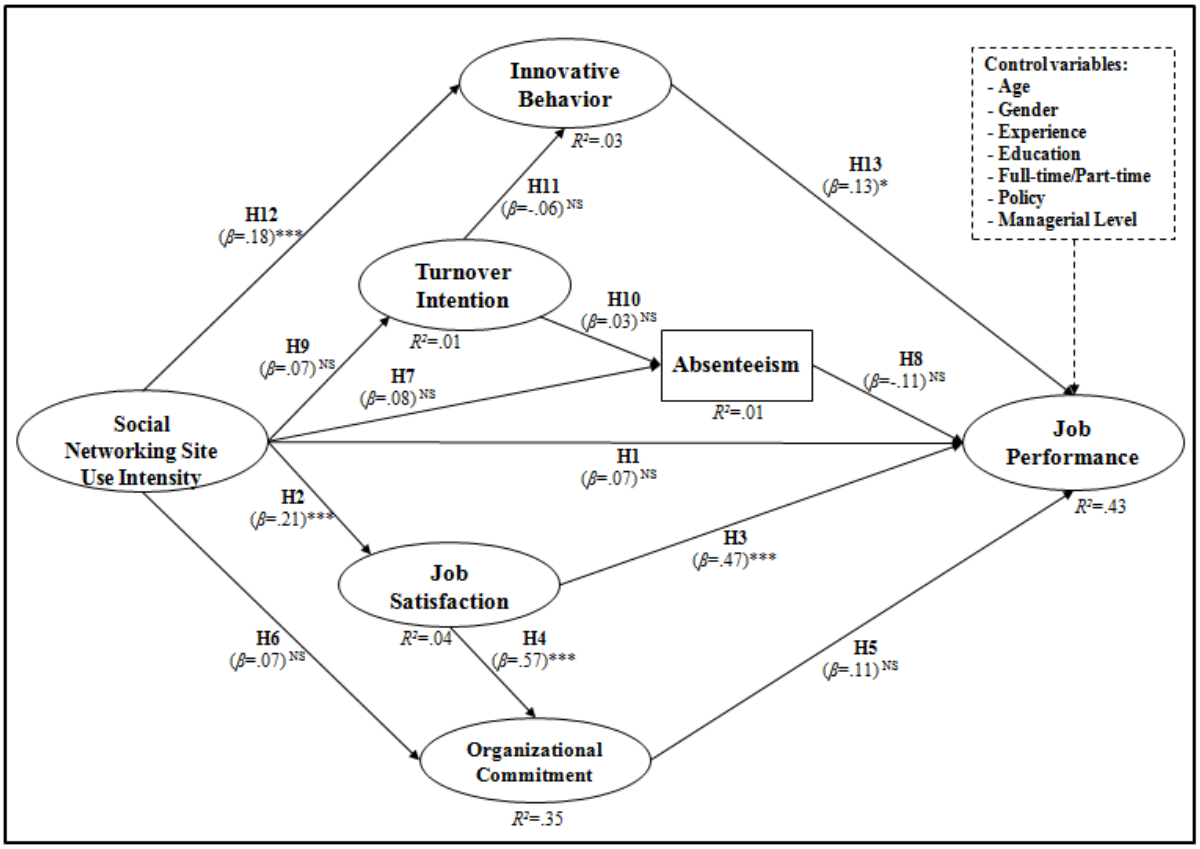
Figure 3: Hypotheses and related coefficients for the US



Notes:

- * = P<0.05; ** = P<0.01; *** = P<0.001; NS = not statistically significant.
- All control variables not statistically significant.

Figure 4: Hypotheses and related coefficients for Yemen



Notes:

- * = P<0.05; ** = P<0.01; *** = P<0.001; NS = not statistically significant.
- All control variables not statistically significant.

Results Overview

The results of the SEM analysis are shown in Figure 3 for the United States and Figure 4 for Yemen.

US Results

After examining the paths, the results supported 7 out of the 13 proposed hypotheses (see Table 19) explaining 39 percent of the job performance variance.

Table 19: Support for the hypotheses based on the results for the US

Hypothesis	Path Coefficient	Supported?
H1. Social networking site use intensity is positively associated with job performance.	- 0.06 ^{NS}	No
H2. Social networking site use intensity is positively associated with job satisfaction.	0.21***	Yes
H3. Job satisfaction is positively associated with job performance.	0.49***	Yes
H4. Job satisfaction is positively associated with organizational commitment.	0.64***	Yes
H5. Organizational commitment is positively associated with job performance.	0.12 ^{NS}	No
H6. Social networking site use intensity is positively associated with organizational commitment.	0.13*	Yes
H7. Social networking site use intensity is negatively associated with absenteeism.	0.01 ^{NS}	No
H8. Absenteeism is negatively associated with job performance.	- 0.07 ^{NS}	No
H9. Social networking site use intensity is negatively associated with turnover intention.	0.14*	No
H10. Turnover intention is positively associated with absenteeism.	0.06 ^{NS}	No
H11. Turnover intention is negatively associated with innovative behavior.	- 0.14*	Yes
H12. Social networking site use intensity is positively associated with innovative behavior.	0.23***	Yes
H13. Innovative behavior is positively associated with job performance.	0.29***	Yes

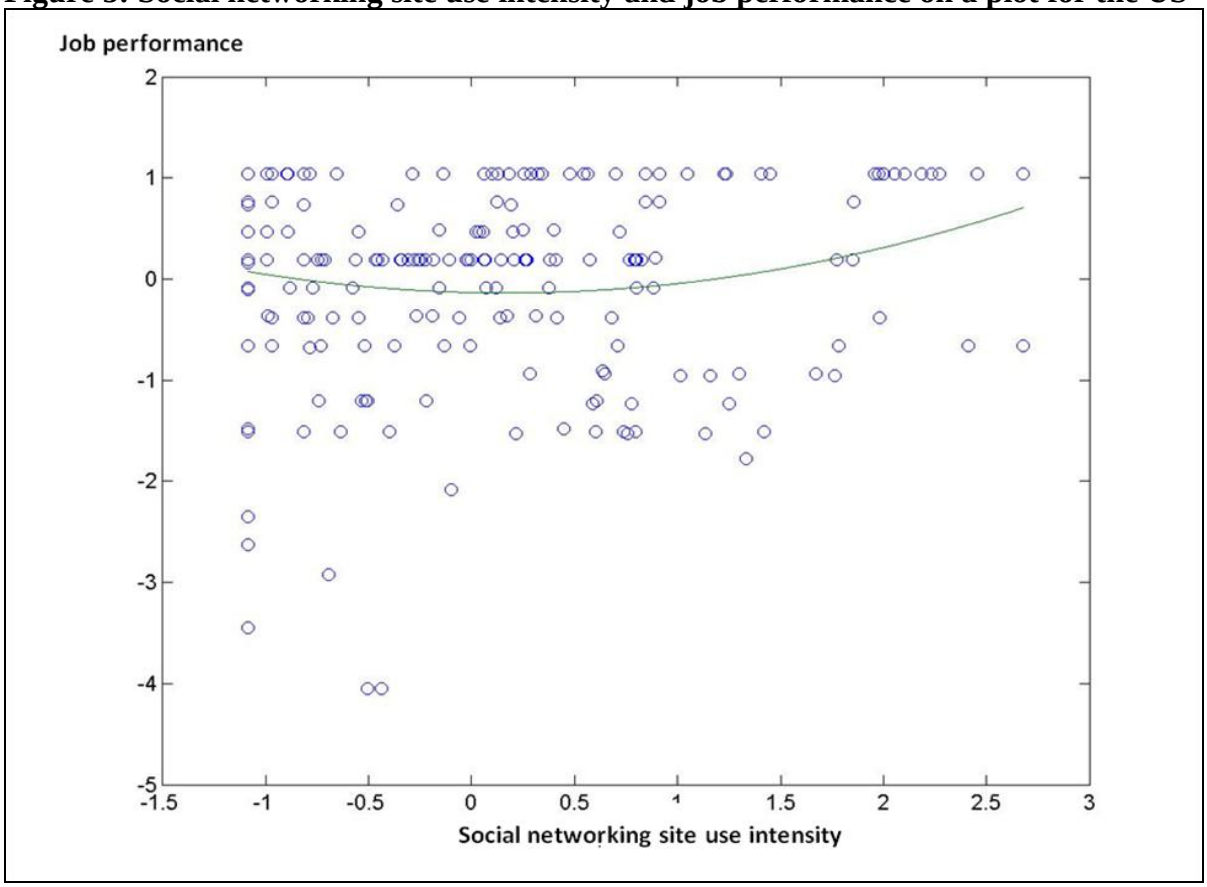
Notes:

- * = P<0.05; ** = P<0.01; *** = P<0.001; NS = not statistically significant.

Hypothesis 1 proposed a positive association between social networking site use intensity and job performance. No significant association was reported between social networking site use intensity (coefficient=-0.06, P>0.05) and job performance, indicating that there is no direct effect of social networking site use intensity on job performance. Therefore, the proposed association between social networking site use intensity and job performance was not supported (H1).

Figure 5 shows, although the relationship is not significant, that social networking site use intensity starts to enhance job performance at a certain threshold. This threshold appears to be approximately at 0.5 standard deviation to the right of the mean of the standardized data. This threshold also can be identified, in terms of the seven-point Likert scale, as equaling 3.52 after adding the mean (M=2.72) to one half of one standard deviation (SD=1.59). In other words, this graph shows a nonlinear relationship in which social networking site use intensity in the workplace begins to enhance productivity at a 3.52 Likert scale point threshold.

Figure 5: Social networking site use intensity and job performance on a plot for the US



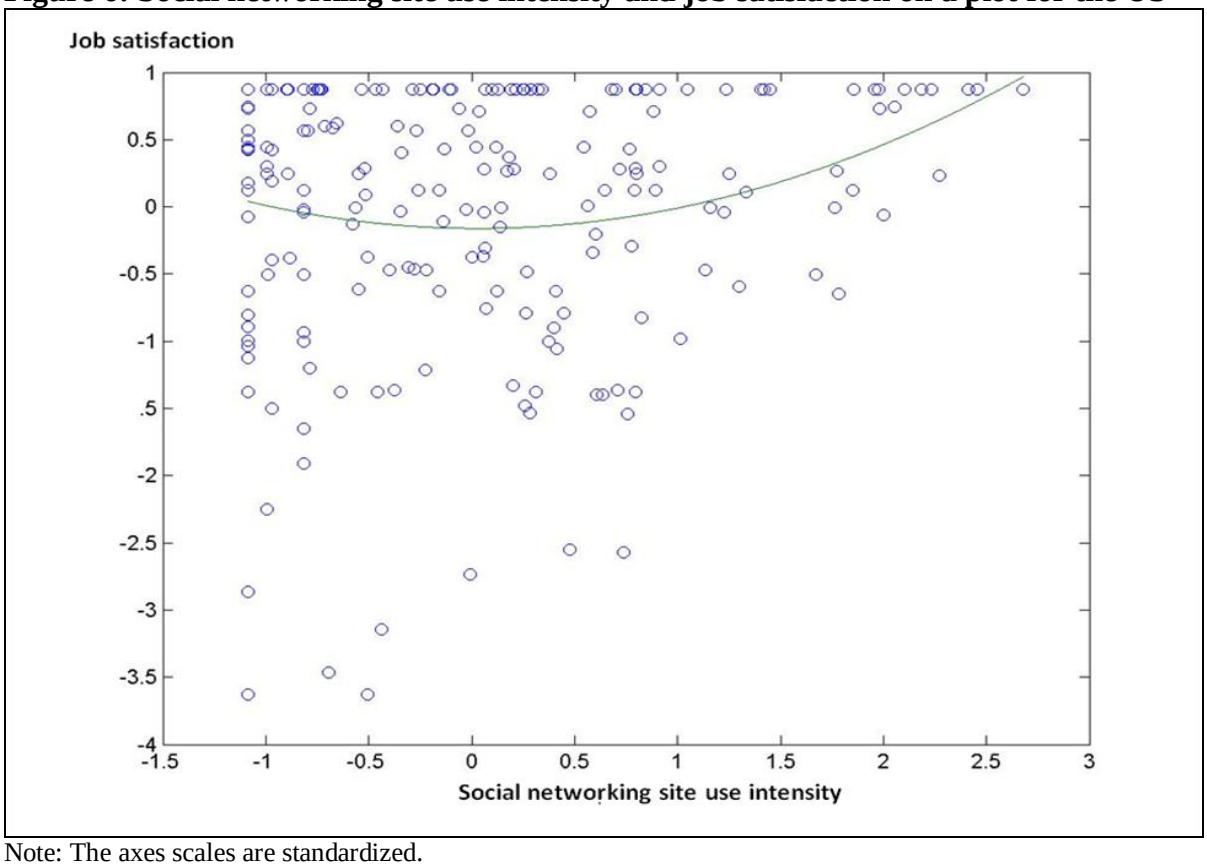
Note: The axes scales are standardized.

Hypothesis 2 stated that social networking site use intensity would be positively associated with job satisfaction. As expected, social networking site use intensity had a

significant positive association with job satisfaction (coefficient=0.21, P<0.01), indicating that the more intense the use of social networking sites by participants, the greater their level of job satisfaction. In practical terms, this result means that for every 10 percent increase in social networking site use intensity, there is an expected 2.1 percent increase in job satisfaction. Thus, the proposed positive association between social networking site use intensity and job satisfaction was supported (H2).

Figure 6 shows that after passing the mean, at 2.72 on the Likert point scale, the greater the use of social networking sites, the more satisfied employees become with their jobs. This graph complements the PLS results.

Figure 6: Social networking site use intensity and job satisfaction on a plot for the US

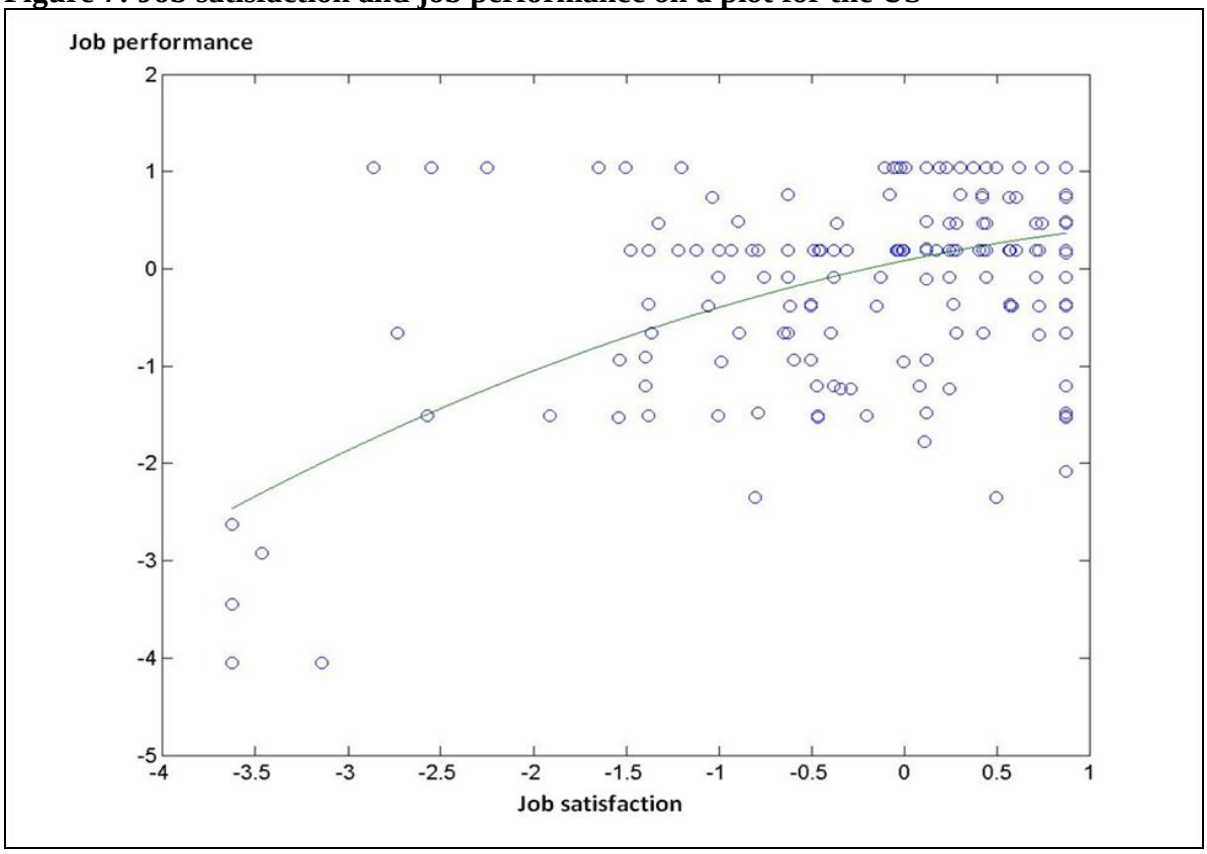


Note: The axes scales are standardized.

In Hypothesis 3, job satisfaction was anticipated to be positively associated with job performance. As expected, job satisfaction (coefficient=0.49, P<0.01) had a significant positive association with job performance, suggesting that the more satisfied employees are with their jobs, the higher their level of job performance. This result can be interpreted practically by saying that for every 10 percent increase in job satisfaction, there is a 4.9 percent increase in job performance. Therefore, the strong positive association between job satisfaction and job performance supports Hypothesis 3.

Figure 7 depicts the plots for the association between job satisfaction and job performance. This graph supports the PLS results that the more satisfied employees are with their jobs, the better their job performance becomes.

Figure 7: Job satisfaction and job performance on a plot for the US

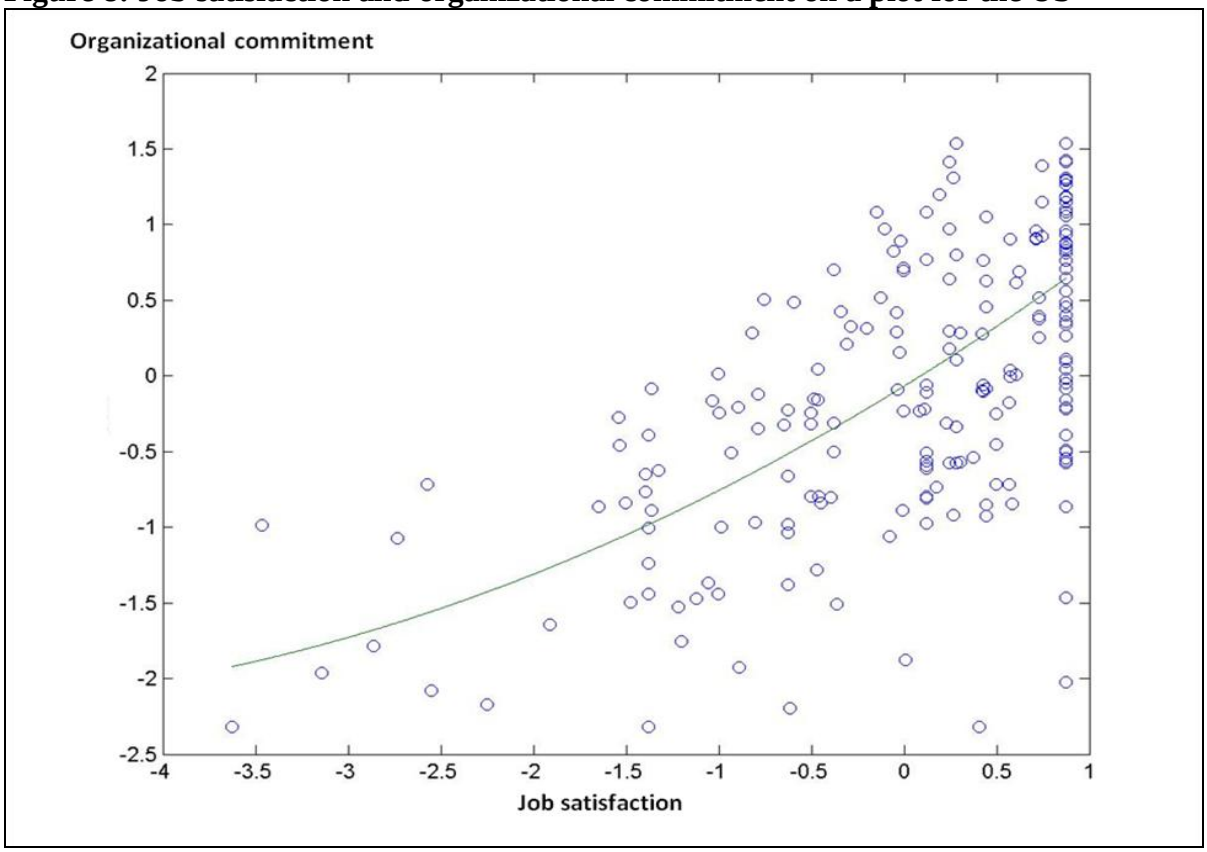


Note: The axes scales are standardized.

Hypothesis 4 proposed job satisfaction is positively associated with organizational commitment. Consistent with the hypothesized expectations, job satisfaction had a significant positive association with organizational commitment (coefficient=0.64, P<0.001), denoting that the more satisfied employees are with their jobs, the greater the level of organizational commitment they will have. Similarly, the practical interpretation of this result is that there is an expected 6.4 percent increase in organizational commitment for every 10 percent increase in job satisfaction. The hypothesized effect was supported (H4).

Figure 8 shows that the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment is strong and almost linear in a positive direction.

Figure 8: Job satisfaction and organizational commitment on a plot for the US



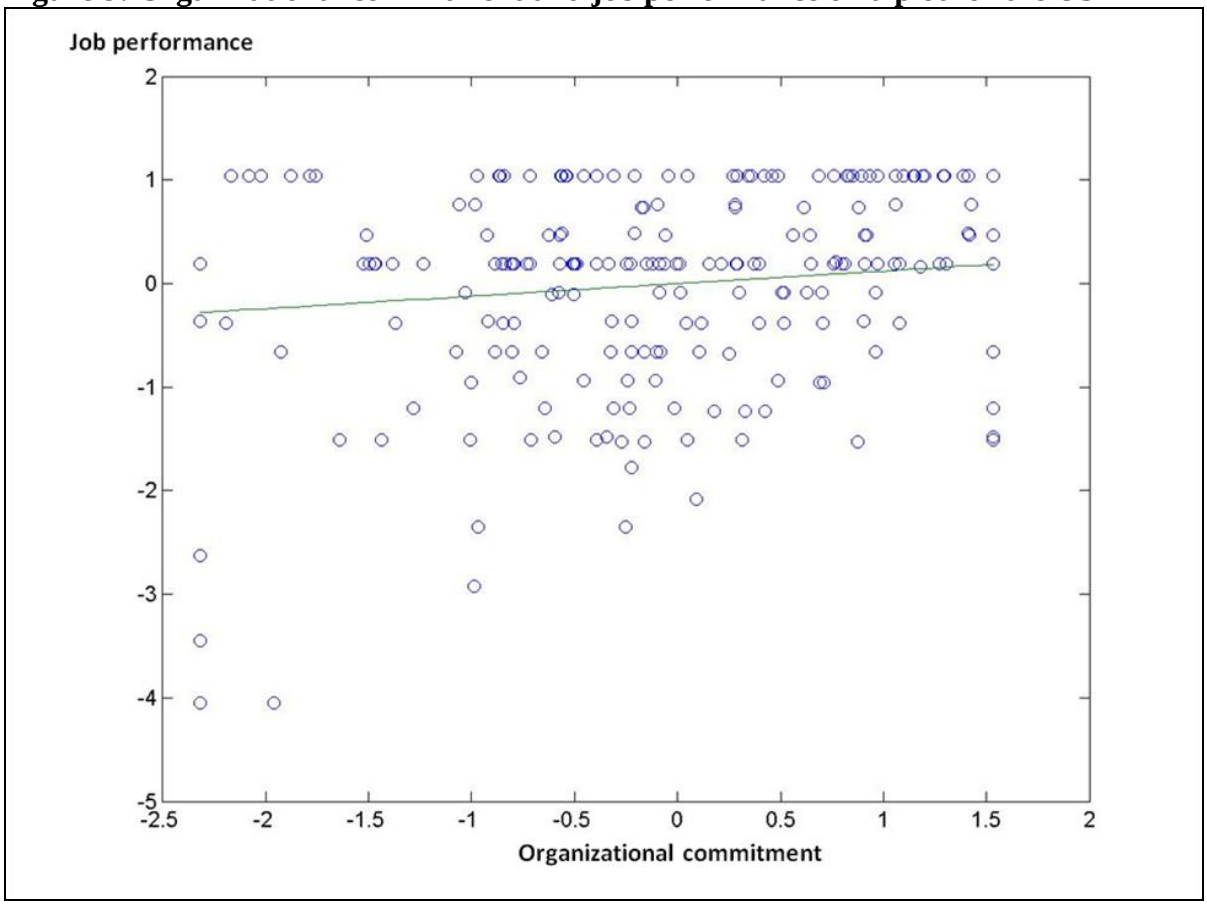
Note: The axes scales are standardized.

Hypothesis 5 stated that organizational commitment was positively associated with job performance. Unexpectedly, organizational commitment did not have a significant

positive association with job performance (coefficient=-0.12, P>0.05), implying that a greater emotional attachment of employees with their organizations does not necessarily translate into a higher level of job performance. The hypothesized effect was not supported (H5).

Figure 9 complements the PLS results showing that there is a nearly flat relationship between organizational commitment and job performance.

Figure 9: Organizational commitment and job performance on a plot for the US



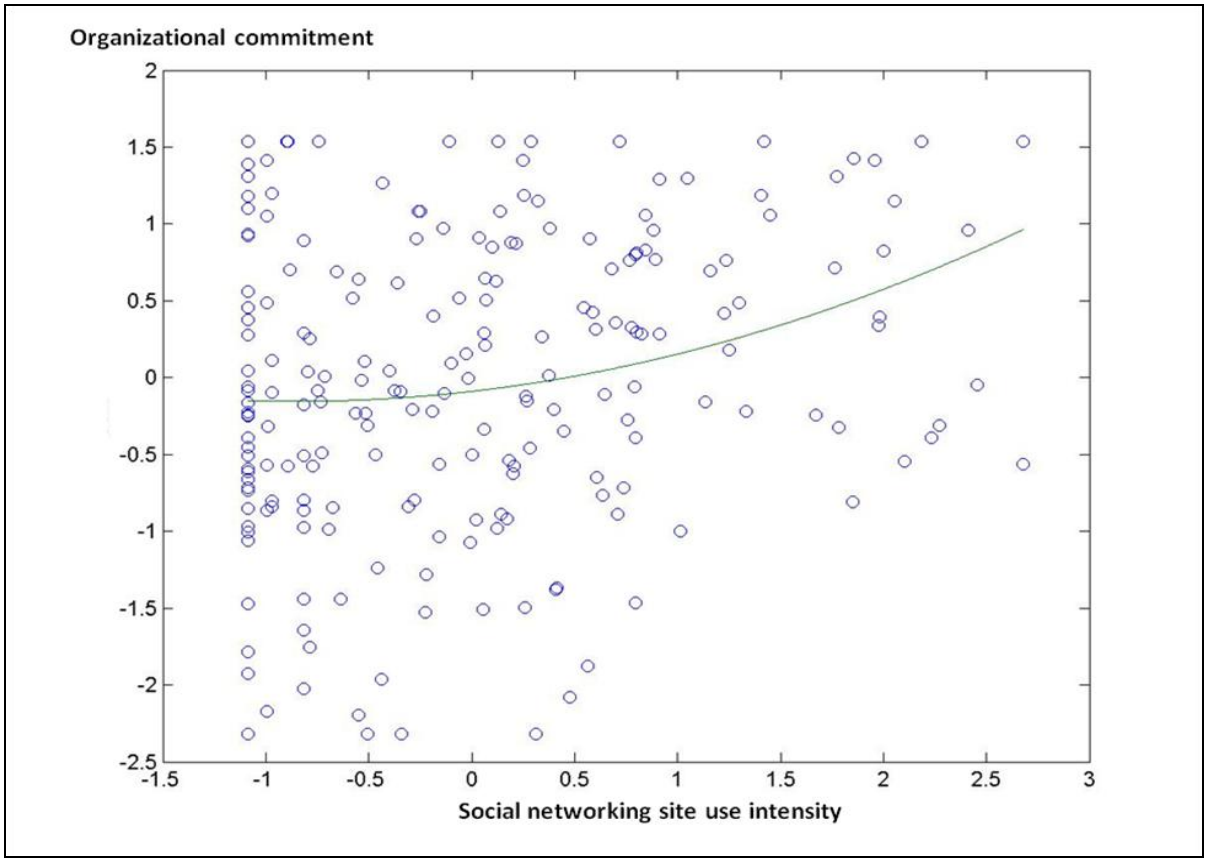
Note: The axes scales are standardized.

Hypothesis 6 proposed that social networking site use intensity would be positively associated with organizational commitment. As expected, social networking site use intensity had a significant association with organizational commitment (coefficient=0.13, P <0.05), indicating that job satisfaction plays the role of a partial mediator between social networking

site use intensity and organizational commitment implying that the higher the use intensity of social networking sites, the more committed employees are to their organizations. In practical terms, this means that for every 10 percent increase in social networking site use intensity, there is a 1.3 percent increase in organizational commitment. The hypothesized effect was supported (H6).

Figure 10 depicts the relationship between social networking site use intensity and organizational commitment. It shows a positive relationship between social networking site use intensity and organizational commitment, matching the results generated by the PLS technique.

Figure 10: Social networking site use intensity and organizational commitment on a plot for the US



Note: The axes scales are standardized.

In Hypothesis 7, social networking site use intensity was anticipated to be negatively associated with absenteeism. The results show that the association between social networking site use intensity and absenteeism was not significant (coefficient=0.01, P>0.05), implying that employees' absences from work are not related to their use of social networking sites in the workplace. The hypothesized effect was not supported (H7).

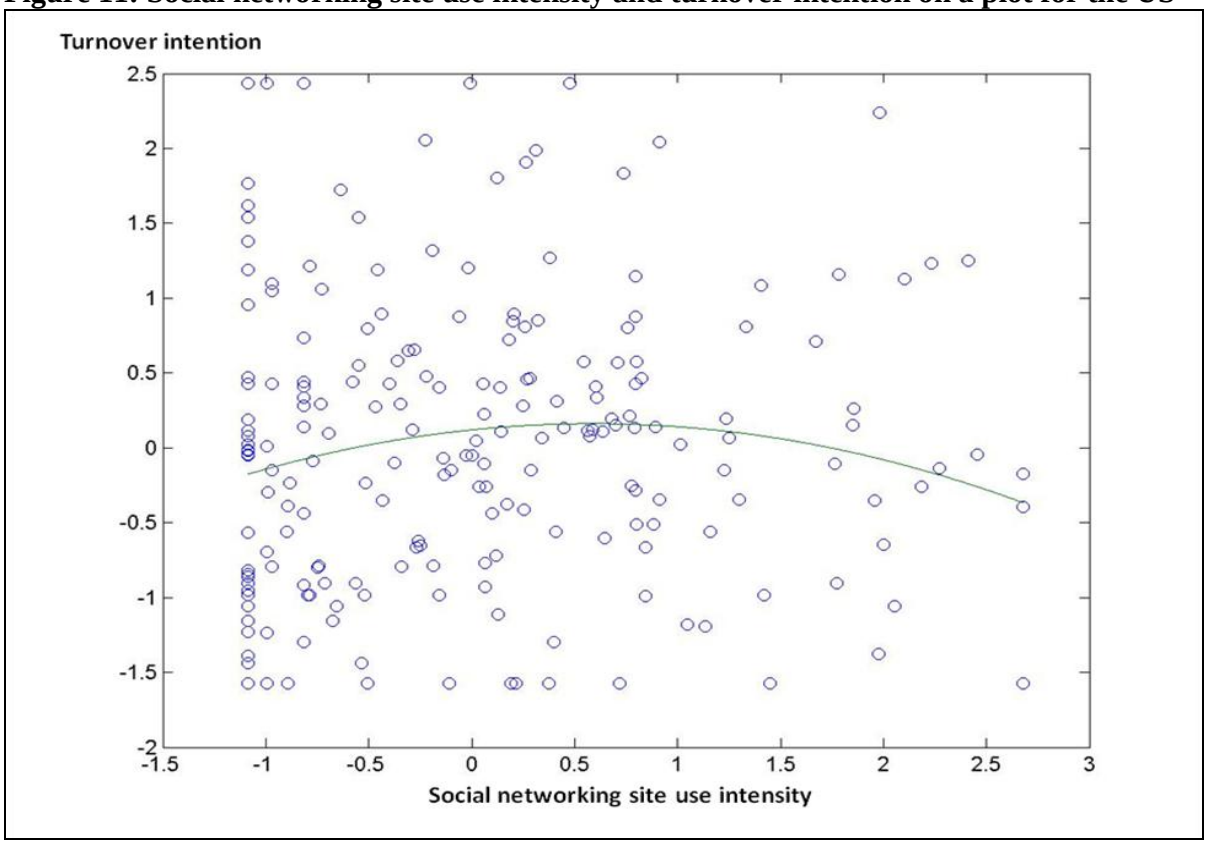
Hypothesis 8 proposed absenteeism was negatively associated with job performance. Although it is in the same expected direction, the association between absenteeism and job performance was not significant (coefficient=-0.07, P>0.05), implying that employees' absenteeism does not have any effect on their work performance. The hypothesized effect was not supported (H8).

In Hypothesis 9, social networking site use intensity was expected to be negatively associated with turnover intention. Surprisingly, social networking site use intensity had a positive, rather than negative, association with turnover intention (coefficient=0.14, P<0.05), suggesting that the use of social networking sites by employees at work had a positive effect on their intention to leave their organizations for another employer. This result can be translated practically as for every 10 percent increase in the use of social networking sites in the workplace, there will be a 1.4 percent increase in the intention of employees to leave the organization they currently work for. The hypothesized effect was not supported (H9).

Figure 11 shows the association and the best-fitting line between social networking site use intensity and turnover intention. Although the PLS results show there is a positive relationship between social networking site use intensity and turnover intention, this nonlinear graph shows that this relationship holds until it reaches a threshold then decreases.

This threshold appears from the graph to be 0.5 standard deviation, which on a seven-point Likert scale equals around 4.08 (M=3.33 + SD=1.5/2).

Figure 11: Social networking site use intensity and turnover intention on a plot for the US



Note: The axes scales are standardized.

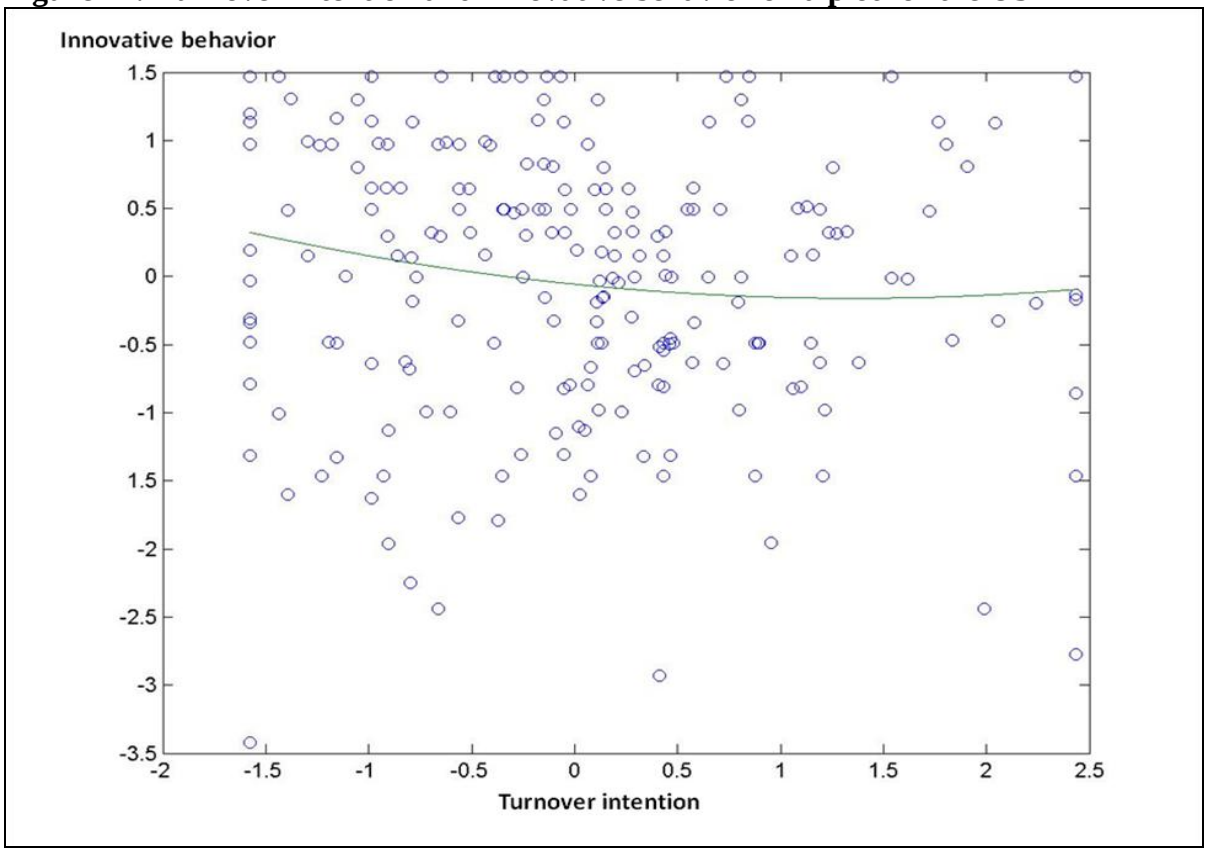
Hypothesis 10 stated turnover intention was positively associated with absenteeism. Although it is in the same expected direction, the association between turnover intention and absenteeism was not significant (coefficient=0.06, P>0.05), indicating that employees' intentions to leave their organizations does not necessarily lead to a higher absenteeism rate. The hypothesized effect was not supported (H10).

In Hypothesis 11, turnover intention was anticipated to be negatively associated with innovative behavior. As hypothesized, the association between turnover intention and innovative behavior was significant (coefficient=-0.14, P<0.05), indicating that participants

who intend to leave their current organizations tend to not contribute innovative or new ideas in the workplace. This result implies that for every 10 percent increase in intention to leave, there is 1.4 percent increase in innovative behavior. The hypothesized effect was supported (H11).

Figure 12 shows that there is almost a negative linear relationship between turnover intention and innovative behavior supporting Hypothesis 11.

Figure 12: Turnover intention and innovative behavior on a plot for the US



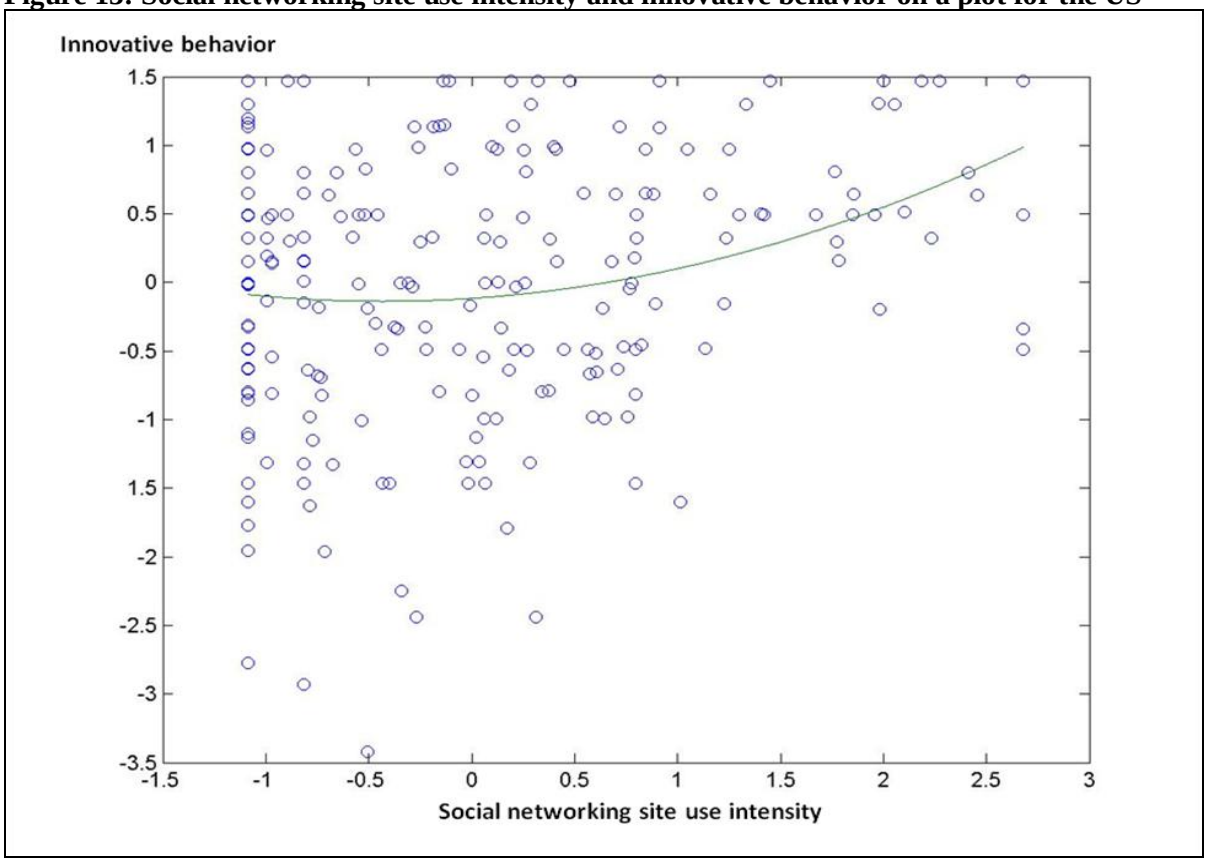
Note: The axes scales are standardized.

Hypothesis 12 stated that social networking site use intensity was positively associated with innovative behavior. As hypothesized, social networking site use intensity had a significant positive association with innovative behavior (coefficient=0.23, P<0.01), indicating that the more intense the use of social networking sites by employees in the workplace, the greater their contributions of innovative and new ideas in relation to their

jobs. In practical terms, this result means that for every 10 percent increase in social networking site use intensity, there is an expected 2.3 percent increase in innovative behavior. The hypothesized effect was supported (H12).

Figure 13 shows a positive relationship between the use of social networking sites and innovative behavior. This result supports the PLS results reported above.

Figure 13: Social networking site use intensity and innovative behavior on a plot for the US



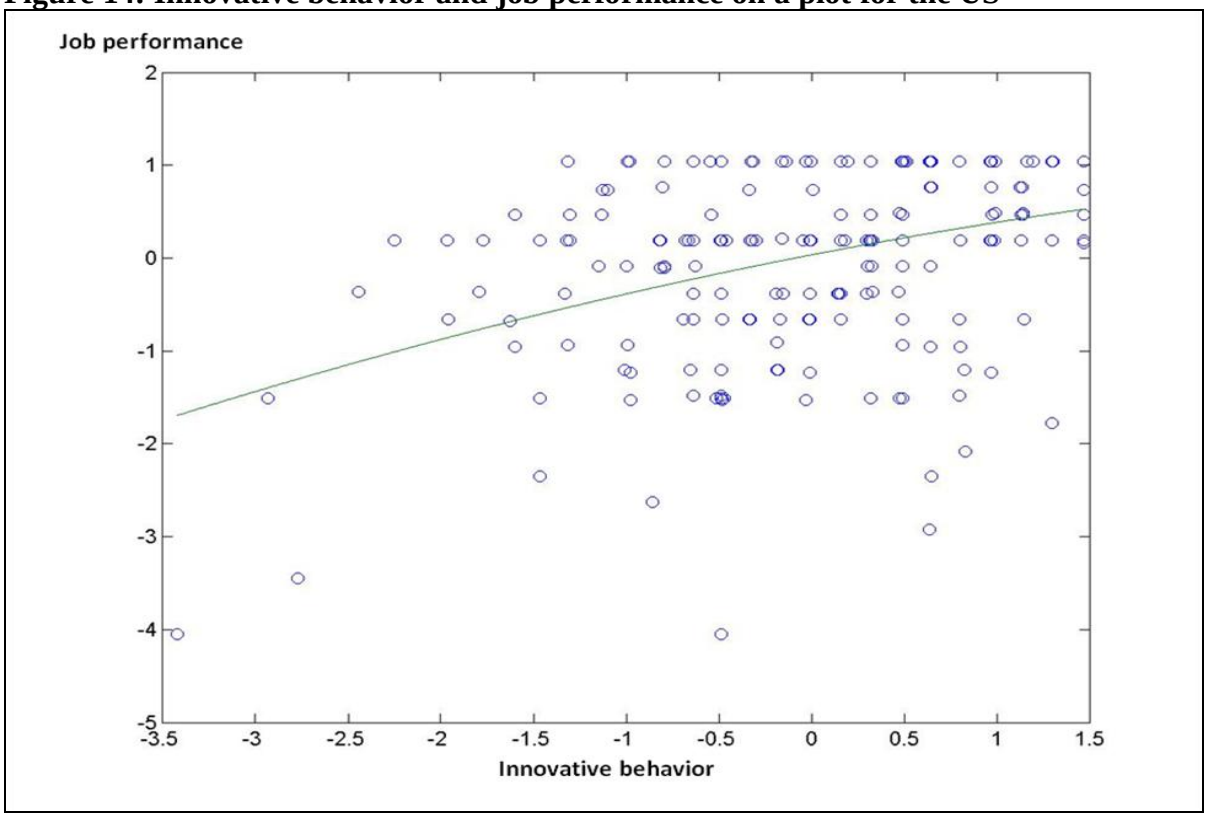
Note: The axes scales are standardized.

Hypothesis 13 proposed that innovative behavior would be positively associated with job performance. As anticipated, innovative behavior (coefficient=0.29, P<0.01) had a significant positive association with job performance which suggests that the more innovative ideas employees contribute to their work, the higher the level of their job performance. This result can be interpreted practically by saying that for every 10 percent

increase in innovative behavior, there is a 2.9 percent increase in job performance. The hypothesized effect was supported (H13).

Figure 14 depicts the association between innovative behavior and job performance. The graph shows that there is an almost-linear positive relationship between innovative behavior and job performance.

Figure 14: Innovative behavior and job performance on a plot for the US



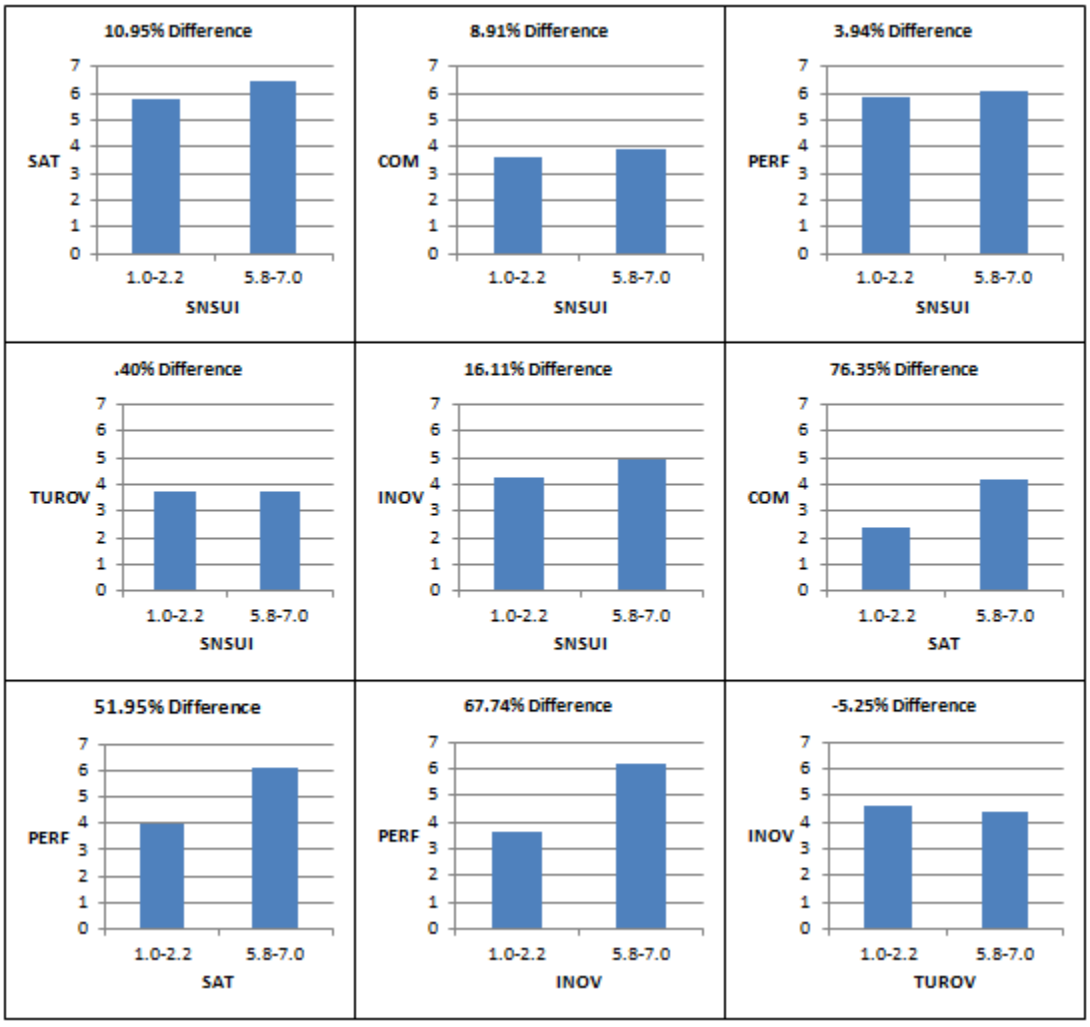
Note: The axes scales are standardized.

The following control variables were included in the analysis, with respect to job performance: age, gender, years of work experience in current organization (tenure), gender, level of education, employment type (full-time/part-time), level of managerial position, and the presence or absence of an organization's formal social networking site use policy. This means that the above results regarding job performance occurred regardless of the effects of

these control variables. In addition, none of the control variables was significantly associated with job performance.

Figure 15 below shows the non-standardized data charts for latent variables used in this study. Since latent variable scores are standardized measures, this figure was created using the highest-loading indicator of each latent variable, as recommended by Kock (2010; 2011). This figure shows the percentage difference for each pair of latent variables, from the lowest to the highest quintile of another variable.

Figure 15: Non-standardized data chart showing the difference between the highest and the lowest quintiles for the US



Notes:

- PERF = job performance; COM = organizational commitment; SNSUI = social networking site use intensity; ABSENT = absenteeism; TUROV = turnover intention; INOV = innovative behavior.

The first two bars on the left of Figure 15 show that there is a 10.95 percent increase in the level of job satisfaction from the lowest to the highest quintile of social networking site use intensity. The results above complement the PLS analysis results discussed above.

Yemen Results

For the Yemen sample, the results supported 5 out of the 13 proposed hypotheses (Table 20), explaining 43 percent of the job performance variance.

Table 20: Support for the hypotheses based on the results for Yemen

Hypothesis	Path Coefficient	Supported?
H1. Social networking site use intensity is positively associated with job performance.	0.07 ^{NS}	No
H2. Social networking site use intensity is positively associated with job satisfaction.	0.21***	Yes
H3. Job satisfaction is positively associated with job performance.	0.47***	Yes
H4. Job satisfaction is positively associated with organizational commitment.	0.57***	Yes
H5. Organizational commitment is positively associated with job performance.	0.11 ^{NS}	No
H6. Social networking site use intensity is positively associated with organizational commitment.	0.07 ^{NS}	No
H7. Social networking site use intensity is negatively associated with absenteeism.	0.08 ^{NS}	No
H8. Absenteeism is negatively associated with job performance.	- 0.11 ^{NS}	No
H9. Social networking site use intensity is negatively associated with turnover intention.	0.07 ^{NS}	No
H10. Turnover intention is positively associated with absenteeism.	0.03 ^{NS}	No
H11. Turnover intention is negatively associated with innovative behavior.	- 0.06 ^{NS}	No
H12. Social networking site use intensity is positively associated with innovative behavior.	0.18***	Yes
H13. Innovative behavior is positively associated with job performance.	0.13*	Yes

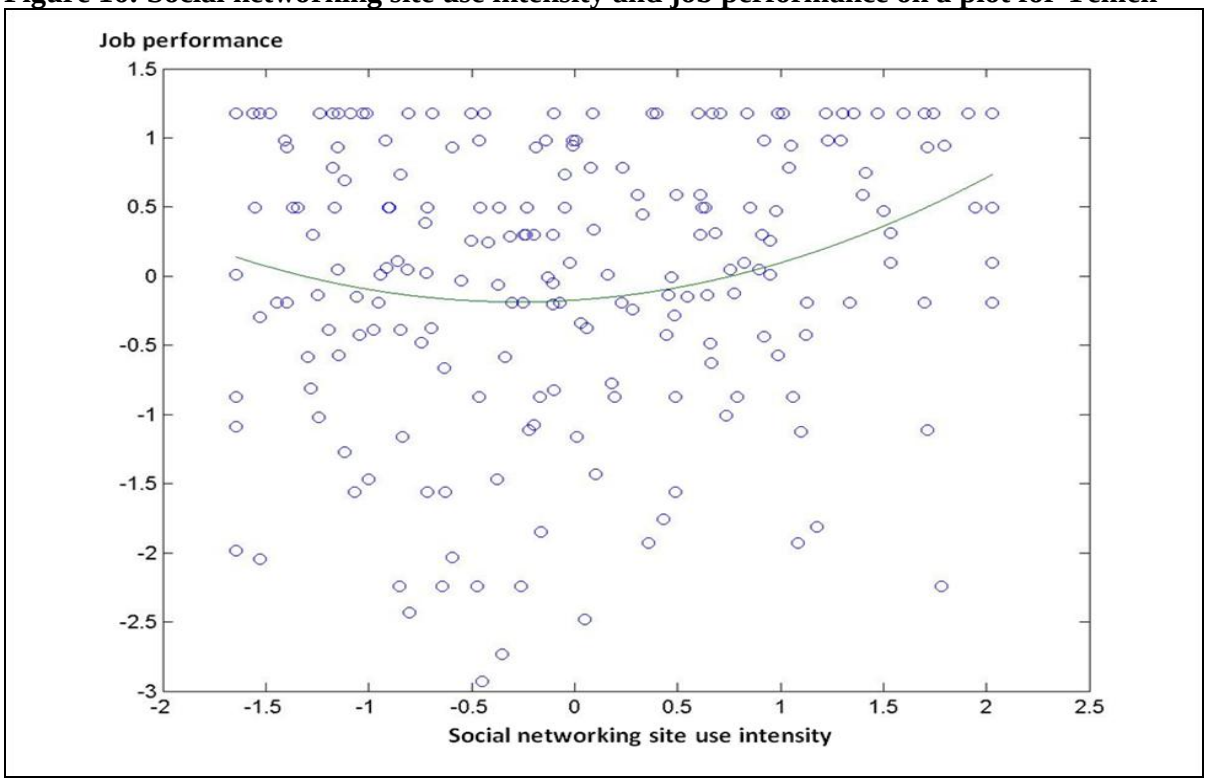
Notes:

- * = P<0.05; ** = P<0.01; *** = P<0.001; NS = not statistically significant.

Hypothesis 1 proposed a positive association between social networking site use intensity and job performance. No significant association was reported between social networking site use intensity (coefficient=0.07, P>0.05) and job performance, implying that there is no direct effect of social networking site use intensity on job performance. Therefore, the proposed association between social networking site use intensity and job performance was not supported (H1).

Figure 16 shows the relationship between social networking site use intensity and job performance in a graphical mode. Although, the relationship is not significant, the graph shows that social networking site use intensity in the workplace begins to enhance job performance at a certain threshold. This threshold appears in the graph to be at the mean, which is 3.71 Likert-scale points. After this threshold point social networking site use intensity seems to begin to enhance job performance.

Figure 16: Social networking site use intensity and job performance on a plot for Yemen

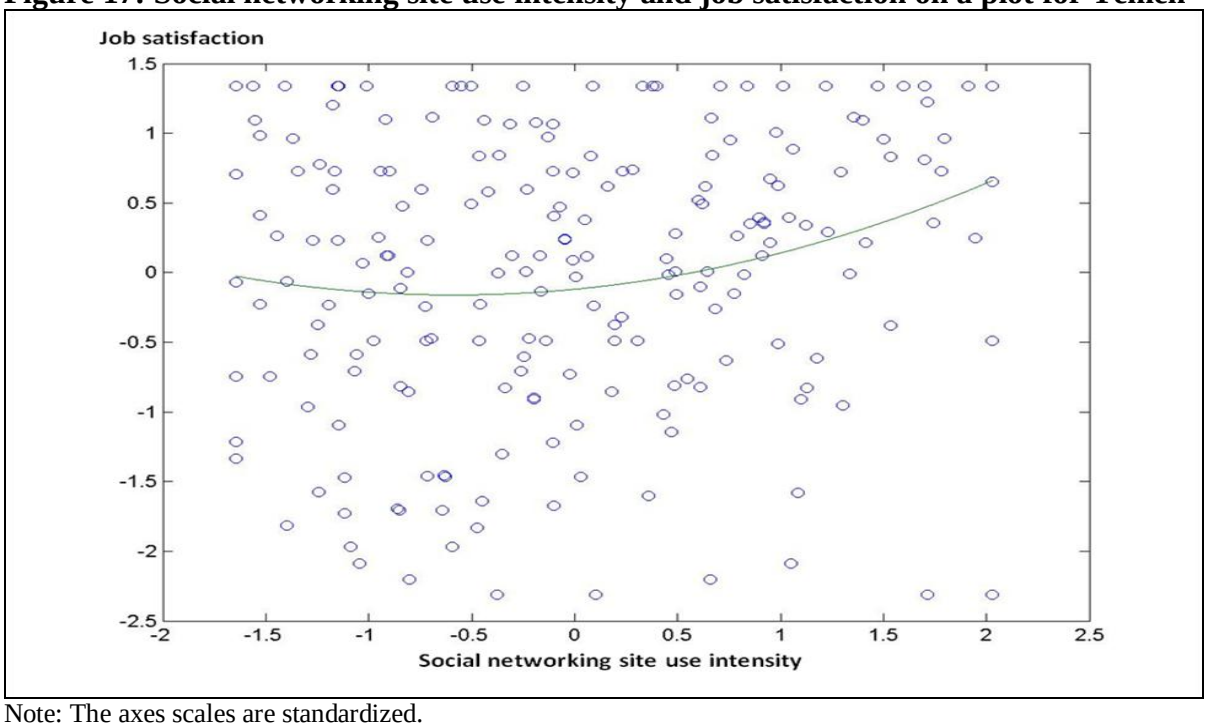


Note: The axes scales are standardized.

Hypothesis 2 stated that social networking site use intensity would be positively associated with job satisfaction. As expected, social networking site use intensity had a significant positive association with job satisfaction (coefficient=0.21, P<0.01), indicating that the more intense the use of social networking sites by employees, the higher their level of job satisfaction. Practically, this result can be translated as that for every 10 percent increase in social networking site use intensity, there is an expected 2.1 percent increase in job satisfaction. Thus, the proposed positive association between social networking site use intensity and job satisfaction was supported (H2).

Figure 17 shows that the relationship between social networking site use intensity and job satisfaction started flat until it reached - 0.5 standard deviations, and then it started to increase. This point is located at 2.91 Likert-scale points. After this point, the more social networking site use intensity, the higher the level of job satisfaction. This graphical result matches the PLS result.

Figure 17: Social networking site use intensity and job satisfaction on a plot for Yemen

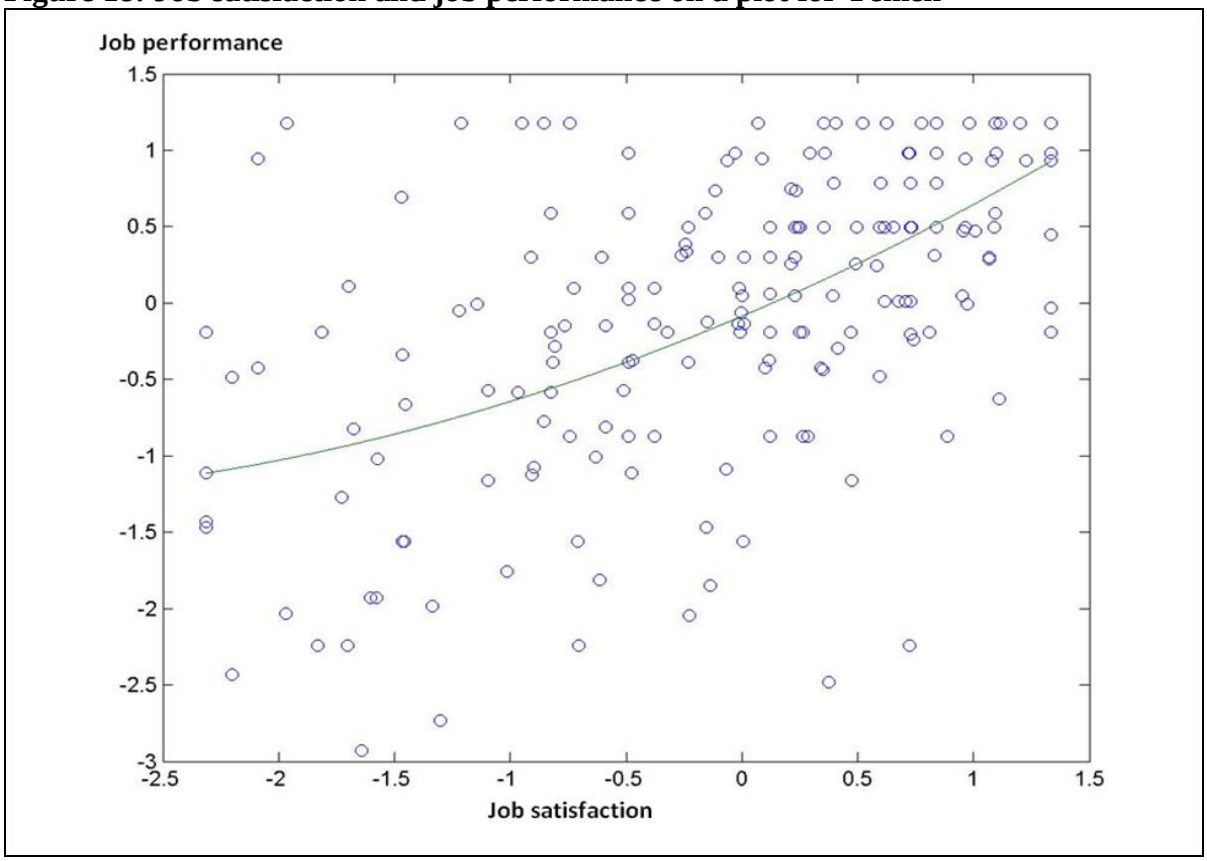


Note: The axes scales are standardized.

In Hypothesis 3, job satisfaction was anticipated to be positively associated with job performance. As expected, job satisfaction (coefficient=0.47, P<0.01) had a significant positive association with job performance and suggests that the more satisfied employees are with their jobs, the higher their level of job performance. This result can be interpreted practically by saying that for every 10 percent increase in job satisfaction, there is a 4.7 percent increase in job performance. Therefore, the strong positive association between job satisfaction and job performance serves to support Hypothesis 3.

Figure 18 shows the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. The relationship is almost linear and supports the PLS result.

Figure 18: Job satisfaction and job performance on a plot for Yemen



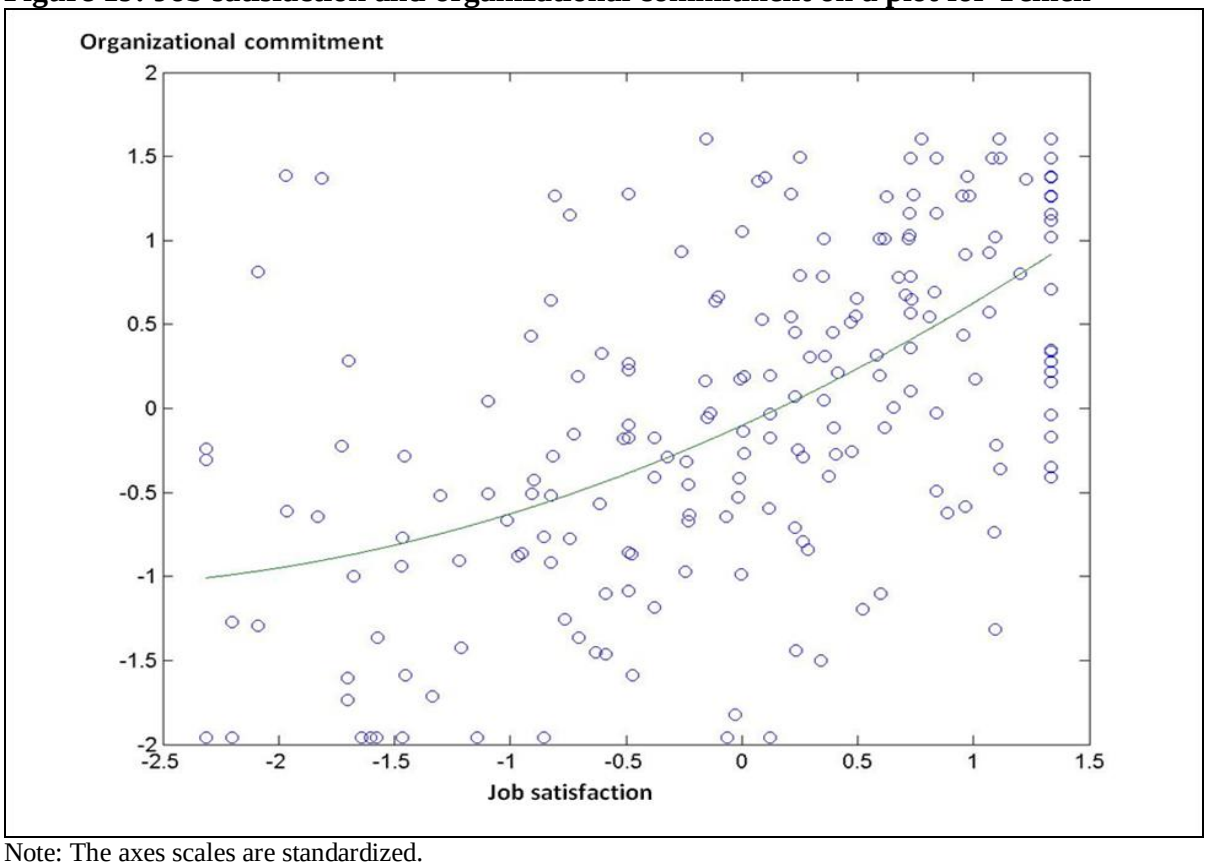
Note: The axes scales are standardized.

Hypothesis 4 proposed job satisfaction was positively associated with organizational commitment. As expected, job satisfaction had a significant positive association with

organizational commitment (coefficient=0.57, P<0.001), denoting that the more satisfied employees are with their jobs, the higher the level of organizational commitment they will have. Similarly, the practical interpretation of this result is that there is an expected 5.7 percent increase in organizational commitment for every 10 percent increase in job satisfaction. The hypothesized effect was supported (H4).

Similarly, figure 19 depicts the nonlinear relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The relationship appears to be positive and almost linear. This graphical depiction supports the hypothesized association between job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Figure 19: Job satisfaction and organizational commitment on a plot for Yemen



Note: The axes scales are standardized.

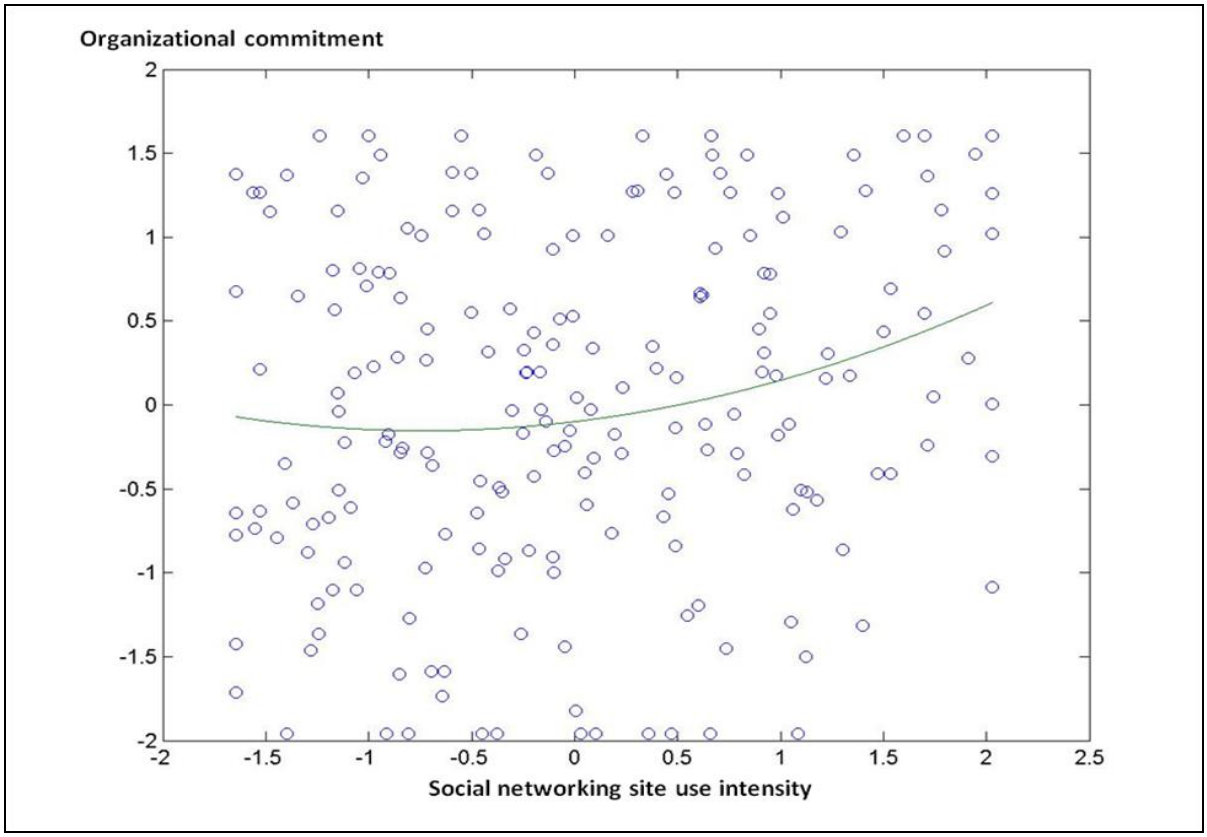
Hypothesis 5 stated that organizational commitment was positively associated with job performance. Unexpectedly, organizational commitment did not have a significant

positive association with job performance (coefficient=0.11, P>0.05), implying that a higher emotional attachment and employees' sense of belonging to their organizations do not necessarily translate into a higher level of job performance. The hypothesized effect was not supported (H5).

Hypothesis 6 proposed that social networking site use intensity would be positively associated with organizational commitment. Nevertheless, social networking site use intensity did not have a significant association with organizational commitment (coefficient=0.07, P>0.05), implying that social networking site use intensity does not contribute to making employees more committed to their organizations when results are controlled for the employee's job satisfaction. This result is further explained in the discussion section. The hypothesized effect was not supported (H6).

Although the PLS results show no significant relationship between social networking site use intensity and organizational commitment, Figure 20 shows that there is a positive one. One explanation is that, when controlling for job satisfaction, the relationship between social networking site use intensity and organizational commitment diminishes. However, this result is further explained in the discussion section.

Figure 20: Social networking site use intensity and organizational commitment on a plot for Yemen



Note: The axes scales are standardized.

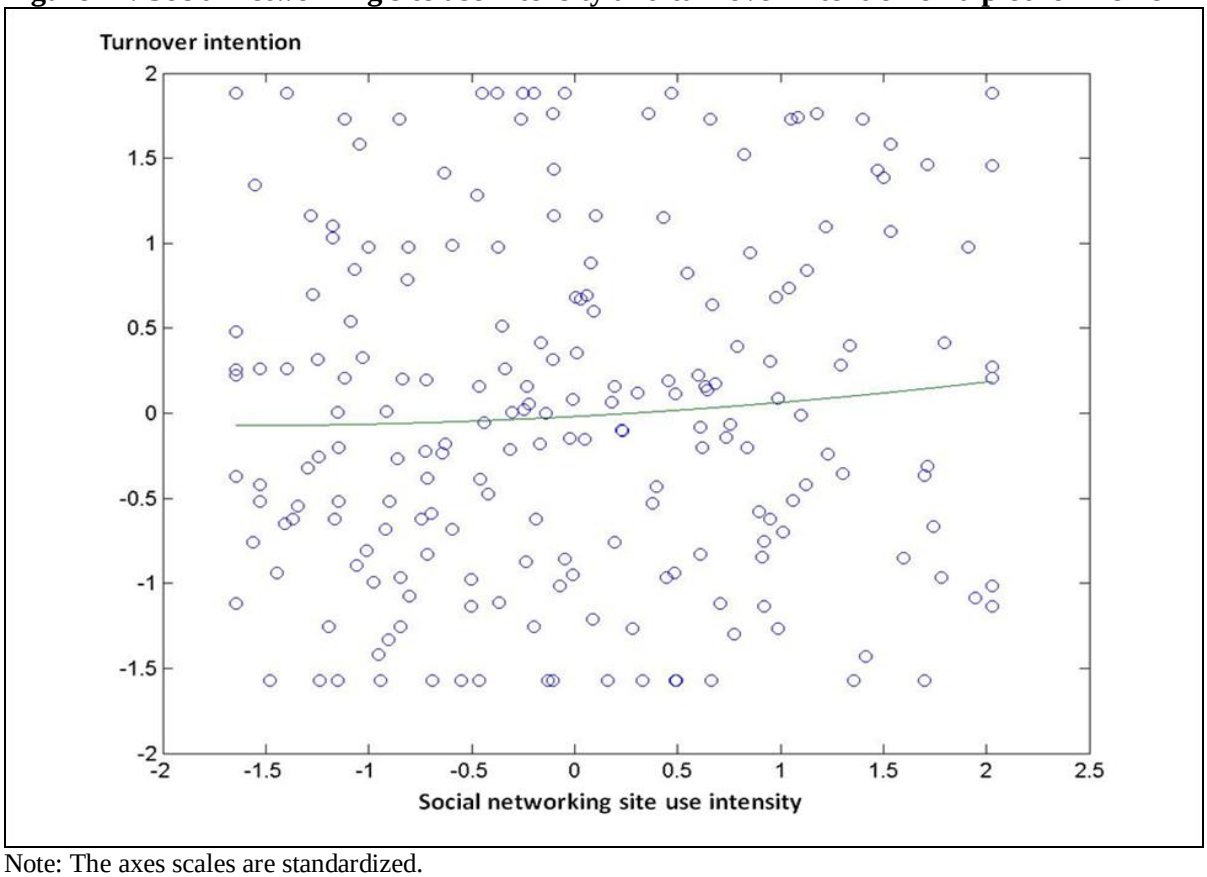
Hypothesis 7 anticipates a negative relationship between social networking site use intensity and absenteeism. The results show that the association between social networking site use intensity and absenteeism was not significant (coefficient=0.08, P>0.05), suggesting that employees' absenteeism at work is not related to their use of social networking site use intensity in the workplace. The hypothesized effect was not supported (H7).

Hypothesis 8 proposed absenteeism to be negatively associated with job performance. Similar to the US result, the association between absenteeism and job performance was not significant, although it is in the hypothesized direction (coefficient=-0.07, P>0.05), implying that employees' absenteeism does not have an effect on their work performance. The hypothesized effect was not supported (H8).

In Hypothesis 9, social networking site use intensity was expected to be negatively associated with turnover intention. Similar to the US result, only in terms of the positive direction, social networking site use intensity did not have an association with turnover intention (coefficient=0.07, P>0.05), suggesting that the use of social networking sites by employees at work does not affect their intention to leave their organizations to work for other employers. The hypothesized effect was not supported (H9).

Unlike the obvious curvilinear relationship between social networking site use intensity and turnover intention in the US sample, Figure 21 shows the relationship between social networking site use intensity and turnover intention is flat and almost does not exist, supporting the PLS results.

Figure 21: Social networking site use intensity and turnover intention on a plot for Yemen



Note: The axes scales are standardized.

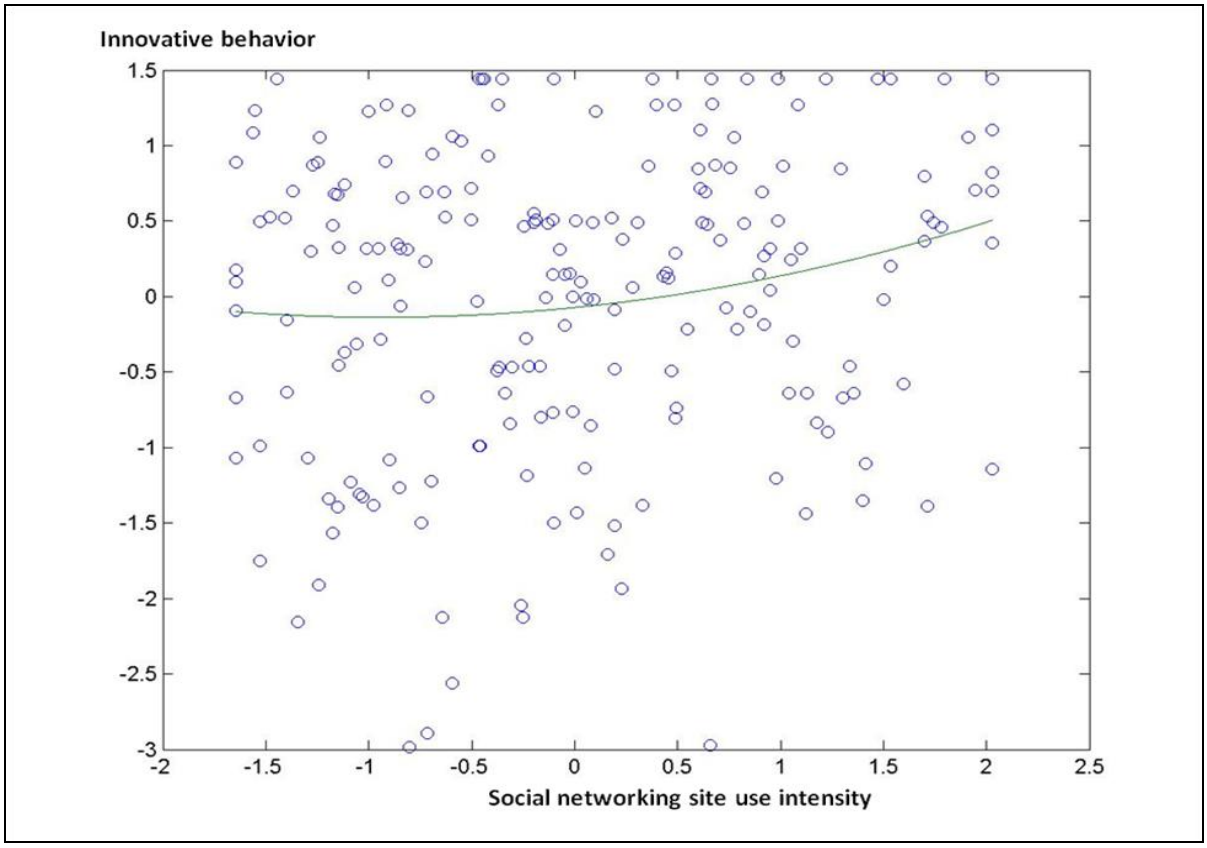
Hypothesis 10 stated turnover intention was positively associated with absenteeism. Although it is in the expected direction, the association between turnover intention and absenteeism was not significant (coefficient=0.03, P>0.05), indicating that employees' intentions to leave their organizations does not necessarily lead to a higher absenteeism rate. The hypothesized effect was not supported (H10).

In Hypothesis 11, turnover intention was anticipated to be negatively associated with innovative behavior. In agreement with the hypothesized expectation, only in the negative direction, the association between turnover intention and innovative behavior was not significant (coefficient=-0.06, P>0.05), indicating that the intention of employees to leave their current organization does not necessarily discourage them from contributing innovative and new ideas to their workplace. The hypothesized effect was not supported (H11).

Hypothesis 12 stated that social networking site use was positively associated with innovative behavior. As hypothesized, social networking site use intensity had a significant positive association with innovative behavior (coefficient=0.18, P<0.01), indicating that the more intense social networking site use by employees in the workplace, the higher was their level of contribution of innovative and new ideas related to their jobs. Practically, this result means that for every 10 percent increase in social networking site use intensity, there is an expected 1.8 percent increase in innovative behavior. The hypothesized effect was supported (H12).

Figure 22 depicts the nonlinear relationship between social networking site use intensity and innovative behavior. The graph shows that there is a nearly linear relationship between social networking site use intensity and innovative behavior. This graphical depiction complements the PLS results.

Figure 22: Social networking site use intensity and innovative behavior on a plot for Yemen



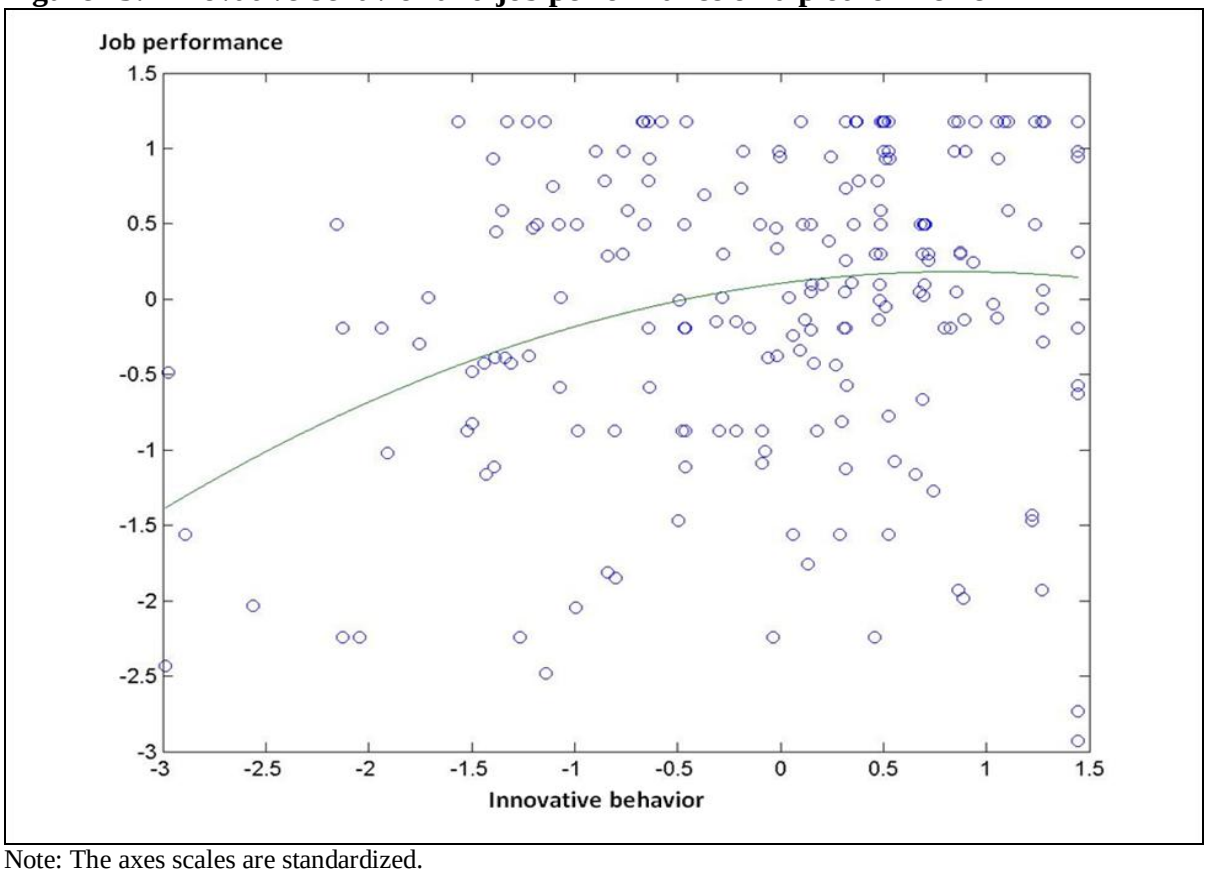
Note: The axes scales are standardized.

Hypothesis 13 proposed that innovative behavior would be positively associated with job performance. As expected, innovative behavior (coefficient=0.13, P<0.05) had a significant positive association with job performance which implies that the more innovative ideas employees contribute to their work, the higher their job performance level. This result can be interpreted practically by saying that for every 10 percent increase in innovative behavior, there is a 1.3 percent increase in job performance. The hypothesized effect was supported (H13).

Figure 23 shows the plotted association between innovative behavior and job performance. The graph shows the relationship between innovative behavior and job performance increases steeply until it reaches a threshold and then starts to flatten. Looking

at the graph, an estimated threshold where the flattening of the line starts at is the 0.5 standard deviation point. The translated Likert scale point equals 5.29 (M=4.72, SD=1.147).

Figure 23: Innovative behavior and job performance on a plot for Yemen

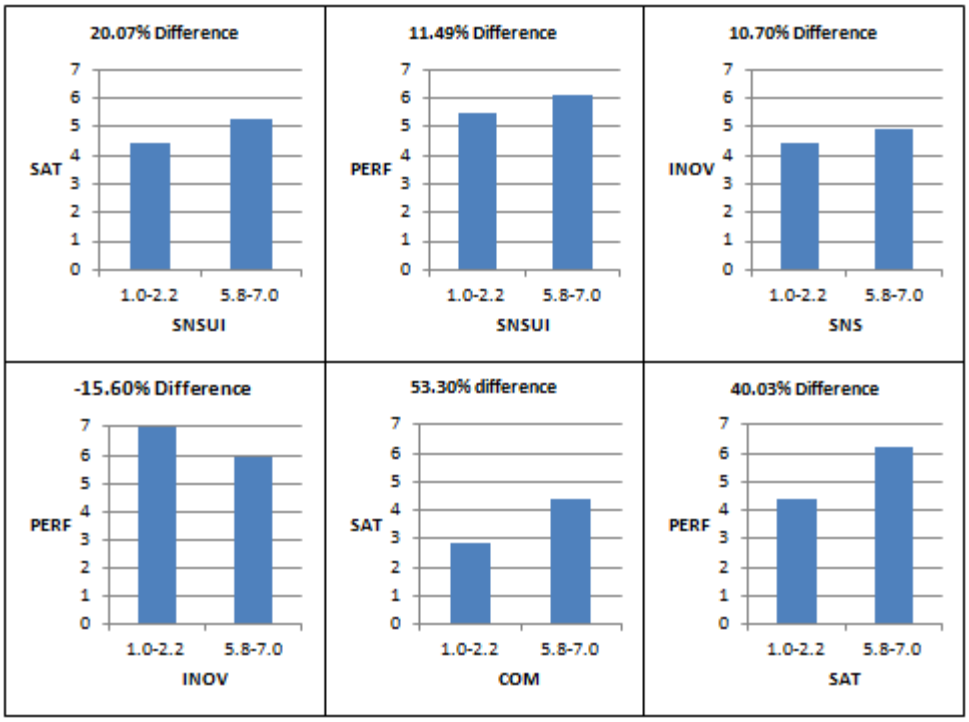


Note: The axes scales are standardized.

The following control variables were included in the analysis, with respect to job performance: age, gender, years of work experience in current organization (tenure), gender, level of education, employment type (full-time/part-time), level of managerial position, and the presence or absence of an organization's formal social networking site use policy. This means that the above results regarding job performance occurred regardless of the effects of these control variables. In addition, none of the control variables was significantly associated with job performance.

Figure 24 shows the non-standardized data charts for some latent variables used in this study. Since latent variable scores are standardized measures, this figure was created using the highest-loading indicator of each latent variable, as recommended by Kock (2010; 2011). This figure shows the percentage difference for each pair of latent variables, from the lowest to the highest quintile of another variable.

Figure 24: Non-standardized data chart showing the difference between the highest and the lowest quintiles for Yemen



Notes:
- PERF = job performance; COM = organizational commitment; SNSUI = social networking site use intensity; ABSENT = absenteeism; TUROV = turnover Intention; INOV = innovative behavior.

The first two bars from the left in Figure 3 show there is a 20.07 percent increase in the level of job satisfaction from the lowest to the highest quintile of social networking site use intensity. The above results complement the PLS analysis results discussed above.

Total, Direct, and Indirect Effects

WarpPLS software calculates total and indirect effects related to all latent variables that are linked through one or more paths with more than one segment. The software provides the following values associated with total and indirect effects: "the path coefficients associated with the effects, the number of paths that make up the effects, the P values associated with effects (calculated via resampling, using the selected resampling method), the standard errors associated with the effects, and effect sizes associated with the effects" (Kock, 2012, p. 50). The effect sizes are calculated as Cohen's (2009) f-squared coefficients.

US Total, Direct, and Indirect Effects

Table 21 shows the total effect of social networking site use intensity, along with the number of paths used to calculate them, the effect size, and the respective P values. Total effects are calculated by taking into account all paths connecting two variables. WarpPLS 3.0 automatically calculates the total effects as well as the corresponding P values (Kock, 2012). Table 21 shows the total effects of social networking site use intensity on job performance of the US sample is close but not significant as the P value for job performance is 0.109. Interpreting this, the probability that the effect is real and is not due to chance is 89.1 percent (100-10.9=89.1). All values in the effect size column, except for turnover intention and absenteeism, are above Cohen's (2009) effect size threshold and are considered relevant (f-squared > 0.02).

Table 21: Total effect of SNSUI for the US

	Paths N	Total Effect	P Value	Effect Size
SAT	1	0.214	<0.001	0.046
COM	2	0.264	<0.001	0.065
PERF	8	0.134	0.109	0.021
TUROV	1	0.140	0.024	0.020
INOV	2	0.209	<0.001	0.049
ABSENT	2	0.017	0.403	0.000

Notes:
- PERF = job performance; COM = organizational commitment; SAT = job satisfaction; SNSUI = social networking site use intensity; ABSENT = absenteeism; TUROV = turnover intention; INOV = innovative behavior.

Table 22 shows the direct effect of social networking site use intensity on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job performance, turnover intention, innovative behavior, and absenteeism. The results show that social networking site use intensity has a significant direct effect on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intention, and innovative behavior. However, social networking site use intensity did not have a significant direct effect on job performance or absenteeism.

Table 22: Direct effect of SNSUI for the US

	Direct Effect	P Value
SNSUI → SAT	0.214	<0.001
SNSUI → COM	0.127	0.019
SNSUI → PERF	-0.062	0.192
SNSUI → TUROV	0.140	0.024
SNSUI → INOV	0.228	<0.001
SNSUI → ABSENT	0.008	0.453

Notes:
- PERF = job performance; COM = organizational commitment; SAT = job satisfaction; SNSUI = social networking site use intensity; ABSENT = absenteeism; TUROV = turnover intention; INOV = innovative behavior.

Table 23 shows the sum of indirect effects of social networking site use intensity on organizational commitment, job performance, innovative behavior, and absenteeism. The first row of Table 22 shows that the coefficient of the sum of the indirect effect of social

networking site use intensity on organizational commitment is 0.137, which is significant at the P value <0.001 level. Similarly, the sum of the indirect effect of social networking site use intensity on job performance is significant as the P value is <0.001. The effect of the sum of indirect effects of social networking site use intensity on job performance is small (Cohen, 2009). According to Cohen (2009), the effect size of any variable can be defined as small, medium, or large effect size when the R^2 is 0.02, 0.13, or 0.26, respectively. In Table 22, only organizational commitment and job performance values are both statistically significant and above the effect size threshold Cohen recommends for relevancy (f-squared > 0.02).

Table 23: Sums of indirect effects of SNSUI for the US

	Paths N	Indirect Effect	P Value	Effect Size
COM	1	0.137	<0.001	0.034
PERF	7	0.196	<0.001	0.031
INOV	1	-0.020	0.087	0.005
ABSENT	1	0.009	0.136	0.000

Notes:
- PERF = job performance; COM = organizational commitment; SAT = job satisfaction; SNSUI = social networking site use intensity; ABSENT = absenteeism; TUROV = turnover intention; INOV = innovative behavior.

The results of the indirect effects suggest a mediating effect by job satisfaction on the association between social networking site use intensity and job performance. Using WarpPLS 3.0, a test of significance of mediation was employed using the approach proposed by Hayes and Preacher (2010), a nonparametric approach that uses beta coefficients and standard errors obtained through resampling. This test yielded a P value of 0.002, suggesting that the mediating effect of job satisfaction on the relationship between social networking site use intensity and job performance was statistically significant at P <0.01 level. At the same time, job satisfaction has a statistically significant mediating effect on the association between social networking site use intensity and organizational commitment at P <0.01 significance level. In other words, the results suggest that job satisfaction plays the role of

mediator in the relationships between social networking site use intensity and both job performance and organizational commitment. Although organizational commitment does not mediate the relationship between social networking site use intensity and job performance, it does have a marginally significant mediating effect on the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance as the P value is >0.05. The indirect effect of social networking site use intensity on job performance through the mediation of job satisfaction is 0.106 which is significant at P <0.01 level (see Table 24).

Table 24: Indirect effects of paths with 2 segments for the US

	Indirect Effect	**P Value**
SNSUI → SAT → PERF	0.106	0.002
SNSUI → COM → PERF	0.015	0.146
SNSUI → INOV → PERF	0.065	0.002
SNSUI → ABSENT → PERF	-0.001	0.463

Notes:
- PERF = job performance; COM = organizational commitment; SAT = job satisfaction; SNSUI = social networking site use intensity; ABSENT = absenteeism; TUROV = turnover intention; INOV = innovative behavior.

As for the mediation effect of absenteeism on the relationship between social networking site use intensity and job performance, it was not significant as the P value is >0.05. In addition, turnover intention does not mediate the relationship between social networking site use intensity and absenteeism as the P value is >0.05.

Innovative behavior, on the other hand, plays the role of a significant mediator in the relationship between social networking site use intensity and job performance at the P value of <0.01. That is, innovative behavior significantly mediates the relationship between social networking site use intensity and job performance at a P value of 0.033. In terms of turnover intention, it works as a marginally significant mediator in the relationship between social networking site use intensity and innovative behavior as the P value is <0.10.

Table 25 shows the total effect size of each variable linked to job performance including the number of paths/links, the total effect coefficients, and the P values. For instance, the total effect size of job satisfaction on job performance is 0.305, explaining the majority of variance in job performance. This total effect is significant at P <0.01 level with a total effect coefficient of 0.571. Second to job satisfaction, innovative behavior has an effect size of 0.116 that is significant at P <0.001 level.

Table 25: Total effects of all latent variables on PERF for the US

	Paths N	Total Effect	P Values	Effect Size
SNSUI	8	0.134	0.109	0.021
SAT	2	0.571	0.002	0.305
COM	1	0.121	0.126	0.039
TUROV	2	-0.045	0.033	0.008
INOV	1	0.285	<0.001	0.116
ABSENT	1	-0.072	0.145	0.005

Notes:

- PERF = job performance; COM = organizational commitment; SAT = job satisfaction; SNSUI = social networking site use intensity; ABSENT = absenteeism; TUROV = turnover intention; INOV = innovative behavior.

Yemen Total, Direct, and Indirect Effects

Table 26 shows the total effect of social networking site use intensity, along with the number of paths used to calculate them, the effect size, and the respective P values. Total effects are calculated by taking into account all paths connecting two variables. WarpPLS 3.0 automatically calculates the total effects as well as the corresponding P values (Kock, 2012). Table 26 shows that the total effects of social networking site use intensity on job performance of the Yemen sample to be small but significant as the P value for job performance is 0.018 (calculated through bootstrapping, a nonparametric technique). This means that the probability that the effect is real and is not due to chance is 98.2 percent (100-1.8=98.2). All values under the effect size column except turnover intention and absenteeism

are above Cohen's (2009) effect size threshold and are considered relevant (f-squared > 0.02).

Table 26: Total effect of SNSUI for Yemen

	Paths N	Total Effect	P Values	Effect Size
SAT	1	0.209	0.005	0.044
COM	2	0.184	0.003	0.037
PERF	8	0.205	0.018	0.046
TUROV	1	0.071	0.170	0.005
INOV	2	0.172	0.004	0.029
ABSENT	2	0.079	0.380	0.006

Notes:
- PERF = job performance; COM = organizational commitment; SAT = job satisfaction; SNSUI = social networking site use intensity; ABSENT = absenteeism; TUROV = turnover intention; INOV = innovative behavior.

Table 27 shows the direct effect of social networking site use intensity on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job performance, turnover intention, innovative behavior, and absenteeism. Unlike the results reported in the US sample, the results here show that social networking site use intensity has a significant direct effect only on job satisfaction and innovative behavior. Social networking site use intensity did not have significant direct effect on organizational commitment, job performance, turnover intention, or absenteeism. The discussion section explains possible reasons why social networking site use intensity significantly affected organizational commitment and turnover intention in the US sample.

Table 27: Direct effect of SNSUI for Yemen

	Direct Effect	P Value
SNSUI → SAT	0.209	0.005
SNSUI → COM	0.065	0.116
SNSUI → PERF	0.072	0.445
SNSUI → TUROV	0.071	0.170
SNSUI → INOV	0.176	0.003
SNSUI → ABSENT	0.076	0.382

Notes:
- PERF = job performance; COM = organizational commitment; SAT = job satisfaction; SNSUI = social networking site use intensity; ABSENT = absenteeism; TUROV = turnover intention; INOV = innovative behavior.

Table 28 shows the sum of indirect effects of social networking site use intensity on organizational commitment, job performance, innovative behavior, and absenteeism. The first row of Table 26 shows the coefficient of the indirect effect of social networking site use intensity on organizational commitment is 0.119 which is significant at P <0.01 level. Similarly, the sum of the indirect effect of social networking site use intensity on job performance is significant as the P value is <0.05. The effect size of the sum of indirect effects of social networking site use intensity on job performance is small. According to Cohen (2009), the effect size of any variable can be defined as having a small, medium, or large effect size when the R^2 is 0.02, 0.13, or 0.26, respectively. In Table 26, only organizational commitment and job performance values are both statistically significant and above the effect size threshold Cohen recommends for relevancy (f-squared > 0.02).

Table 28: Sums of indirect effects of SNSUI for Yemen

	Mediators N	Indirect Effect	P Values	Effect Size
COM	1	0.119	0.006	0.024
PERF	7	0.133	0.013	0.030
INOV	1	-0.004	0.289	0.001
ABSENT	1	0.002	0.404	0.000

Notes:
- PERF = job performance; COM = organizational commitment; SAT = job satisfaction; SNSUI = social networking site use intensity; ABSENT = absenteeism; TUROV = turnover intention; INOV = innovative behavior.

The results of the indirect effects suggest a mediating effect of job satisfaction on the association between social networking site use intensity and job performance. Using WarpPLS 3.0, a test of the significance of mediation was employed using the approach proposed by Hayes and Preacher (2010), a nonparametric approach that uses beta coefficients and standard errors obtained through resampling. This test yielded a P value of 0.007,

suggesting that the mediating effect of job satisfaction on the relationship between social networking site use intensity and job performance was statistically significant at P<0.01 level. At the same time, job satisfaction had a statistically significant mediating effect on the association between social networking site use intensity and organizational commitment at P<0.01 significance level. In other words, the results suggest that job satisfaction plays a mediating role in the relationships between social networking site use intensity and both job performance and organizational commitment. Although organizational commitment does not mediate the relationship between social networking site use intensity and job performance (P=0.166), it does have a marginally significant mediating effect on the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance as the P value = 0.078. The indirect effect of social networking site use intensity on job performance through the mediation of job satisfaction is 0.09 which is significant at P <0.01 level (see Table 29).

Table 29: Indirect effects of paths with 2 segments for Yemen

	Indirect Effect	**P Value**
SNSUI → SAT → PERF	0.098	0.007
SNSUI → COM → PERF	0.007	0.166
SNSUI → INOV → PERF	0.023	0.061
SNSUI → ABSENT → PERF	-0.008	0.397

Notes:

- PERF = job performance; COM = organizational commitment; SAT = job satisfaction; SNSUI = social networking site use intensity; ABSENT = absenteeism; TUROV = turnover intention; INOV = innovative behavior.

The mediation effect of absenteeism on the relationship between social networking site use intensity and job performance was not significant, as the P value is >0.05. In addition, turnover intention does not mediate the relationship between social networking site use intensity and absenteeism, as the P value is >0.10.

Table 30 shows the total effect size of each variable linked to job performance including the number of paths/links, the total effect coefficients, and the p-values. For instance, the total effect size of job satisfaction on job performance is 0.324, explaining the largest variance in job performance. This total effect is significant at P <0.01 level with a total effect coefficient of 0.534.

Table 30: Total effects of all latent variables on PERF for Yemen

	Paths N	Total Effect	P Values	Effect Size
SNSUI	8	0.205	0.018	0.046
SAT	2	0.534	<0.001	0.324
COM	1	0.111	0.077	0.046
TUROV	2	-0.011	0.306	0.003
INOV	1	0.132	0.020	0.037
ABSENT	1	-0.106	0.284	0.017

Notes:
- PERF = job performance; COM = organizational commitment; SAT = job satisfaction; SNSUI = social networking site use intensity; ABSENT = absenteeism; TUROV = turnover intention; INOV = innovative behavior.

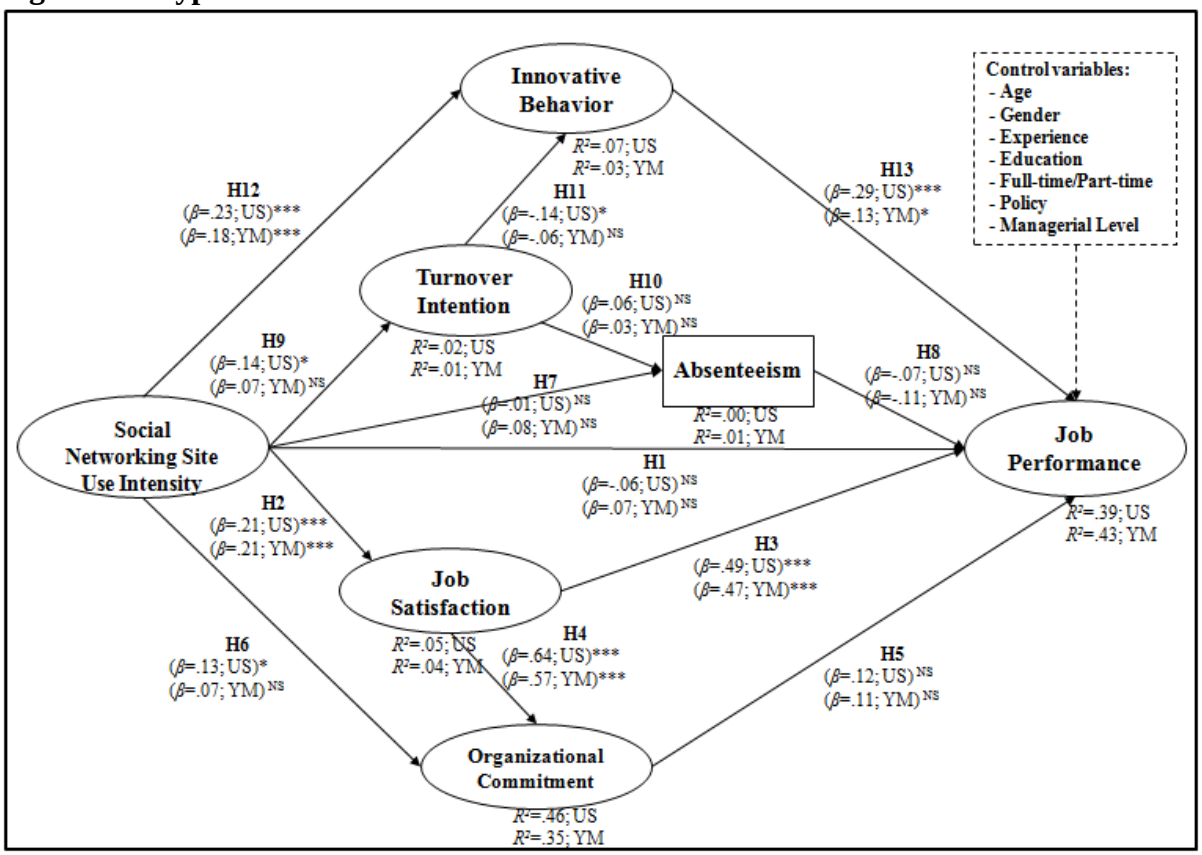
Structural Model Differences

Figure 25 shows the results of two separate SEM analyses, one for data from the US and the other for Yemen. Beta coefficients are shown in pairs, at the top for the US and at the bottom for Yemen. The symbol "*" refers to P<0.10, the "**" to P<0.05, and the symbol "***" to P<0.01. The symbol "NS" refers to beta coefficients that were not statistically significant at any of these levels.

The beta coefficients for the US and Yemen were generally consistent with one another. The largest similarities in beta coefficients are associated with the following hypothesized associations: social networking site use intensity and job satisfaction, job satisfaction and job performance, job satisfaction and organizational commitment,

organizational commitment and job performance, social networking site use intensity and innovative behavior, and absenteeism and job performance.

Figure 25: Hypotheses and related coefficients for the US and Yemen



Notes:
- US = United States of America; YM = Yemen
- * = P<0.10; ** = P<0.05; *** = P<0.01; NS = not statistically significant
- All control variables not statistically significant

Table 31 shows the structural model equivalence by reporting the significance of differences in the path coefficients for the US and Yemen. No path coefficient shows a significant difference supporting the observed difference in Figure 25. The procedure used to estimate the T and P values on the table is documented by Keil et al. (2000). This procedure builds on the path coefficients, standard errors, and sample sizes of the datasets being

compared (US and Yemen); the standard errors were calculated based on resampling (Nevitt & Hancock, 2001).

Table 31: Structural model differences

Path	Beta(US)	Beta(YM)	SE(US)	SE(YM)	T	P
SNSUI → PERF	-0.062	0.072	0.071	0.517	-0.27	0.39
SNSUI → SAT	0.214	0.209	0.04	0.08	0.057	0.48
SAT → PERF	0.493	0.471	0.142	0.071	0.135	0.45
SAT → COM	0.64	0.57	0.044	0.053	1.025	0.15
COM → PERF	0.121	0.111	0.105	0.078	0.076	0.47
SNSUI → COM	0.127	0.065	0.06	0.054	0.765	0.22
SNSUI → ABSEN	0.008	0.076	0.072	0.254	-0.27	0.40
SNSUI → TUROV	0.14	0.071	0.07	0.074	0.679	0.25
SNSUI → INOV	0.228	0.176	0.053	0.063	0.637	0.26
ABSENT → PERF	-0.072	-0.106	0.068	0.185	0.178	0.43
TUROV → ABSEN	0.064	0.029	0.048	0.118	0.284	0.39
TUROV → INOV	-0.14	-0.059	0.076	0.084	-0.72	0.24
INOV → PERF	0.285	0.132	0.072	0.064	1.581	0.06

Notes:
- PERF = job performance; COM = organizational commitment; SNSUI = social networking site use intensity; ABSENT = absenteeism; TUROV = turnover intention; INOV = innovative behavior.
- US = United States of America; YM= Yemen.
- Beta = beta coefficient (a.k.a. path coefficient).
- SE = standard error of beta coefficient; T = T statistic; P = P value for T statistic.

The results above complement the SEM analysis results presented earlier, suggesting that the hypothesized associations were generally consistent across the US and Yemen. This is because no statistically significant differences were observed in the beta coefficients estimated based on data from both countries.

CHAPTER 7

DISCUSSION

This study adds to the emerging body of knowledge that examines the role of social networking site use intensity in the workplace on work-related outcomes and, ultimately, job performance. The change in the way people communicate and connect with each other (Coyle, 2008; O'Murchu et al., 2004) and in the nature of work, as a result of globalization and technological advances (Sullivan, 1999), has elevated the importance of studying the effect of social networking site use intensity in the workplace. This study makes a unique contribution to the management information systems and human resource fields, in particular, and to international business, in general, by considering the relationship of social networking site use intensity in the workplace to the work-related outcomes and job performance of employees from two culturally different countries.

Overview of Findings

The goal of this study was testing a research model explaining the expected connection between social networking site use intensity and job performance. The proposed research model used for this study had a good fit with the data collected. The five main independent latent variables, namely social networking site use intensity, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intention, and innovative behavior, as well as the manifest independent variable absenteeism, explained 39 and 43 percent of the variance in job performance in the US and Yemen, respectively.

From a theoretical point of view, this study contributes to the social networking sites, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, absenteeism, turnover intention, innovative behavior, and job performance literatures. This is the first study to analyze, in an integrated way, the relationship between those theoretical constructs.

Table 32 summarizes the support, or lack thereof, for each of the hypotheses based on the SEM analysis. This study found that social networking site use intensity enhances employees' job satisfaction. One possible mechanism through which this happens would be the employees' social interaction with others (such as family, friends, and other coworkers) while at work through the use of social networking sites, providing them with social support. This social support might in turn have helped enhance the employees' satisfaction with their jobs. Furthermore, social networking site use intensity can serve as a social resource (Lin et al., 1981). This social resource, in turn, influences job satisfaction through the provision of social support. By engaging in social networking site use intensity, employees could gain access to influential people either internal or external to the organization, who may offer valuable advice or job-related resources such as coaches, mentors, and other development initiatives. The findings of this study are consistent with Yang et al. (2009) who concluded that "social networks serve as a social resource which affects job satisfaction through the provision of supportiveness" (p. 698) as well as with Hurlbert (1991) who found that social support positively affects job satisfaction.

The use of social networking sites provides employees with a way to socialize with friends, family members, and fellow coworkers and to keep up-to-date with what is going on in their social networks. This sense of social interaction has the potential to positively influence employees' satisfaction with their jobs. Consistent with the literature, the findings

showed that socialization or use of social networking sites influences job satisfaction (Hellman & McMillan, 1994; Leidner et al., 2010). In practical terms, job satisfaction in this study increases by 2.1 percent with every 10 percent increase in social networking site use intensity in both samples.

Moreover, consistent with previous studies, this research found that job satisfaction was significant in explaining the employees' job performance (Rehman, 2011; Rehman & Waheed, 2011; Zhang & Zheng, 2009), both directly and indirectly. In support of the human relations movement's specifications (Judge et al., 2001), this study found that job satisfaction leads to better job performance solidifying the notion that higher morale would lead to higher productivity (Strauss, 1968). The findings of this study support the belief that happy workers work harder. In practical terms, this can be interpreted as that for every 10 percent increase in job satisfaction, job performance of employees increased 4.9 and 4.7 percent, in the US and Yemen, respectively. Job satisfaction alone counted for more than 30 percent of the variance in job performance, explaining the majority of the variance compared to the rest of the variables involved in this study.

Table 32: Support for the hypotheses based on the results for the US and Yemen

Hypotheses	Supported?	
	US	**Yemen**
H1. Social networking site use intensity is positively associated with job performance.	No	No
H2. Social networking site use intensity is positively associated with job satisfaction.	Yes	Yes
H3. Job satisfaction is positively associated with job performance.	Yes	Yes
H4. Job satisfaction is positively associated with organizational commitment.	Yes	Yes
H5. Organizational commitment is positively associated with job performance.	No	No
H6. Social networking site use intensity is positively associated with organizational commitment.	Yes	No

Table 32: Continued

Hypotheses	Supported?	
	US	**Yemen**
H7. Social networking site use intensity is negatively associated with absenteeism.	No	No
H8. Absenteeism is negatively associated with job performance.	No	No
H9. Social networking site use intensity is negatively associated with turnover intention.	Significant But not Supported	No
H10. Turnover intention is positively associated with absenteeism.	No	No
H11. Turnover intention is negatively associated with innovative behavior.	Yes	No
H9. Social networking site use intensity is positively associated with innovative behavior.	Yes	Yes
H13. Innovative behavior is positively associated with job performance.	Yes	Yes

The results of the current study suggest that social networking site use intensity in the workplace can work as an effective mechanism in boosting the organizational commitment of employees. In both models, there is significant total effect of social networking site use intensity on organizational commitment. This is because social networking site use intensity in the workplace provides employees with a sense of social interaction. This social interaction serves as a social resource (Lin et al., 1981) for employees in the organization which, in turn, enhances employees' affective attachment to their organizations. In other words, engaging in social networking site use in the workplace may increase an employee's access to support and resources, resulting in feelings of wanting to stay with the organization. This result is consistent with Leidner et al. (2010) who found that the use of social networking site at USAA provided new hires with supporting resources that lead to high commitment to the IT department in particular and to the organization in general. In addition,

this result supports Rai's (2011) finding that social support had a significant effect on organizational commitment.

The direct effect of social networking site use intensity on organizational commitment was insignificant in the Yemen model only. This insignificant relationship between social networking site use intensity and organizational commitment confirms Williams and Hazer's (1986) claim that organizational commitment takes longer to form than job satisfaction takes. In fact, the average number of years a US participant has had a social networking site account was 4.3, as opposed to 2.8 in the Yemen sample. This shows that as a result of the longer years of use of social networking sites by the US sample, the relationship between social networking site use intensity and organizational commitment was significant.

The findings of this study show no significant direct effect of the use of social networking sites on job performance (coefficient=-0.06, $P>0.05$) and (coefficient=0.07, $P>0.05$) for the US and Yemen, respectively. However, the findings show a significant indirect effect of social networking site use intensity on job performance through mediating effects. In particular, the sum of the indirect effects of social networking site use intensity on job performance is significant (coefficient=0.133, $P<0.05$, effect size=0.030), and (coefficient=0.196, $P<0.01$, effect size=0.031) for Yemen and the US, respectively. In fact, social networking site use intensity seems to affect job performance through job satisfaction and innovative behavior in both models. In terms of the total effect of social networking site use intensity in the workplace on job performance, it was statistically significant in Yemen (coefficient = 0.205, $P<0.05$, effect size = 0.046) and close to significant in the US (coefficient = 0.134, $P= 0.109$, effect size = 0.021).

The finding of this study does not support the hypothesis that claims social networking site use intensity could help reduce absenteeism in an organization by not supporting the claim that social networking site use could provide employees with social support to reduce the causes of absenteeism (Hausknecht et al., 2008). In addition, although the finding of this study is in the right direction, it does not support the theoretical view expecting a negative relationship between job performance and absenteeism (Bycio, 1992; Hogan & Hogan, 1989). This finding reveals that there is no relationship between social networking site use intensity in the workplace and absenteeism.

The results from the Yemen sample show no support for the hypothesis that social networking site use intensity could reduce turnover intention. That is, the findings do not support Leidner et al.'s (2010) finding that claimed the ability of employees to access Facebook at work was a great incentive for retention – particularly of new hires, as they can be socially connected with family, friends, and other coworkers in the workplace. Neither do the findings from Yemen support Kim and Stoner's (2008) evidence for negative direct relationship between social support and turnover intention among employees.

The results from the US sample, surprisingly, showed that social networking site use intensity significantly increases rather than decreases turnover intention of employees. This finding is contrary to what was initially hypothesized. The significant and positive relationship between social networking site use intensity and turnover intention in the US sample underscores the importance of Kim and Stoner's (2008) finding that social support negatively affected turnover intention. The results of this study show that when employees have higher attachment and sense of belonging to social networking sites, they reported a greater likelihood to leave an organization. This finding of the US sample is consistent with

the claim that social networks positively influence turnover intention (Moynihan & Pandey, 2008) because individuals with large social networks tend to have better opportunities to find jobs. In addition, Antani (2007) found support that the emotional and instrumental social support provided by social networks contributed to higher turnover intentions. Extant studies in the literature showed that the availability of a job alternative is an important dimension in a person's decision to leave an organization (Tett & Meyer, 1993). It is possible that social networking sites are sources for job opportunities or alternative job options. In particular, the higher use of LinkedIn by the US participants could be responsible for the higher intention to leave an organization. In fact, 9.5 percent of the US participants reported that they have LinkedIn social networking site accounts, as opposed to only 2.9 percent of the Yemen participants. This indicates that the relative popularity of LinkedIn among US participants was responsible for providing more job opportunities and therefore significantly influenced their intentions to leave.

The relationship between social networking site use intensity and turnover intention was significant in the US sample but not in the Yemen one. An explanation for this difference may arise from the nature of the sample's culture. Turnover intention, or the intention to leave one's job, entails the acceptance of change and deviating from the status quo. Evidence in the literature has indicated that high uncertainty-avoidance cultures tend to have higher resistance to change (Kale & Barnes, 1992). An explanation of the positive significant association between social networking site use intensity and turnover intention in the US sample can be that the US is a country low in uncertainty avoidance – less resistance to change – and social networking site use intensity provides employees with access to more job opportunities through their friends. On the other hand, Yemen is a country of high

uncertainty avoidance which means that employees in Yemen tend to conform to the status quo and resist uncertainties by staying at their current organizations.

One interesting finding of the current study is that social networking site use intensity seems to positively affect both organizational commitment and turnover intention in the US sample. That is, social networking site use intensity seems to enhance employees' sense of belonging to their organizations, but, at the same time, it increases their intention to leave which is contradictory. One possible explanation of this relationship is that social networking sites are sources for job opportunities. In particular, the higher use of LinkedIn by the US participants could be responsible for the higher intention to leave an organization. In fact, 9.5 percent of the US participants reported having LinkedIn accounts, as opposed to only 2.9 percent of the Yemen participants. This indicates that the relative popularity of LinkedIn among the US participants was responsible for providing more job opportunities and therefore significantly influenced their intentions to leave. Another possible explanation of the surprising effect of social networking site use intensity on turnover intention and organizational commitment relates to the economic climate in the US. As a result of the economic situation up until late December 2011 and early January 2012 when data was collected, more than half of the respondents of the US sample were working part-time. Therefore, social networking site use provision of job opportunities, along with the economic situation, have contributed to the intention of employees to leave their organizations looking for better economic opportunities.

The association between turnover intention and absenteeism was in the predicted direction in both structural equation models, but it was not significant. Therefore, the findings do not support the claim that turnover intention could lead to higher absenteeism

because those employees who intend to leave the organization will need time to look for another job. The findings are also not consistent with Abraham's (1998) finding which hypothesized that turnover intention is a predictor of absenteeism.

In terms of the association between turnover intention and innovative behavior in the US model, the findings support the notion that if an employee intends to leave, he or she is less likely to contribute creative ideas to improve an existing process, technology, product, service, or work relationship. This is because the employee is leaving that job and will not benefit from that improvement. As for the Yemen model, the results are in the correct direction, but not significant.

Uncertainty avoidance refers to the extent a society tolerates uncertainty and ambiguity (Hofstede, 1980a). Tolerance of uncertainty positively impacts innovation (Steenkamp, Hofstede, & Wedel, 1999). The US scores low in uncertainty avoidance suggesting that people tend to be more innovative than countries with high uncertainty avoidance cultures. This explains the negative significant association between turnover intention and innovative behavior in the US sample suggesting that the US sample contained more risk takers and therefore, turnover intention is more likely to influence their innovative behavior.

Job satisfaction and innovative behavior are found to be two strong mediators in the relationship between social networking site use intensity and job performance. This means that social networking site use intensity can increase the levels of job satisfaction and innovative behavior for employees. Job satisfaction, in turn, enhances the employees' emotional attachment to and identification with their organizations. Job satisfaction could

improve job performance, explaining more than 30 percent of the variance in both structural equation models.

Social networking site use provides social support as well as other positive personal outcomes for individuals, such as keeping people in touch with close friends, family members, and coworkers which could influence employees to be more satisfied, innovative, and committed to their organizations, as well as perform better in addition to other potential benefits as the results suggest.

The findings of both models in this study support the hypothesis that there is a positive association between the use of social networking sites in the workplace and innovative behavior. This could imply that social networking sites are essential for empowering individuals to successfully explore, develop, and adopt new ideas (Azua, 2009). This finding is also consistent with Dutta's (2008) argument that technologies such as social networking sites can enhance workplace innovative behavior through the provision of crowdsourcing strategies that involve customers in the collaborative dialogue. The finding of this study backs up the claim that social networks enhance innovation because they enable employees to access the appropriate resources in such a way that success of the intended innovation is ensured (Jain, 2010).

The results show a significant support for the positive association between innovative behavior and job performance in both models. That means innovative behavior is an essential factor in achieving high performance. This result is consistent with the extant literature which found a positive link between innovative behavior and organizational performance (Battor & Battor, 2010; Chaveerug & Ussahawanitchakit, 2008; Thornhill, 2006). This finding also supports the claim that employees with better access to supporting resources tend to be more

innovative and their qualities are valuable, rare, and hard for competitors to imitate which, in turn, leads to competitive advantage of the firm (Lengnick-Hall, 1992).

Strengths of the Study

Overall, the results indicate that social networking site use intensity in the workplace plays a role in the work-related outcomes, and ultimately job performance, of employees. One of the key strengths of this study is its examinations of social networking site use intensity among employees. Several studies have been done on other topics of social networking sites, but they rarely used data collected from employees. No study was found in the social networking site literature that investigated whether social networking site use intensity in the workplace has positive or negative impact on work-related outcomes.

A second strength of this study resides in its collection of cross-cultural data from multiple countries, Yemen and the US. This is the first study to collect data on social networking site use intensity and job performance from Yemen and from the US.

Lastly, this study investigates social networking site use intensity in the workplace in relation to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, absenteeism, turnover intention, innovative behavior, and job performance, which had not been previously studied. Job satisfaction is recognized by a majority in the literature as a powerful predictor of job performance (Judge et al., 2001; Zhang & Zheng, 2009). Examining social networking site use intensity in the workplace in connection with job satisfaction, as well as organizational commitment, absenteeism, turnover intention, and innovative behavior, provides another way for organizations to facilitate workforce productivity.

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSION

This study focused on the effect of social networking site use intensity in the workplace on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, absenteeism, turnover intention, innovative behavior, and, ultimately, job performance. It also addressed the influence of the culture of employees on these relationships and outcomes.

On the whole, the findings of this study suggest both similarities and differences between the participants in the US and Yemen with respect to the constructs measured. However, there is a strong similarity between the two countries in the way social networking site use intensity affects job satisfaction, organizational commitment, absenteeism, innovative behavior, and job performance.

The findings of this study support the argument that social networking sites are becoming an acceptable means of sharing work and non-work experiences with family, friends, and coworkers. Therefore, employees who use social networking sites in the workplace to a large extent – that is, strongly identify with their online social networks – received more social support and thus showed improved job satisfaction, organizational commitment, innovative behavior, and job performance. The findings suggest how important it is for organizations to use such a new human resource mechanism – social networking site use intensity – which offers the formal and informal support necessary to enhance the overall performance of employees. Therefore, organizations, in both, Yemen and the US that seek to enhance their employees' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, innovative behavior, and job performance will benefit from their employees' social networking site use intensity.

Contrary to expectations and inconsistent with Leidner et al.'s (2010) findings, social networking site use intensity in the workplace did not reduce, but rather, increased turnover intention to a certain extent among participants in the US only. These results have important implications for organizations.

These findings suggest that in countries with low uncertainty avoidance cultures, social networking site use intensity in the workplace tends to enhance employees' intentions to leave the organization, to a certain extent because social networking site use intensity provides them with external contacts that provide them with access to employment opportunities, thereby reducing the perceived costs of leaving their current employer. In addition, Turnover intention or the intention to leave one's job entails the acceptance of change and deviating from the status quo. Evidence in the literature has indicated that high uncertainty-avoidance cultures tend to have higher resistance to change (Kale & Barnes, 1992). This suggests that although employees in a high uncertainty avoidance culture have access to employment opportunities through social networking sites, they tend to prefer to stay due to resistance to change and conforming to the status quo.

This result could imply that for those organizations that suffer from high turnover rate and they are in low uncertainty avoidance cultures, they should attempt to manage the use of social networking sites in the workplace in such a way to minimize turnover intention. This minimization of intention to leave could be accomplished by increasing social networking site use intensity to more than the threshold shown in Figure 11 showing the nonlinear relationship between social networking site use intensity and turnover intention in the US, which in terms of 7-point Likert scale, equals 4.08. This way, employers will gain the

benefits of social networking site use intensity in the workplace and reduce the potential turnover rate.

Consistent with expectations, turnover intention of participants in the US reduced their innovative behavior. This finding is consistent with the argument that if an employee intends to leave, he or she is less likely to contribute creative ideas to improve an existing process, technology, product, service, or work relationship because the employee is leaving that job and will not benefit from that improvement. It also supports Avgar, Givan, and Mingwei's (2011) argument that employee turnover affects workplace innovation.

Overall, this research reviews social networking site use intensity from the perspective of employees in the workplace. While a number of studies have been conducted on social networking site use covering several issues ranging from ethical (Clark & Roberts, 2010) to privacy and security ones (Dinh, 2011; Dwyer et al., 2007; Patel & Jasani, 2010), no other research has yet examined whether the use of social networking sites in the workplace has any potential benefits for organizations in terms of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, innovative behavior, and job performance. The majority of research studies on social networking sites rely primarily on college student data (Clark & Roberts, 2010; Dwyer, 2007; Dwyer et al., 2007; Ellison et al., 2007; Hargittai, 2008; Mainier & O'Brien, 2010; North, 2010) which might not have been relevant to the business world. This study, in turn, was an attempt to fill this gap in the social networking site literature by collecting data from employees in the workplace in two countries. Overall, this study has provided support for several unique relationships and thus makes important contributions to the literature.

First, this study provides, for the first time, information about the effect of social networking site use intensity in the workplace on job satisfaction, organizational

commitment, absenteeism, turnover intention, innovative behavior, and job performance. Second, this is the first study that tests the effect of the use of social networking sites in the workplace in two countries, Yemen and the US, and identifies a formal measurement for social networking site use intensity in the workplace. Third, this study also identifies the effect of turnover intentions of employees on their innovative behavior, as well as the innovative behavior construct on individual job performance, relationships that have not been examined in this context. Finally, it further reveals cross-cultural similarities and differences in the level of effect of social networking sites use intensity on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, absenteeism, turnover intention, innovative behavior, and job performance in the US and Yemen.

Limitations

No empirical study is without limitations. One of the limitations of this study is its reliance on self-reported measurements. For example, since the use of social networking sites in the workplace is sometimes frowned upon and reporting not using it intensely at work would be viewed as a desirable behavior of employees, individuals' self-assessment of their social networking site use intensity in the workplace may be subject to social desirability bias, presenting one's self in a favorable image (Edwards, 1982). Observation of employees as they engage in the use of social networking sites in the workplace may be one way to overcome the inherent biases of self-assessment.

The composition of the sample is another limitation of this study. In particular, the sample collected from Yemen included a very small number of observations from women (3 percent), thus limiting the ability to generalize the findings. However, the percentage of

women in the Yemen sample is representative of the rate of female participation in the Yemeni workforce.

Another limitation of this study comes from the fact that the data collected was from only two countries. Therefore, caution is advised in making generalizations from the findings of this study.

This study is a cross-sectional research design which makes it difficult to determine causality. It should be noted that the generally accepted relationship between job satisfaction and job performance suggested by the human relationists, and supported by this study, has not gone unchallenged. This should be recognized as a possible limitation of this study and further explored in future research. For instance, the expectancy-based theorists of motivation have argued that satisfaction is a result of the rewards produced by performance (Lawler Iii & Porter, 1967; Naylor, Pritchard, & Ilgen, 1980; Vroom, 1964). This argument is based on the assumption that performance leads to outcomes that are satisfying to individuals. Similarly, Locke (1970) argued that job satisfaction is an outcome of performance because performance leads to the attainment of important job values.

In addition, some studies find that organizational commitment causes job satisfaction because employees' job satisfaction responds to their level of commitment to the organization (Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Lund, 2003; Vandenberg & Lance, 1992). Other studies, such as Mathieu (1991), and Lance (1991) find that the relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction goes in both directions. Another set of studies by Dougherty, Bluedorn, and Keon (1985), Curry, Wakefield, Price, and Mueller (1986), Currivan (1999), and Rayton (2006), find no relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. This dissertation, on the other hand, followed Lincoln and

Kalleberg (2003) who persuasively argued that the direction of causation is from job satisfaction to organizational commitment because there was a stronger relationship between lagged job satisfaction and organizational commitment than the one between lagged organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Furthermore, the cross-sectional design of the current study makes it difficult to determine causality between social networking site use intensity and innovative behavior. This discussion, therefore, concludes that future studies are greatly needed to establish the causality with longitudinal designs.

Last, survey responses on subjective measures of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intention, innovative behavior, and job performance reflect employees' current state of mind. In order to offset any unique factors affecting an individual's attitude levels – job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intention, innovative behavior, and job performance – at the time of the survey, repeating the survey in the future would provide a more consistent view of perceived work-related outcomes, as well as social networking site use intensity levels.

Implications and Future Research

The results of this study have several implications for academics and practitioners. The findings of this study indicate that engaging in the use of social networking sites in the workplace shares a relationship with job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intention, innovative behavior, and job performance.

From a theoretical point of view, this study contributes to the social networking site, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, absenteeism, turnover intention, innovative behavior, and job performance literature. In the previous social networking site literature, no

study was found to analyze the relationship between those latent variables. From Figure 25, it is clear that innovative behavior and job satisfaction are extremely important predictors of job performance. Social networking site use intensity's influence on job performance was mediated by both innovative behavior and job satisfaction. Therefore, some parts of the proposed model (Figure 1) are confirmed. This study demonstrates that social networking site use intensity should be used as an important predictor of innovative behavior, job satisfaction, and job performance. This is an encouraging step pointing to the need for further testing of the proposed model in future longitudinal studies.

Based on the findings of this study, future empirical studies should be tested based on this model. For instance, empirical evidence from this study demonstrated that social networking site use intensity in the workplace would bring the employee more job satisfaction, more innovative behavior, and better job performance. Future studies can explore whether social networking site use intensity in the workplace will bring less job burnout, for instance. Using longitudinal methodology, future studies can explore whether social networking site use intensity of individuals before entry into the workforce will influence their social networking site use intensity in the workplace after entering and how social networking site use intensity in the workplace then further influences their job performance and other work-related outcomes.

This study collected cross- sectional data at a single point in time through a one-time issuance of the survey instrument. To more holistically explore the relationship between social networking site use intensity and its association with work-related outcomes including job performance, a longitudinal study design is worth investigating. This longitudinal study would allow researchers to better track the growth of participants' use of social networking

sites which in turn could offer greater insight into the association between social networking site use intensity and job performance and other work-related outcomes.

Another theoretical contribution relates to innovative behavior's role in explaining job performance. In job performance literature, no study was found to directly measure individual innovative behavior and its effect on individual job performance. This study reveals that innovative behavior is one of the most important determinant factors of an employee's job performance. It not only influences job performance but, it also mediates the influence of social networking site use intensity on job performance. This finding confirms that innovative behavior needs more attention in the social networking site and job performance literature. More research needs to explore its antecedents and consequences.

This research explores the cross-cultural effect of social networking site use intensity in the workplace from a new perspective.

This study raises more questions than it answers in the field of social networking sites. Some of these unanswered questions are included here: Longitudinally, how does job satisfaction influence social networking site use intensity in the workplace? Does social networking site use intensity outside the workplace have, if any, the same effect on job performance? Does this model also fit in other cultures/countries besides the US and Yemen? How does social networking site use intensity change over time, and what kind of influence does this change have on job performance?

From a practical point of view, this study conveys several implications to organizations and human resource departments, in particular. It is reasonable to conclude that professionals in charge of human resource departments would benefit from understanding the associations elicited by this study. In particular, this study has great practical implications for

organizations since understanding relationships between social networking site use intensity in the workplace and job satisfaction, organizational commitment, absenteeism, turnover intention, innovative behavior, and job performance can help reveal the underlying rationale for organizations to either allow or disallow the use of social networking sites in the workplace. As the findings suggest, the social interaction of employees with coworkers, friends, and family members through social networking sites provides them with social support which enhanced their job satisfaction, organizational commitment, innovative behavior, and job performance. This suggests that organizations should help employees to socially interact and socialize with coworkers, family members, and friends while in the workplace using social networking sites. In terms of job satisfaction, just as compensation packages may have a direct positive impact on job satisfaction to enhance productivity of the organization (Beer, 1984), the use of social networking sites has a positive effect on job satisfaction. Therefore, organizations should keep enhancing employees' satisfaction with their jobs, because it has a direct, as well as indirect, positive effect on job performance. The findings suggest this enhanced job satisfaction and organizational commitment is increased through employees' social networking site use intensity.

On the other hand, the findings suggest that, in countries with low uncertainty avoidance cultures, social networking site use intensity in the workplace tends to enhance to a certain extent employees' intentions to leave the organization. In addition, turnover intention or the intention to leave one's job entails the acceptance of change and deviating from the status quo. Evidence in the literature has indicated that high uncertainty-avoidance cultures tend to have higher resistance to change (Kale & Barnes, 1992). Therefore, employees from low uncertainty cultures accept change by intending to leave their current

organizations. In addition, social networking site use intensity provides employees with external contacts that provide them with access to employment opportunities, thereby reducing the perceived costs of leaving their current employer. This suggests that although employees in a high uncertainty avoidance culture have access to employment opportunities through social networking sites, they tend to prefer to stay due to resistance to change and conforming to the status quo.

This result could imply that for those organizations in low uncertainty avoidance cultures that suffer from high turnover rates should attempt to manage the use of social networking sites in the workplace in a way that minimizes turnover intention. This could be accomplished by increasing social networking site use intensity above the threshold shown in Figure 11, which shows the nonlinear relationship between social networking site use intensity and turnover intention in the US, which equals 4.08 on a 7-point Likert scale. This way, employers will gain the benefits of using social networking sites in the workplace by reducing potential turnover rate. However, this conclusion should be taken with a grain of salt as this study is based on only two countries.

The results found that employees with high turnover intention had less innovative behavior. This suggests that organizations should use mechanisms that reduce employees' intentions to leave in order to enhance innovative behavior. One of the mechanisms suggested by the findings of this study is pushing social networking site use intensity beyond the 4.08 threshold. As found in this study, innovative behavior is enhanced by engaging in social networking site use in the workplace. Innovative behavior involves looking for opportunities as well as incorporating new ideas for improving an existing process, technology, product, or service into daily routines. This study found that higher innovative

behavior positively influenced job performance. Therefore, innovative behavior is another important factor organizations should consider when seeking mechanisms to enhance employees' job performance.

In addition, the findings suggest job satisfaction mediates the effect of social networking site use intensity on organizational commitment. This suggests that the use of social networking sites can help enhance job satisfaction directly and organizational commitment indirectly, ultimately leading to better job performance.

The results suggest that, in order to obtain better work-related outcomes and ultimately job performance, employees should involve themselves in social networking site use, a main source of social support. Establishing a social support network with people from different backgrounds through social networking sites would help employees become happier at work, become more innovative and committed to their organizations, and perform better.

In sum, this study suggests that organizations should add the adoption of the use of social networking sites in the workplace to their arsenal of practices that enhance job satisfaction, organizational commitment, innovative behavior, and job performance.

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Appendix A: Measurement Instrument in English

The questions below were answered on a Likert-type scale ranging from "1 – Very strongly disagree" to "7 – Very strongly agree".

Social Networking Site Use Intensity (SNSUI)

- SNSUI1: At work, my social networking sites' account/s are/is a part of my everyday activity
- SNSUI2: At work, I am proud to tell people I'm on social networking sites
- SNSUI3: At work, social networking sites have become part of my daily routine
- SNSUI4: At work, I feel out of touch when I haven't logged onto social networking sites for a while
- SNSUI5: At work, I feel I am part of the social networking sites community
- SNSUI6: At work, I would be sorry if social networking sites shut down

Job Satisfaction (SAT)

- SAT1: I am very satisfied with my current job
- SAT2: My present job gives me internal satisfaction
- SAT3: My job gives me a sense of fulfillment
- SAT4: I am very pleased with my current job
- SAT5: I will recommend this job to a friend if it is advertised /announced

Organizational Commitment (COM)

- COM1: I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization
- COM2: I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization
- COM3: I feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization
- COM4: Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization
- COM5: I would feel guilty if I left my organization now

Turnover Intention (TUROV)

- TUROV1: I expect to be working for my current employer one year from now
- TUROV2: I am actively looking for another job
- TUROV3: I would prefer to be working at another organization
- TUROV4: I would feel very happy about working for another employer
- TUROV5: I would change jobs if I could find another position that pays as well as my current
- TUROV6: I would like to work for my current employer until I retire
- TUROV7: I can't see myself working for any other organization

Performance (PERF)

- PERF1: I am very satisfied with my performance in my current job
- PERF2: My performance in my current job is excellent
- PERF3: I am very happy with my performance in current job

Absenteeism (ABSENT)

- ABSENT: How many work days have you missed in the past 30 days?

The questions below were answered on a Likert-type scale ranging from "1 – Never" to "6 – Always".

Innovative Behavior (INOV). In your current job, how often do you …

- INOV1: Look for opportunities to improve an existing process, technology, product, service, or work relationship?
- INOV2: Recognize opportunities to make a positive difference in your work, department, organization, or with customers?
- INOV3: Generate ideas or solutions to address problems?
- INOV4: Experiment with new ideas and solutions?
- INOV5: Take the risk to support a new idea?
- INOV6: Incorporate new ideas for improving an existing process, technology, product or service into daily routines?

The additional questions below were not answered on a Likert-type scale.

- Age:
- Gender: (Male/Female options were provided)
- Education: (High School, 2-Year College, 4-Year College, Master's Degree, Doctoral Degree)
- Tenure: (Years of work at current organization)
- Job Type: (Full-time/part-time options were provided)
- Policy: (whether the organization has a social networking site policy)
- Managerial Rank: (Junior staff, Senior staff, Junior manager, Middle-level manager, Senior-level manager)

Cultural manipulation check items

The questions below were answered on a Likert-type scale ranging from "1 – Of outmost importance to me" to "6 – Of very little or no importance." (All items were reversed in the instrument).

Masculinity/femininity (MF)

- MF1: In your ideal job, how important is it to you to have a good working relationship with your manager?
- MF2: In your ideal job, how important is it to you to have an opportunity for high earning?
- MF3: In your ideal job, how important is it to you to work with people who cooperate well with one another?

Individualism/Collectivism (IC)

- IC1: In your ideal job, how important is it to you to have a job which leaves you enough time for your personal or family life?
- IC2: In your ideal job, how important is it to you to have good physical working conditions (good ventilation and lighting, adequate work space, etc.)?
- IC3: In your ideal job, how important is it to you to have training opportunities (to improve your skills or to learn new skills)?

The questions below were answered on a Likert-type scale ranging from "1 – Very strongly agree" to "7 – Very strongly disagree". (All items were reversed in the instrument).

Power Distance (PD)

- PD1: Having an interesting work to do is just as important to most people as having high earnings
- PD2: A corporation should have a major responsibility for the health and welfare of its employees and their immediate families
- PD3: How frequently, in your experience, do the following problems occur? Employees being afraid to express disagreement with their managers (1- Very frequently to 7- Very seldom)

Uncertainty Avoidance (UA)

- AU1: Company rules should not be broken, even when the employee thinks it is in the company's best interests "1 – Very strongly agree" to "7 – Very strongly disagree"
- AU2: In your current job, how often do you feel nervous or tense at work? ("1- Always" to "5- Never")
- AU3: In your current job, how long do you think you will continue working for this firm? ("1- Until I retire" to "4- Two years at the most")

The questions below were answered on a Likert-type scale ranging from "1 – Of outmost importance to me" to "6 – Of very little or no importance". (All items were reversed in the instrument).

Long-term/short-term orientation (LT)

- LT1: In your current job, how important the following item is it to you: Persistence (perseverance)
- LT2: In your current job, how important the following item is it to you: Thrift (ability to carefully manage material resources)
- LT3: In your current job, how important the following item is it to you: Patience?

Appendix B: Measurement Instrument in Arabic

دراسة مسحية لمواقع شبكات التواصل الاجتماعية

تمت الإجابه على الأسئله التاليه من خلال مقياس لايكرت ابتداءً من "١-لا أوافق بشدة" الى "٧- أوافق بشدة"

شدة استخدام مواقع الشبكات الاجتماعية

- في العمل ، حسابي في موقع الشبكات الاجتماعية هو جزء من نشاطي اليومي
- في العمل ، أنا فخور بقولي للناس أن لدي حساب على مواقع الشبكات الاجتماعية مثل الفيسبوك
- في العمل ، أصبحت مواقع الشبكات الاجتماعية جزءا من الروتين اليومي لدي
- في العمل ، أشعر بعدم الارتياح عند عدم قيامي بالدخول على مواقع الشبكات الاجتماعية لفترة من الوقت
- في العمل ، أشعر بأني جزء من مجتمع مواقع الشبكات الاجتماعية
- في العمل ، سيحزنني إذا تم إيقاف مواقع الشبكات الاجتماعية

الرضى الوظيفي

- أنا مرتاح جدا في عملي الحالي
- وظيفتي الحالية تمدني بمشاعر الارتياح الداخلي
- عملي يشعرني بالكمال
- أنا مسرور جدا في وظيفتي الحالية
- سأعلم بهذا العمل لأحد الأصدقاء إذا تم الإعلان عنه

الالتزام التنظيمي

- سأكون سعيدا جدا لقضاءما بقي من سنوات خدمتي مع هذه المؤسسة
- لدي شعور قوي بالانتماء إلى هذه المؤسسة
- أشعر بالارتباط عاطفيا مع هذه المؤسسة
- حتى لو كان على حساب مصلحتي، لا أشعر أنه من المنطق مغادرة هذه المؤسسة
- سأشعر بالذنب إن تركت العمل في هذه المؤسسة الآن

نيه مغادرة العمل

- أتوقع أن اعمل في وظيفتي الحالية لسنة واحده من الآن
- سأغير وظيفتي الحالية إذا وجدت وظيفة أخرى تدفع مثل وظيفتي الحالية
- أنا أبحث بجد عن عمل آخر
- أود أن اعمل لصاحب العمل الحالي حتى أتقاعد
- أفضل أن اعمل في مؤسسة أخرى
- لا استطيع ان ارى نفسي اعمل لأية مؤسسة أخرى
- سأشعر بسعادة كبيرة اذاعملت لصاحب عمل آخر

الأداء الوظيفي

- أنا مرتاح جدا باداء عملي في وظيفتي الحالية
- أدائي في عملي الحالي ممتاز
- أنا سعيد جدا بأدائي في الوظيفة الحالية

التغيب عن العمل

- كم عدد الأيام التي غبتها عن العمل في الأيام الثلاثين الماضية؟

تمت الإجابه على الأسئله التاليه من خلال مقياس لايكرت ابتداءً من "١- أبدا" الى "٧- دائما".

سلوك الابتكارية

- كم من الأحيان تبحث عن فرص لتحسين عملك الحالي، تكنولوجيا، منتج، خدمة ، أو علاقة عمل؟
- كم من الأحيان تتعرف على فرص لإحداث تغيير إيجابي في عملك أو إدارتك، أوالمؤسسة ، أو مع الزبائن؟
- كم من الأحيان تنتج أفكار أو حلول لمعالجة المشاكل؟
- كم من الأحيان تجري تجارب على أفكار وحلول جديدة؟
- كم من الأحيان تخاطر لدعم فكرة جديدة؟
- كم من الأحيان تدخل أفكارا جديدة لتحسين عملية حالية، والتكنولوجيا، المنتج ، أو الخدمة في الأعمال الروتينية اليومية؟

لم تتم الإجابه على الأسئله الإضافيه التاليه من خلال مقياس لايكرت

العمر:

الجنس: (قدمت الخيارات: ذكر / أنثى)

التعليم: (مدرسة ثانوية، سنتين كلية، درجة البكالوريوس، درجة الماجستير، ودرجة الدكتوراه)

عدد سنوات العمل في هذه المؤسسة نوع الوظيفة: (وقدمت خيارات: دوام كامل/ دوام جزئي)

السياسة: (ما إذا كانت المنظمة لديها موقع التواصل الاجتماعي سياسة)

الرتبة الادارية: (صغار الموظفين، وكبار الموظفين، مديرمبتدئ، على مستوى مدير مدير من المستوى المتوسط، مدير رفيع المستوى)

فحص المواد الثقافية (تم عكس جميع الأسئلة)

تمت الإجابه على الأسئله التاليه من خلال مقياس لايكرت ابتداءً من "١-ذو أهمية قصوى بالنسبة لي" الى "٥- أهمية قليلة جدا أو معدومة".

الذكورة / الأنوثة

- في وظيفتك المثالية. ما مدى أهمية أن تكون لديك علاقة عمل جيدة مع مديرك؟
- في وظيفتك المثالية. ما مدى أهمية أن تكون لديك فرصة لكسب عالية؟
- في وظيفتك المثالية. ما مدى أهمية أن تعمل مع الناس الذين يتعاونون بشكل جيد مع بعضهم البعض؟

الفردية / الجماعية

- في وظيفتك المثالية. ما مدى أهمية أن تكون لديك وظيفة تترك لك وقتا كافيا للحياة الشخصية أو العائلية؟
- في وظيفتك المثالية. ما مدى أهمية أن تكون لديك ظروف عمل مادية جيدة (تهوية وإضاءة جيدة، ومساحة كافية للعمل ، الخ)؟
- في وظيفتك المثالية. ما مدى أهمية أن تكون لديك فرص للتدريب (لتحسين المهارات الخاصة بك أو لتعلم مهارات جديدة)؟

تمت الإجابه على الأسئله التاليه من خلال مقياس لايكرت ابتداءً من "١-لا أوافق بشدة" الى "٧-أوافق بشدة"

بعد السلطة

- الحصول على عمل ممتع لهو نفس القدر من الأهمية بالنسبة لمعظم الناس كالحصول على عمل بدخل مرتفع
- ينبغي على الشركة أن تتحمل مسؤولية كبيرة في المحافظة على صحة ورفاهية موظفيها وأفراد عائلاتهم المباشرين
- كم من الأحيان، في تجربتك، تحدث المشاكل التالية؟ خوف الموظفين للتعبير عن الخلاف مع مديريهم (1 - كثيرا جدا إلى 7 - نادرا جدا)

تجنب عدم اليقين

- لا ينبغي أن تخالف قوانين الشركة، حتى عندما يعتقد الموظف أنه يصب في مصالح الشركة
- كم في العادة تشعر بالتوتر العصبي في العمل؟ "١- أبدا" الى "٥- دائما"
- إلى متى تعتقد أنك ستواصل العمل في هذه المؤسسة؟ "١- حتى أتقاعد" الى "٥- عامين على الأكثر"

تمت الإجابه على الأسئله التاليه من خلال مقياس لايكرت ابتداءً من "١-ذو أهمية قصوى بالنسبة لي" الى "٧-أهمية قليلة جدا أو معدومة"

توجه طويل المدى / توجه قصير المدى

- في وظيفتك الحالية، ما مدى أهمية البند التالي لك: الثبات (المثابرة)
- في وظيفتك الحالية، ما مدى أهمية البند التالي لك: الادخار (القدرة على إدارة الموارد المادية بحذر)
- في وظيفتك الحالية، ما مدى أهمية البند التالي لك: الصبر

Appendix C: Institutional Review Board Approval Letter

TEXAS A&M INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY
A Member of The Texas A&M University System

Institutional Review Board - IRB

April 24, 2012

Dear Mr. Murad Moqbel,

The Texas A&M International University IRB has approved your proposal #2011-04-05R1 (renewal 1), titled *The Effect of the Use of Social Networking Sites in the Workplace on Job Performance.*

Your proposal is approved as is effective April 24, 2012 to April 23, 2013. After this date you must resubmit your proposal for review to continue the study.

Please notify the IRB committee of any changes. All changes must be reviewed by the IRB committee before ANY change to the protocol may be made.

All adverse events must be reported to the IRB committee immediately.

As always if there are any questions regarding Human Research please let us know and we will do our best to assist you.

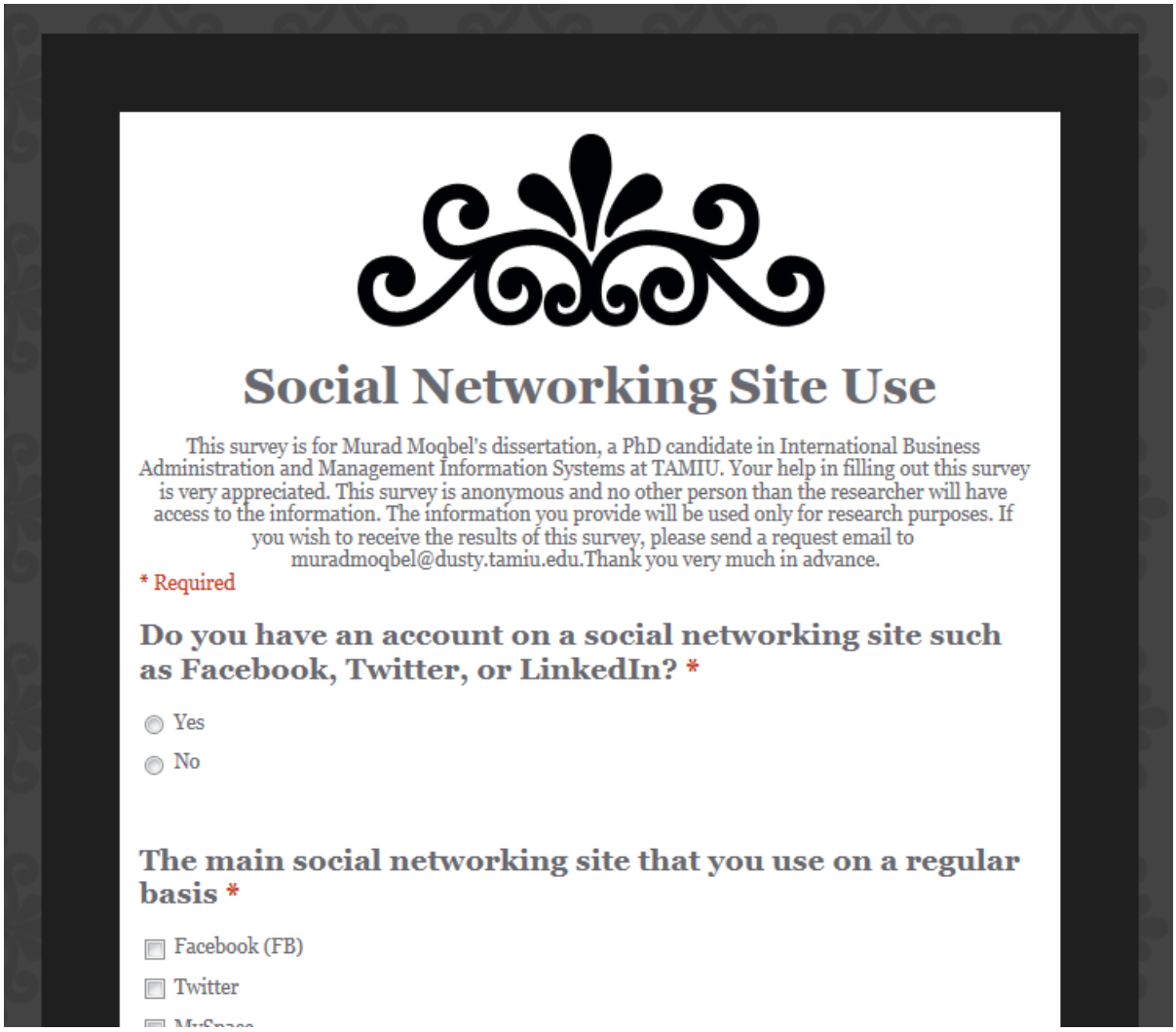
Sincerely,

Jennifer M. Coronado

Jennifer M. Coronado, Ph.D.
IRB Chair-TAMIU
Associate Professor of Curriculum and Instruction
956-326-2673, jcoronado@tamiu.edu

Cc: Dr. Jeff Brown

Appendix D: Online Survey Snapshot (English)



Social Networking Site Use

This survey is for Murad Moqbel's dissertation, a PhD candidate in International Business Administration and Management Information Systems at TAMIU. Your help in filling out this survey is very appreciated. This survey is anonymous and no other person than the researcher will have access to the information. The information you provide will be used only for research purposes. If you wish to receive the results of this survey, please send a request email to muradmoqbel@dusty.tamiu.edu.Thank you very much in advance.

* Required

Do you have an account on a social networking site such as Facebook, Twitter, or LinkedIn? *

- Yes
- No

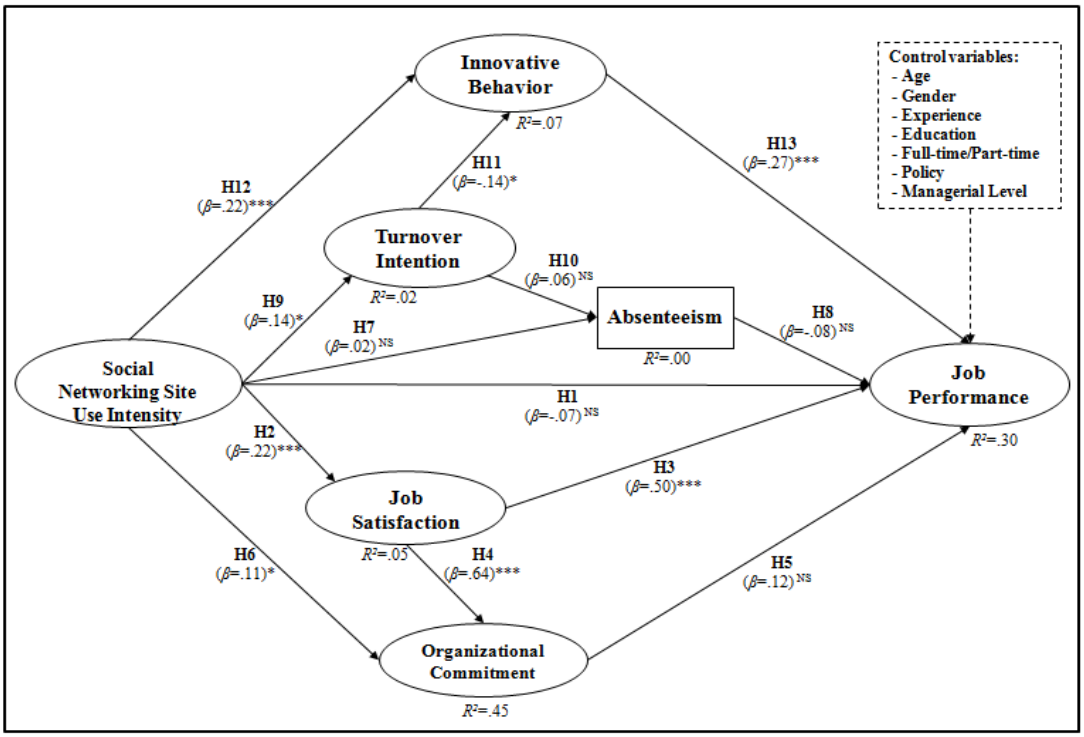
The main social networking site that you use on a regular basis *

- Facebook (FB)
- Twitter

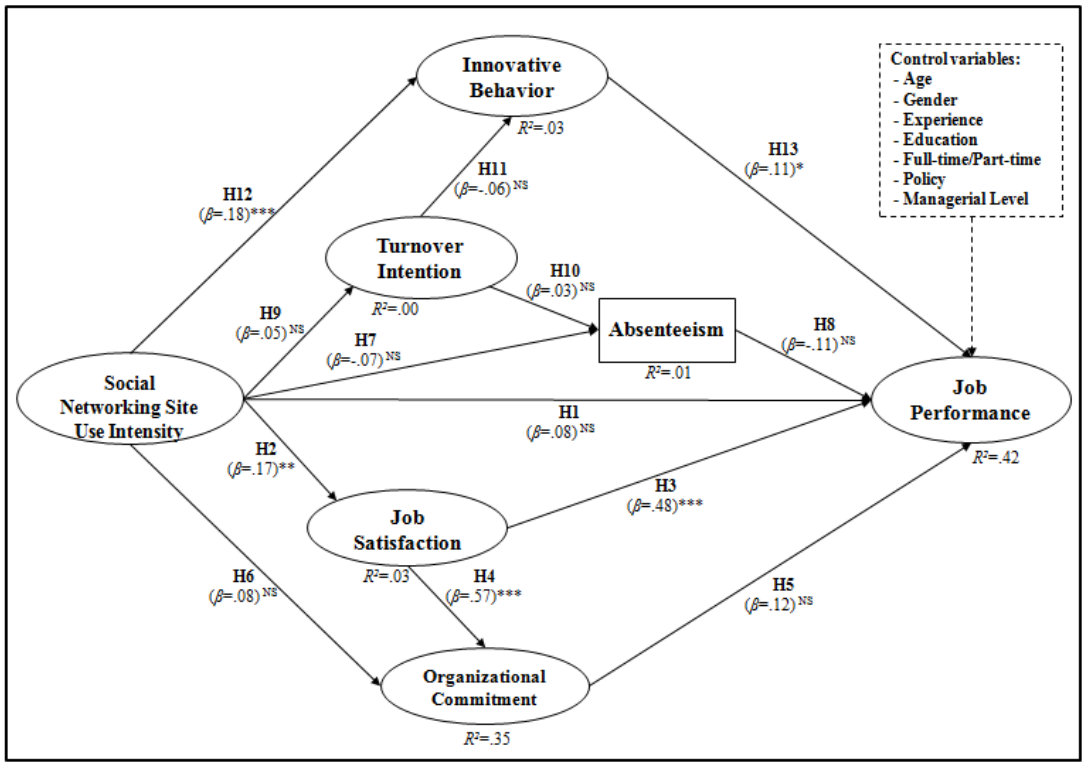
Appendix E: Online Survey Snapshot (Arabic)

Appendix F: SEM Analysis without the Significant Indicators

US



Yemen



Appendix G: Yemen Map

Source: Google Map

Appendix H: Pattern Loadings and Cross-loadings for Latent Variables for the US

	SNSUI	SAT	COM	PERF	TUROV	INOV
SNSUI1	**(0.875)**	0.051	-0.157	0.011	-0.087	0.077
SNSUI2	**(0.646)**	0.206	-0.071	0.039	0.111	-0.017
SNSUI3	**(0.894)**	0.097	-0.097	-0.027	-0.011	-0.043
SNSUI4	**(0.744)**	-0.175	0.101	-0.024	-0.041	-0.004
SNSUI5	**(0.884)**	-0.083	0.196	-0.034	0.025	-0.026
SNSUI6	**(0.812)**	-0.085	0.029	0.044	0.024	0.011
SAT1	-0.030	**(0.895)**	-0.006	0.036	-0.093	-0.026
SAT2	-0.006	**(0.937)**	-0.001	0.001	0.011	0.048
SAT3	0.000	**(0.811)**	0.111	-0.005	0.060	0.080
SAT4	-0.004	**(0.969)**	-0.039	0.029	-0.043	-0.018
SAT5	0.046	**(0.962)**	-0.068	-0.071	0.079	-0.092
COM1	-0.020	-0.051	**(0.785)**	0.020	-0.055	0.001
COM2	0.025	0.436	**(0.544)**	-0.019	0.078	-0.018
COM3	0.024	0.185	**(0.751)**	-0.077	0.096	0.039
COM4	-0.062	-0.394	**(1.107)**	0.111	-0.006	-0.015
COM5	0.030	-0.231	**(0.920)**	-0.026	-0.129	-0.011
PERF1	-0.042	0.016	0.073	**(0.906)**	0.001	0.018
PERF2	0.011	-0.023	0.002	**(0.976)**	0.033	0.002
PERF3	0.031	0.008	-0.076	**(0.962)**	-0.035	-0.020
TUROV1	-0.007	-0.160	0.313	0.035	**(0.815)**	-0.024
TUROV2	-0.003	0.082	0.036	-0.093	**(0.764)**	-0.046
TUROV3	0.009	-0.140	-0.080	0.137	**(0.733)**	0.011
TUROV4	0.000	0.208	-0.225	-0.086	**(0.817)**	0.051
INOV1	0.010	0.021	0.003	-0.091	0.022	**(0.876)**
INOV2	0.017	0.090	0.009	-0.055	0.048	**(0.861)**
INOV3	-0.049	-0.031	-0.040	0.084	-0.004	**(0.901)**
INOV4	-0.011	0.087	-0.092	0.017	-0.029	**(0.838)**
INOV5	0.010	-0.037	0.007	0.019	-0.061	**(0.873)**
INOV6	0.023	-0.125	0.111	0.023	0.025	**(0.904)**

Notes:

- PERF = job performance; COM = organizational commitment; SAT = job satisfaction; SNSUI = social networking site use intensity; TUROV = turnover intention; INOV = innovative behavior.
- Loadings are shown within parentheses; loadings and cross-loadings are oblique-rotated; all loadings are significant at the $P<0.001$ level.

Appendix I: Structure Loadings and Cross-loadings for Latent Variables for the US

	SNSUI	SAT	COM	PERF	TUROV	INOV
SNSUI1	**(0.867)**	0.114	0.168	0.080	0.002	0.195
SNSUI2	**(0.672)**	0.182	0.152	0.128	0.078	0.169
SNSUI3	**(0.896)**	0.106	0.165	0.033	0.053	0.129
SNSUI4	**(0.731)**	-0.013	0.163	-0.044	0.028	0.118
SNSUI5	**(0.881)**	0.140	0.286	0.035	0.003	0.157
SNSUI6	**(0.810)**	0.061	0.160	0.083	0.060	0.185
SAT1	0.086	**(0.930)**	0.620	0.500	-0.478	0.259
SAT2	0.114	**(0.950)**	0.627	0.504	-0.408	0.294
SAT3	0.111	**(0.896)**	0.633	0.478	-0.367	0.317
SAT4	0.108	**(0.966)**	0.616	0.514	-0.450	0.253
SAT5	0.136	**(0.818)**	0.495	0.376	-0.317	0.130
COM1	0.155	0.515	**(0.831)**	0.279	-0.428	0.380
COM2	0.205	0.717	**(0.834)**	0.390	-0.394	0.355
COM3	0.234	0.593	**(0.867)**	0.270	-0.364	0.361
COM4	0.149	0.394	**(0.775)**	0.210	-0.343	0.255
COM5	0.171	0.435	**(0.761)**	0.164	-0.420	0.210
PERF1	0.038	0.535	0.366	**(0.946)**	-0.202	0.408
PERF2	0.065	0.481	0.294	**(0.956)**	-0.137	0.385
PERF3	0.076	0.468	0.265	**(0.941)**	-0.164	0.358
TUROV1	0.027	-0.285	-0.234	-0.105	**(0.719)**	-0.070
TUROV2	0.056	-0.317	-0.339	-0.180	**(0.734)**	-0.162
TUROV3	0.033	-0.444	-0.451	-0.111	**(0.835)**	-0.090
TUROV4	0.022	-0.332	-0.447	-0.158	**(0.824)**	-0.085
INOV1	0.173	0.204	0.324	0.264	-0.08	**(0.858)**
INOV2	0.167	0.277	0.362	0.337	-0.095	**(0.871)**
INOV3	0.116	0.231	0.303	0.404	-0.094	**(0.888)**
INOV4	0.162	0.271	0.332	0.389	-0.154	**(0.864)**
INOV5	0.184	0.262	0.354	0.380	-0.169	**(0.881)**
INOV6	0.218	0.211	0.355	0.349	-0.088	**(0.891)**

Notes:

- PERF = job performance; COM = organizational commitment; SAT = job satisfaction; SNSUI = social networking site use intensity; TUROV = turnover intention; INOV = innovative behavior.
- Loadings are shown within parentheses; loadings and cross-loadings are not rotated; all loadings are significant at the $P<0.001$ level.

Appendix J: Pattern Loadings and Cross-loadings for Latent Variables for Yemen

	SNSUI	SAT	COM	PERF	TUROV	INOV
SNSUI1	**(0.735)**	0.069	-0.008	-0.102	-0.025	0.049
SNSUI2	**(0.579)**	-0.175	0.006	0.091	-0.121	0.172
SNSUI3	**(0.778)**	0.116	-0.025	-0.030	0.046	0.004
SNSUI4	**(0.634)**	0.025	-0.008	-0.002	-0.035	-0.201
SNSUI5	**(0.846)**	0.079	0.020	-0.028	0.090	-0.077
SNSUI6	**(0.717)**	-0.182	0.016	0.107	-0.003	0.061
SAT1	0.093	**(0.898)**	-0.083	-0.038	-0.078	-0.009
SAT2	0.074	**(0.898)**	-0.046	-0.038	-0.120	-0.006
SAT3	-0.056	**(0.880)**	0.018	-0.083	0.031	0.100
SAT4	-0.053	**(0.906)**	0.047	0.061	0.003	-0.068
SAT5	-0.069	**(0.773)**	0.071	0.101	0.190	-0.006
COM1	0.050	0.260	**(0.616)**	-0.045	-0.088	-0.048
COM2	0.016	0.162	**(0.742)**	0.076	-0.007	-0.024
COM3	0.027	0.056	**(0.850)**	-0.096	0.006	0.033
COM4	-0.023	-0.337	**(1.043)**	0.031	0.077	0.064
COM5	-0.077	-0.177	**(0.959)**	0.036	0.016	-0.024
PERF1	-0.049	0.224	0.151	**(0.637)**	0.011	-0.078
PERF2	0.085	-0.211	-0.113	**(1.047)**	-0.040	0.074
PERF3	-0.037	0.000	-0.029	**(0.962)**	0.029	0.000
TUROV1	0.136	-0.201	-0.046	0.032	**(0.597)**	-0.052
TUROV2	-0.048	0.047	-0.205	0.130	**(0.794)**	0.043
TUROV3	-0.069	-0.011	0.075	0.028	**(0.947)**	0.009
TUROV4	0.006	0.153	0.181	-0.206	**(0.842)**	-0.008
INOV1	0.059	0.150	-0.120	-0.157	0.117	**(0.651)**
INOV2	-0.078	0.048	0.106	-0.079	0.035	**(0.704)**
INOV3	-0.073	-0.061	0.110	0.053	0.042	**(0.840)**
INOV4	0.041	-0.007	-0.023	0.064	-0.107	**(0.844)**
INOV5	0.090	-0.037	-0.052	-0.099	-0.087	**(0.777)**
INOV6	-0.028	-0.060	-0.043	0.171	0.033	**(0.745)**

Notes:

- PERF = job performance; COM = organizational commitment; SAT = job satisfaction; SNSUI = social networking site use intensity; TUROV = turnover intention; INOV = innovative behavior.
- Loadings are shown within parentheses; loadings and cross-loadings are oblique-rotated; all loadings are significant at the P<0.001 level.

Appendix K: Structure Loadings and Cross-loadings for Latent Variables for Yemen

	SNSUI	SAT	COM	PERF	TUROV	INOV
SNSUI1	**(0.760)**	0.122	0.122	0.062	0.061	0.125
SNSUI2	**(0.577)**	0.067	0.104	0.106	0.002	0.182
SNSUI3	**(0.828)**	0.156	0.113	0.112	0.078	0.117
SNSUI4	**(0.593)**	0.134	0.157	0.076	-0.021	-0.021
SNSUI5	**(0.822)**	0.179	0.163	0.110	0.090	0.080
SNSUI6	**(0.695)**	0.058	0.084	0.132	0.056	0.187
SAT1	0.202	**(0.874)**	0.482	0.507	-0.415	0.182
SAT2	0.191	**(0.925)**	0.533	0.528	-0.463	0.206
SAT3	0.113	**(0.828)**	0.487	0.460	-0.326	0.257
SAT4	0.124	**(0.932)**	0.555	0.591	-0.420	0.160
SAT5	0.105	**(0.791)**	0.444	0.527	-0.226	0.209
COM1	0.141	0.599	**(0.830)**	0.387	-0.488	0.072
COM2	0.188	0.637	**(0.889)**	0.493	-0.466	0.167
COM3	0.181	0.493	**(0.873)**	0.305	-0.413	0.131
COM4	0.118	0.270	**(0.799)**	0.246	-0.317	0.102
COM5	0.081	0.388	**(0.791)**	0.306	-0.417	0.081
PERF1	0.114	0.642	0.508	**(0.840)**	-0.330	0.168
PERF2	0.177	0.405	0.252	**(0.888)**	-0.167	0.270
PERF3	0.078	0.556	0.360	**(0.930)**	-0.241	0.227
TUROV1	0.104	-0.406	-0.386	-0.264	**(0.717)**	-0.070
TUROV2	0.002	-0.336	-0.486	-0.163	**(0.829)**	0.049
TUROV3	0.016	-0.372	-0.426	-0.218	**(0.894)**	-0.022
TUROV4	0.113	-0.265	-0.305	-0.250	**(0.753)**	-0.037
INOV1	0.100	0.072	0.006	0.064	0.148	**(0.608)**
INOV2	0.081	0.203	0.136	0.179	-0.070	**(0.770)**
INOV3	0.100	0.172	0.145	0.215	-0.016	**(0.769)**
INOV4	0.191	0.254	0.146	0.273	-0.101	**(0.851)**
INOV5	0.141	0.126	0.074	0.106	-0.031	**(0.759)**
INOV6	0.088	0.201	0.082	0.275	0.010	**(0.793)**

Notes:

- PERF = job performance; COM = organizational commitment; SAT = job satisfaction; SNSUI = social networking site use intensity; TUROV = turnover intention; INOV = innovative behavior.
- Loadings are shown within parentheses; loadings and cross-loadings are not rotated; all loadings are significant at the $P<0.001$ level.

Appendix L: **VITA**

MURAD A. MOQBEL
muradmoqbel@dusty.tamiu.edu
6620 North Bartlett, Apt 2905 620.340.0888
Laredo, TX, 78041

Education

2012 **Doctor of International Business Administration – Management Information Systems Track**
Texas A&M International University **(**Accredited by AACSB), Laredo, TX

2008 **Master of Business Administration – Management Information Systems Focus**
Emporia State University **(**Accredited by AACSB), Emporia, KS

2006 **Bachelor of Science**
Business Administration and Information Systems, Graduated Cum Laude
Emporia State University **(**Accredited by AACSB), Emporia, KS

Experience – Academic and Business

2010-2012 **Instructor**, Texas A&M International University, Laredo, TX
Courses Taught:
MIS 3350 Advanced Programming Concepts, Spring 2012
MIS 4310 Information Systems Design and Implementation, Fall 2011
DS 2310 Business Statistics I, Summer 2010

2008-2009 **IT Support**, WSI/H&R Block, Kansas City, KS

2007-2008 **Graduate Teaching Assistant**, Emporia State University, Emporia, KS
Courses Assisted in Teaching:

COBOL	Current Economic Problems
Computer Systems Analysis	Principles of Macroeconomics
Principles of Microeconomics	IS Design and Project Management

2004-2006 **International Program Coordinator**, Emporia State University, Emporia, KS

Peer Reviewed Publications

Camacho Gutiérrez, P., Moqbel, M., and Brusa, J. (2011). Does cultural diversity across multinational corporations explain corporate lobbying expenditures in the US? International Journal of Business Strategy (IJBS), 11(3), 115-121.

Smith, L.M., Bakay, A., Huang, J., Moqbel, M., and Ujah, N. 2011. Economics and the Energy Industry in China, Germany, Nigeria, and Turkey. *Oil, Gas & Energy Quarterly*, 60 (1), 71-85.

Bakay, A., Elkassabgi, A., and Moqbel, M. (2011). Resource allocation, level of international diversification and firm performance. *International Journal of Business and Management, 6*(12), 87-93.