

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Paradigm

There are two research methods based on the approach: qualitative and quantitative. Qualitative research methods can be naturalistic, which means that the research is conducted in natural conditions. Meanwhile, the quantitative research method can be interpreted as a research method based on the philosophy of positivism. This philosophy is to examine specific populations or samples, data collection using research instruments, analysis data, and statistics with the aim of testing hypotheses that have been applied. The paradigm of this research is to use a quantitative approach with the philosophy of positivism. The reason for using the quantitative approach is that it is a scientific method; it has complied with scientific principles, namely empirical, objective, measurable, rational, and systematic. Positivist philosophy views reality/symptoms /phenomena as a relatively fixed, concrete, observable, measurable, and causal relationship between symptoms (Irmawartini, 2017; Sugiyono, 2013).

Research Design

Research design is a comprehensive research plan that researchers will do, starting from making hypotheses and operational implications until the final analysis, the following data concluded and given suggestions. A research design states the structure of the research problem and the research plan that will be used to obtain empirical evidence regarding the relationships in the problem.

Types of Research

According to Siyoto and Sodik (2015), dividing the types of non-experimental research into 5, namely:

1. Exploratory Research,

Exploratory research that aims to:

- a) Satisfy initial curiosity and want to understand the object under study better.
- b) Testing the feasibility of conducting more in-depth research/studies later,
- c) Develop methods that will be used in more profound research results of exploratory research because it is exploratory research, and it is often considered unsatisfactory.

2. Descriptive Research

Descriptive research involves studying a phenomenon in more detail or differentiating it from other phenomena.

3. Predictive Research

Predictive research seeks to identify relationships (linkages) that allow researchers to speculate (calculate) about one thing (X) by knowing (based on) other things (Y).

4. Explanative Research

Explanative research examines the causal relationship between two or more phenomena. Research like this is used to determine whether an explanation (causal linkage) is valid or not or to determine which one is more valid between two (or more) competing explanations. Explanatory research may also aim to explain.

5. Action research

Action research is a follow-up study of several research objectives that have been mentioned above to establish the requirements for finding a solution by taking action.

This study uses descriptive research where the researcher wants to examine the relationship between the variables of perceived satisfaction with compensation and benefits and their relationship with turnover through two mediating variables, namely perceived organizational support and affective organizational commitment.

The research was conducted by compiling structured questions into questionnaires and distributing them online so that researchers could obtain data. The data is then processed using Smart-PLS to get statistical analysis in numbers and to test the hypotheses proposed in this study. Researchers also use research samples in population elements only once in collecting data (Siyoto & Sodik, 2015).

Descriptive statistics allow the researcher to summarize the properties of the entire score distribution with just a few numbers. Usually, the specific questions that the researcher has in mind can be described in descriptive statistics. Descriptive statistics can also help find necessary but perhaps hidden patterns in the data and illuminate the problem under study. This kind of search for data patterns is called exploratory data analysis (EDA) (Bordens & Abbott, 2011).

According to Raihan (2017, pp. 51–55), based on the format and level of explanation, research can be divided into:

1. Descriptive research

Descriptive research is carried out to describe a set of events or current population conditions. Descriptive research is limited to efforts to reveal a problem, situation, or event as it is. Its nature reveals the facts (fact-finding). The study results are more focused on providing an accurate description of the actual state of the object under investigation, given a reasonably strong interpretation.

2. Explanatory Research.

Explanatory research is conducted to help researchers find problems that were not previously studied in depth. Explicit research does not provide conclusive evidence but helps the researcher understand the problem more efficiently. Explanatory research is carried out for issues that have not been well researched before, demanding priorities, generating operational definitions, and providing better research models. The researcher starts with a general idea and uses research as a tool that can lead to a subject that will be discussed in the future. The purpose of explanatory research is to increase the researcher's understanding of a particular subject; the source of data can take from the

literature or secondary data to get more specific conclusions related to the subject; this research is beneficial for social research.

3. Causal Research

Causal research, also known as explanatory research, is conducted to determine the extent and nature of causal relationships. Causal analysis can be carried out to assess the impact of specific changes on existing norms, processes, etc. Causal studies analyze a particular situation or problem to explain relationships between variables.

4. Correlation Research

Correlation research involves collecting data to determine whether there is a relationship and the degree of association between two or more variables. This study was carried out to determine a connection and the strength of association between variables involved in the item or subject under investigation. The existence of a relationship and the level of this variable are essential because by knowing the status of the existing connection, the researcher will be able to develop it according to the research objectives. Correlational research aims to determine whether there is a relationship, which direction the relationship is (positive/negative), and how great the relationship is between two or more variables (which can be measured).

Based on the level of explanation, this research is correlation research. Namely, the researcher wants to know the relationship between the perceived satisfaction variable with compensation and benefits on turnover through two mediating variables, namely perceived organizational support and affective organizational commitment. Researchers also want to know the direction of the relationship of the variables of this study, especially exogenous variables, to endogenous variables through mediating variables. The researcher used descriptive statistical analysis for data analysis before examination using smart PLS-SEM.

Kotler et al., (Firmanto et al., n.d.) stated that there is also something called exploratory research based on the depth of data analysis. Experimental

research is a research approach used to examine something (that attracts attention) that is not yet known, not understood, or not well recognized. Exploratory research, also known as exploratory research, is a research approach that aims to find information about a topic/problem that a researcher does not fully understand. Exploratory research is fundamental and desires to obtain information about things that are not yet known; because it is fundamental, this research is called exploration.

This researcher also uses a semi-exploratory research approach because previous studies on compensation and benefit satisfaction on turnover intention William et al. (2008) and Torre-Ruiz et al., (2017) used compensation and benefit satisfaction dimensions as variables. There are seven dimensions for the construct of compensation and benefit satisfaction. They are pay level satisfaction (PLS), pay structure satisfaction (PSS), pay rise satisfaction (PRS), variable pay procedure (VPS), benefit level satisfaction (BLS), benefit administration satisfaction (BAS), and benefit determinant satisfaction (BDS) as benefit satisfaction variables. However, there has never been a test in these two studies to see confirmatory factor analysis of the seven dimensions forming the compensation and benefit satisfaction variables. The previous test was to determine the correlation and coefficient alphas for the dimensions of compensating satisfaction. William et al., (2008) does explicitly not differentiate into two variables, compensation, and benefits, but compensation satisfaction states two elements of compensation and benefits. Torre-Ruiz et al., (2017) complement Williams et al., (2008) research by separating the benefit variable from compensation. Still, the benefit variable dimensions are also considered variables in Ruiz's study. These benefit dimensions directly correlate with turnover intention through two variables mediating perceived organizational support and affective organizational commitment.

Completion of Research Data Analysis

Research on compensation and benefit satisfaction previously conducted by William et al. (2008) and Ruiz et al. (2017) used the dimensions of pay level satisfaction (PLS), pay structure satisfaction (PSS), pay rise satisfaction (PRS), variable pay procedures (VPS) to reveal satisfaction as a variable and dimensions of benefit level satisfaction (BLS), benefit administration satisfaction (BAS), benefit determinant satisfaction (BDS). In this study, these dimensions will be analyzed further using confirmatory factor analysis, and then a second-order approach analysis becomes originality. Each indicator will be seen as a dimension or lower-order construct in the second-order approach. In contrast, the relationship between indicators and their latent variables will see as a high-order construct. So that in addition to confirming previous research (confirmatory), this research is also semi-exploratory because it will explore construct indicators and see two relationships as a lower order construct (as a dimension) and a higher-order construct (as a variable).

3.2 Research Object

The object of research, according to Kurniawan & Puspitaningtyas (2016), is the nature of the state of an object/person that is the center of attention and research target or which is to be investigated in research activities. The nature of the situation in question can be in the form of nature, quantity, and quality which can be in the form of behavior, activities, opinions, views of judgment, pro-contra attitudes, sympathy-antipathy, inner state, and it can also be a process. The object of research in this study is to find out opinions and views in the form of Kompas Gramedia employees' perceptions of satisfaction with compensation and benefits, views on perceived organizational support, views on affective organizational commitment, and perceptions of turnover intentions.

According to Kurniawan & Puspitaningtyas (2016), besides research objects, research subjects are individuals, objects, or organisms used as sources of information needed in collecting research data. Other terms used for said the research subjects were respondents, namely people who respond to a given

treatment. In this research subject, there is an object of research. In this study, the research subjects were Kompas Gramedia employees. Kompas Gramedia employees will be used as a source of information to collect data according to the research object.

Two things must be considered in determining the research subject: the topic for testing the data collection instrument and the matter for data collection. For taking these two subjects, the researcher must direct his attention to the notion of population and sample. Bringing the issue must be associated with the research strategy to be carried out. The three research strategies are, among others:

1. **Case research** is a limited scope with a few research subjects, and the conclusions only apply to the topics studied.
2. **Population research** is conducted broadly, with all research subjects and conclusions applicable to all research subjects.
3. **Sample research**, namely research conducted on the part of the population, but the research results apply to all subjects who are members of the population.

The research conducted is a sample study because the researcher will choose a population sample. Still, the results of this study will apply to all subjects who are members of the population

3.3 Population and Sample

3.3.1 Population

Sugiyono (2013) defines population as a generalization area consisting of objects/subjects with specific quantities and characteristics determined by researchers to be studied and then drawn conclusions. The population in this study are employees of Kompas Gramedia. So the generalization of the results of this study is also intended for Kompas Gramedia corporation.

3.3.2 Sample

The sample is part of the number and characteristics possessed by the population, or a small part of the population members taken according to specific

procedures so that they can represent the population (Sugiyono, 2013). The sampling unit in the study must follow the characteristics of the population. Therefore the sample in this study is the same as the population characteristics.

Based on the measurement items contained in the questionnaire, several indicators demand answers from employees with more than one year of service. For example, indicators: How satisfied do you think your salary increased last year? The provisions that apply at Kompas Gramedia are employees who will get an annual salary increase due to the cost of living adjustment for permanent employees. And the question about last year's salary increase indicates that those who can answer this question are permanent employees with at least two years of service. The sample criteria used in this study are Kompas Gramedia employees, permanent employees, with a minimum service period of two years. A sampling method is a method to get the sample. According to Silalahi (Kurniawan & Puspitaningtyas, 2016), sampling selects several sample units from the population to be studied, and these units represent the population.

There are various sampling techniques to determine the sample used in the research. Basically, sampling techniques can be grouped into 2 (two) types, namely, probability sampling and non-probability sampling, as follows:

a. Probability Sampling

Probability sampling is a sampling technique that provides equal opportunities or opportunities for each element (member) of the population to be selected as sample members, and this technique consists (Siyoto & Sodik, 2015):

a) Simple random sampling

It is straightforward because the population sampling is done randomly, without paying attention to the strata contained in the population. This method can be done if the population members are considered homogeneous.

b) Disproportionate Stratified Random Sampling.

The disproportionate Stratified Random Sampling technique determines the number of samples if the population is stratified but less proportional.

c) Proportionate stratified random sampling

One of the techniques used is when the population has members or elements that are not homogeneous and proportionally stratified.

d) Cluster sampling (Area sampling).

Regional sampling techniques determine if the sample is studied or the huge data source, such as the country, province, or district population.

b. Non-probability sampling

Non-probability sampling is a technique that does not provide equal opportunities/opportunities for each element or member of the population to be selected as a sample, and this technique consists of:

a) Systematic Sampling

Systematic Sampling is a sampling technique based on the sequence of members of the population who have been given serial numbers.

b) Quota Sampling

Quota Sampling is a technique to determine a sample from a population with specific characteristics to the desired quota. For example, the number of male samples is 70 people, so the female sample is 70 people.

c) Accidental sampling

Accidental sampling is a technique based on the chance that anyone who meets the researcher can be used as a sample if it is deemed that the person who happened to be completed is suitable as a data source.

d) Purposive Sampling

Purposive Sampling is a technique with particular consideration or unique selection. For example, you are researching crime in a specific city or area. Then you take an informant, namely the Head of the City or Regional Police, a criminal, and a criminal victim in that city.

e) Saturated Sampling

Saturated sampling is a technique used by all population members as the sample. This technique is often done when the population is relatively small or small, that is, less than 30 people, or if the research wants to make generalizations with relatively small errors.

f) Snowball Sampling

The technique of determining the number of samples at first small or small, then enlarged. Or samples based on tracing from previous samples. For example, research on corruption cases shows that the source of the first informant leads to the second informant and then the informant.

The technique used by researchers is nonprobability sampling because the sample units are selected based on the personal judgment of the researcher. The technique used in nonprobability sampling is judgmental sampling. Respondents are chosen based on the researchers' characteristics so that the data obtained is more accurate and meets the research needs. These criteria are permanent employees, both men and women, who work at Kompas Gramedia with an age range of 23-60 years and a minimum length of work of 2 years. In addition, researchers also used snowball sampling when researchers distributed the questionnaire's main test. This technique is used because the Business Unit within the scope of the research group provides the online questionnaire to each HR Unit to be distributed in their business units.

Sampling Size

In every study, the researcher must consider the sample size with the model background and the size of the data characteristics. Determine the sample size based on the power analysis with the most significant predictors. This consideration shows that the required minimum sample size requirements detect the minimum R2 values of 0.1, 0.25, 0.5, and 0.75 in one of the endogenous structures in the structural model for a significance level of 1%, 5%, and 10%, respectively, assuming a commonly used statistical power level of 80% and a certain level of PLS pathway model complexity (i.e., the maximum number of arrows pointing to a construct in the PLS path model)

When using 1% significance with the number of arrows pointing to the endogenous variable, the most significant research sample is 10, with an R2 effect of 0.1. The number of samples needed is 212. In this study, the significance level

used is 5%, with the number of arrows pointing to the endogenous variable being 4. If the expected minimum value of R² is 0.25, then the minimum sample used in Smart PLS is 41 samples. The sample picture is based on the power of statistics, as shown in Figure 3.1.

Maximum Number of Arrows Pointing at a Construct (Number of Independent Variables)	Significance Level											
	10%				5%				1%			
	Minimum R ²				Minimum R ²				Minimum R ²			
	0.10	0.25	0.50	0.75	0.10	0.25	0.50	0.75	0.10	0.25	0.50	0.75
2	72	26	11	7	90	33	14	8	130	47	19	10
3	83	30	13	8	103	37	16	9	145	53	22	12
4	92	34	15	9	113	41	18	11	158	58	24	14
5	99	37	17	10	122	45	20	12	169	62	26	15
6	106	40	18	12	130	48	21	13	179	66	28	16
7	112	42	20	13	137	51	23	14	188	69	30	18
8	118	45	21	14	144	54	24	15	196	73	32	19
9	124	47	22	15	150	56	26	16	204	76	34	20
10	129	49	24	16	156	59	27	18	212	79	35	21

Figure 3. 1 How to Determine Research Samples
Source: Cohan (Hair Jr et al., 2017)

According to Kurniawan and Puspaningtyas (2016), the number of samples will be related to the analysis results that will be generalized to a certain number of populations. The number of samples taken must represent the total population as a whole. The closer the sample size to the population, the smaller the chance for generalization errors and vice versa. Several factors must be considered in determining the sample size, including:

1. The level of error desired by the researcher. Usually, the expected error rates are 1%, 5%, and 10%;
2. The degree of uniformity, meaning that the more heterogeneous the characteristics of the population members, the larger the required sample size;
3. Analysis plan. The more detailed the analysis plan, the larger the sample size required; and
4. Cost, time, and available manpower. The less cost, time, and effort available, the smaller the sample size obtained.

There are several ways to determine the research sample size. One of them is based on the sample size table developed by Stephen Isaac and Michael for error rates of 1%, 5%, and 10%, as shown in Table 3.2 (Sugiyono, 2013). In table 3.2, for a population of 9000, the number of samples is 335, while the total population is 10,000, and the number of samples is 336. The number of Kompas Gramedia employees in the SAP system with permanent employee status and tenure a minimum of two years as of November 1, 2021, amounting to 9483, so for a minimum sample size of 336.

Determination of the sample can also be determined in other ways. According to Hair et al., (2014), the number of samples can be determined by counting the number of items question observations per variable. The number of indicators used in the preliminary test is 44 items; therefore, it can be determined that the minimum number of samples to be taken in this study is $44 \times 5 = 220$ respondents.

N	s			N	s			N	s		
	1%	5%	10%		1%	5%	10%		1%	5%	10%
10	10	10	10	280	197	155	138	2800	537	310	247
15	15	14	14	290	202	158	140	3000	543	312	248
20	19	19	19	300	207	161	143	3500	558	317	251
25	24	23	23	320	216	167	147	4000	569	320	254
30	29	28	27	340	225	172	151	4500	578	323	255
35	33	32	31	360	234	177	155	5000	586	326	257
40	38	36	35	380	242	182	158	6000	598	329	259
45	42	40	39	400	250	186	162	7000	606	332	261
50	47	44	42	420	257	191	165	8000	613	334	263
55	51	48	46	440	265	195	168	9000	618	335	263
60	55	51	49	460	272	198	171	10000	622	336	263
65	59	55	53	480	279	202	173	15000	635	340	266
70	63	58	56	500	285	205	176	20000	642	342	267
75	67	62	59	550	301	213	182	30000	649	344	268
80	71	65	62	600	315	221	187	40000	663	345	269
85	75	68	65	650	329	227	191	50000	655	346	269
90	79	72	68	700	341	233	195	75000	658	346	270
95	83	75	71	750	352	238	199	100000	659	347	270
100	87	78	73	800	363	243	202	150000	661	347	270
110	94	84	78	850	373	247	205	200000	661	347	270
120	102	89	83	900	382	251	208	250000	662	348	270
130	109	95	88	950	391	255	211	300000	662	348	270
140	116	100	92	1000	399	258	213	350000	662	348	270
150	122	105	97	1100	414	265	217	400000	662	348	270
160	129	110	101	1200	427	270	221	450000	663	348	270
170	135	114	105	1300	440	275	224	500000	663	348	270
180	142	119	108	1400	450	279	227	550000	663	348	270
190	148	123	112	1500	460	283	229	600000	663	348	270
200	154	127	115	1600	469	286	232	650000	663	348	270
210	160	131	118	1700	477	289	234	700000	663	348	270
220	165	135	122	1800	485	292	235	750000	663	348	270
230	171	139	125	1900	492	294	237	800000	663	348	271
240	176	142	127	2000	498	297	238	850000	663	348	271
250	182	146	130	2200	510	301	241	900000	663	348	271
260	187	149	133	2400	520	304	243	950000	663	348	271
270	192	152	135	2600	529	307	245	1000000	663	348	271
								∞	664	349	272

Figure 3. 2 Determination of Sample and Population-Based on Research Error Levels (Hair Jr et al., 2017 in Sugiyono, 2013)

3.4 Operationalization Variable

The variables in this study are divided into three: the independent variable, the dependent variable, and the variable mediating. Independent variables are variables that affect the dependent variable. In contrast, the dependent variable is a variable that is influenced by the presence of independent variables. The mediating variable becomes a variable that relates the indirect influence of the independent variable to the dependent variable.

Table 3. 1 Operational Definition

No	Variable	Definition	Dimension	Indicators	Code	Measurement Scale	References
1.	Compensation Satisfaction	An individual perception about their salary includes satisfaction with salary levels, salary structure, and the methods/criteria that determine salary (Modification from William, 2008).	Pay Level Satisfaction (PLS)	Positive perception of basic salary	PLS1	Interval Scale 1-5 1: Very dissatisfied; 5: Very satisfied	(Williams et al., 2008)
				Positive perception of take-home pay	PLS2		
				The perception that salaries are competitive	PLS3		
				Salary perception in general	PLS4		
			Pay Structure Satisfaction (PSS)	Salary standards	PSS1	Interval Scale 1-5 1: Very dissatisfied; 5: Very satisfied	(Williams et al., 2008)
				There is a difference in salary due to job differences	PSS2		
				Fairness in salary determination	PSS3		
				There is a difference in salary for different jobs one grade above the job yourself	PSS4		
				There is a difference in salary for different jobs, one grade below the job yourself	PSS5		
	Last pay rise	PRS1					

			Pay Raise Satisfaction	Salary increase a few years earlier	PRS2	Interval Scale 1-5 1: Very dissatisfied; 5: Very satisfied	(William et al. 2008)
				How to determine a raise	PRS3		
			Variable Pay Procedures Satisfaction	Procedures used to determine other income beyond salary (bonuses, incentives)	VPS1	Interval Scale 1-5 1: Very dissatisfied; 5: Very satisfied	(Williams et al., 2008)
				Methods used to determine other income beyond salary (bonuses /incentives)	VPS2		
				Criteria used to determine income other than salary (bonus/ incentive)	VPS3		
				Ease to view all components of my salary via e-slip in the HR Portal	VPS4		
2.	Benefit Satisfaction	An individual's perception of their benefit includes satisfaction with the benefit level package, benefit determination, and benefit administration (Modification from William, 2008).	Benefit Level Satisfaction	Positive perception of welfare package (benefit)	BLS1	Interval Scale 1-5 1: Very dissatisfied; 5: Very satisfied	(Williams et al. 2008)
				Positive perception in terms of the number of welfare packages (benefits) that have been paid to employees	BLS2		
				Positive perception of the value of benefits	BLS3		
				Positive perception of the amount of welfare (benefit) received	BLS4		

			Benefit Determinant Satisfaction	Conformity between information and benefits received	BDS1	Interval Scale 1-5 1: Very dissatisfied; 5: Very satisfied	(Williams et al., 2008)
			Benefit Determinant Satisfaction	Employees involved in planning benefits	BDS2		
			Benefit Determinant Satisfaction	Employees can choose the benefits received	BDS3		
			Benefit Administration Satisfaction	The benefits provided have gone well	BAS1	Interval Scale 1-5 1: Very dissatisfied; 5: Very satisfied	(Williams et al., 2008)
				Effectiveness of benefits	BAS2		
				Defined benefit rules	BAS3		
				The benefits package is already efficient	BAS4		
				There is a notice about benefits for employees	BAS5		
				The alignment between the information conveyed about the benefit is in line with that received	BAS6		
				Online reimburse system via HR Portal	BAS7		

No	Variable	Definition	Indicators	Code	Measurement Scale	References
3	Perceived Organizational Support	The degree to which employees believe that the organization values their contributions and cares	<p>The company cares about the welfare of employees</p> <p>The Company considers the personal goals/values of employees</p> <p>The company cares about employees</p>	<p>POS1</p> <p>POS2</p> <p>POS3</p>	Interval Scale 1-5 1: Strongly Disagree; 5: Strongly Agree	(Eisenberger et al., 1986)

		about their well-being and these perceptions determine employees' emotional commitment to the organization.	The company cares about the opinions of employees	POS4		
			The company shows a desire to help employees	POS5		
			The company is willing to help employees when there is a problem	POS6		
			Company forgives guilty employees	POS7		
			The Company does not take advantage of what is the right of employees	POS8		
4	Affective Organizational Commitment	It refers to an emotional attachment or a psychological bond between individuals and an organization.	A strong sense of belonging to the company	AOC1	Interval Scale 1-5 1: Strongly Disagree; 5: Strongly Agree	(Meyer et al., 2002)
			Employees have an attachment to the company	AOC2		
			Have pride in the company	AOC3		
			The company gives a lot of meaning to employees	AOC4		
			Desire to work until retirement	AOC5		
			Employees feel the company's problems are their problems	AOC6		
5	Turnover Intention	The desire of employees to leave the company and get a job at another company.	Want to find a job somewhere else	TOI1	Interval Scale 1-5 1: Strongly Disagree; 5: Strongly Agree	(Konovsky and Cropanzano, 1991)
			Have no desire to work in the company forever	TOI2		
			Want to quit your current job	TOI3		

The ordinal scale and the nominal scale are the scales used as data measurements in this study. The ordinal scale used is the interval scale, the Likert scale model to measure attitudes, behavior, and knowledge. This 5-point scale for the part I of the questionnaire with respondent responses is very dissatisfied, moderately satisfied, satisfied, and very satisfied (Sugiyono, 2013). The part II questionnaire on a 5-point scale with the respondent's responses, namely strongly disagree, disagree, moderate agree, agree, and totally agree. This scale can provide

multiple answer choices to respondents and is suitable for self-made questionnaires (Hair et al., 2014), and also produce a higher average than the highest possible score on the ten-point scale (Dawes, 2008). The five-point scale also improves response rates and respondent quality and reduces confusion among respondents. In contrast, the nominal scale is a category that does not have a specific order, such as gender, age, race, and others (Elliott & Woodward, 2016). The nominal scale in this study is employee status, length of service, gender, age, education, and the employee position cluster of Kompas Gramedia.

3.5. Data Collection Techniques

Various methods can collect the data (Siyoto & Sodik, 2015). These methods include:

1. Survey

The survey method collects data through structured questionnaires given to a population sample and designed to obtain specific information from respondents.

2. In-Depth Interviews

In-depth interviews are unstructured, direct, and personal methods for one respondent. The interviewer asked to reveal the respondents' motivation, beliefs, attitudes, and feelings on the topic raised.

3. Observation

Method Observation collects data by systematically observing the behavior patterns of a person, objects, and events to obtain information about a phenomenon arranged in a format or blank observation as an instrument.

4. Documentation Method.

The documentation method looks for data about things or variables in notes, transcripts, books, newspapers, magazines, inscriptions, meeting minutes, agendas, etc. In the documentation method, observed is not living things but inanimate objects. Technically, the researcher holds a checklist to look for

predetermined variables. If there is/appears the variable you are looking for, the researcher needs to put a check or tally in the appropriate place.

In this research, the researcher used a survey method for collecting the data. The survey was conducted using a questionnaire tool using a google form to obtain research data, with a minimum number of respondents to be collected, as many as 220 respondents. The data collection period is from May 8 to May 26, 2021. Before the main test, a pre-test is carried out. The pre-test was conducted on 8-9 May 2021. The objective of the pre-test is to test the validity and reliability of variables used by researchers in the study. The number of respondents for the pre-test was 41 employees. At the same time, the distribution and filling of the main test will be carried out on May 12-26, 2021. Respondents will provide their responses regarding each statement contained in the questionnaire on an interval scale of 1-5. A score of 1 symbolizes that respondents are dissatisfied/disagree with the statement, while a score of 5 is very satisfied/strongly agree with the statement. Each respondent's response is given a numerical score to reflect the level of their attitude, and the scores can be added up to measure the overall attitude of the respondent (Blumberg et al., 2014).

The steps of data collection are as follows:

1. The researcher conducted a pre-test with a questionnaire distributed to 41 respondents.
2. Testing the validity and reliability of the pre-test data using SPSS version 23.
3. If the data is valid and reliable, the questionnaire is distributed to 220 respondents.
4. After getting more than 220 respondents, the data will be tested with PLS-SEM using Smart-PLS version 3 software to bring research results.

3.6. Data Analysis Techniques

The researcher collected 41 respondents for the pre-test, data collected online by distributing questionnaires online with a google form. The questionnaire results were processed using software SPSS version 23 to test the validity and

reliability of questionnaire questions. When conducting large-scale surveys, the results are reliable and consistent. Meanwhile, in the main test, the researcher used the approach Partial Least Square (PLS), which was operated through the Smart PLS 3.0 program

3.6.1 Validity Test

Ghozali (2016) states that the validity test measures whether a questionnaire is valid. A questionnaire is said to be valid if the questions on the questionnaire can reveal something that the questionnaire will measure. The test instrument used to measure the level of intercorrelation between variables and whether factor analysis can be carried out is the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO MSA). The value of KMO varies from 0 to 1. The desired value must be > 0.50 for factor analysis to be carried out:

Table 3. 2 Measurement of Validity

No	Measures of Validity	Requirements to be Fulfilled
1	Kaiser Meyer Olkin (KMO) is an index used to test the suitability of the analysis model.	KMO value ≥ 0.5 indicates that the factor analysis is adequate (Malhotra et al., 2017)
2	Sig Bartlett's Test is a statistical test that aims to test uncorrelated variables in the population.	The Sig Bartlett's Test value test results must be ≤ 0.05 to show a significant relationship between variables and are the expected value (Malhotra et al., 2017)
3	factor Loading is the correlation of an indicator with the formed factors. Factor Loading aims to determine the validity of each indicator in constructing each variable.	The factor loading required is above 0.5 to say that the indicator is valid (Malhotra et al., 2017)
4	Anti Image aims to see if a variable faults other variables	Value Anti Image must be above 0.5 to indicate that the variable is valid (Malhotra et al., 2017)

The following Table 3.3 shows the pre-test results from the validity test of 41 samples that meet the criteria as respondents. The 41 respondents filled out turnover intention's compensation and benefit dimensions through two mediating

variables: Perceived Organizational Support and Affective Commitment Organizational questionnaire.

Table 3. 3 Pre Test Validity-47 indicators

Variable	Measurement Code	Number of Questionnaires	TEST-VALIDITY (CFA)				Valid/Tidak Valid
			KMO	Sig	MSA	Loading Factors	
PLS	PLS1	1	0,889	0,000	0,872	0,982	VALID
	PLS2	2			0,916	0,976	VALID
	PLS3	3			0,916	0,975	VALID
	PLS4	4			0,858	0,984	VALID
PSS	PSS1	5	0,819	0,000	0,815	0,857	VALID
	PSS2	6			0,900	-0,664	NOT VALID
	PSS3	7			0,819	0,862	VALID
	PSS4	8			0,772	0,934	VALID
	PSS5	9			0,850	0,812	VALID
PRS	PRS1	10	0,639	0,000	0,615	0,917	VALID
	PRS2	11			0,586	0,953	VALID
	PRS3	12			0,804	0,807	VALID
VPS	VPS1	13	0,611	0,000	0,826	0,762	VALID
	VPS2	14			0,567	0,926	VALID
	VPS3	15			0,559	0,891	VALID
	VPS4	16			0,675	0,606	VALID
BLS	BLS1	17	0,861	0,000	0,853	0,953	VALID
	BLS2	18			0,868	0,956	VALID
	BLS3	19			0,840	0,965	VALID
	BLS4	20			0,885	0,937	VALID
BDS	BDS1	21	0,567	0,000	0,582	0,760	VALID
	BDS2	22			0,543	0,893	VALID
	BDS3	23			0,597	0,730	VALID
BAS	BAS1	24	0,840	0,000	0,862	0,875	VALID
	BAS2	25			0,760	0,891	VALID
	BAS3	26			0,955	0,855	VALID
	BAS4	27			0,854	0,921	VALID

	BAS5	28			0,836	0,655	VALID
	BAS6	29			0,782	0,816	VALID
	BAS7	30			0,858	0,889	VALID
POS	POS1	31	0,732	0,000	0,785	0,782	VALID
	POS2	32			0,854	0,722	VALID
	POS3	33			0,777	0,815	VALID
	POS4	34			0,769	0,367	NOT VALID
	POS5	35			0,635	0,794	VALID
	POS6	36			0,627	0,782	VALID
	POS7	37			0,754	0,680	VALID
	POS8	38			0,782	0,752	VALID
AOC	AOC1	39	0,807	0,000	0,793	0,862	VALID
	AOC2	40			0,808	0,906	VALID
	AOC3	41			0,864	0,857	VALID
	AOC4	42			0,535	0,402	NOT VALID
	AOC5	43			0,860	0,782	VALID
	AOC6	44			0,831	0,757	VALID
TOI	TOI1	45	0,671	0,000	0,631	0,868	VALID
	TOI2	46			0,665	0,830	VALID
	TOI3	47			0,747	0,774	VALID

Source: Research Primary Data (2021)

Based on the forex test using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), the minimum CFA score is 0.5 to be valid. Table 3.5 shows that 46 statements were made in the pre-test, 44 were declared valid, and three were invalid.

3.6.2 Reliability Test

Reliability is an indicator that measures consistency. Consistency is the key to understanding reliability (Zikmund et al., 2013). SPSS provides facilities to measure reliability with the Cronbach Alpha statistical test, which is reliable if the Cronbach Alpha value is ≥ 0.7 (Ghozali & Latan, 2020). Still, if we do exploratory research, we can use the Cronbach Alpha value is ≥ 0.6 . Table 3.4 shows the Reliability Test of Pre-Test 41 Respondents.

Table 3. 4 Reliability Pre-Test 47 Indicators

Variable	Measurement	Number of	RELIABILITY TEST	
	Code	Questioner	Cronbach's	Reliable/ Not Reliable
			Alpha	
PLS	PLS1	1	0,986	RELIABLE
	PLS2	2		
	PLS3	3		
	PLS4	4		
PSS	PSS1	5	0,613	RELIABLE
	PSS2	6		
	PSS3	7		
	PSS4	8		
	PSS5	9		
PRS	PRS1	10	0,872	RELIABLE
	PRS2	11		
	PRS3	12		
VPS	VPS1	13	0,802	RELIABLE
	VPS2	14		
	VPS3	15		
	VPS4	16		
BLS	BLS1	17	0,966	RELIABLE
	BLS2	18		
	BLS3	19		
	BLS4	20		
BDS	BDS1	21	0,695	RELIABLE
	BDS2	22		
	BDS3	23		
BAS	BAS1	24	0,930	RELIABLE
	BAS2	25		
	BAS3	26		
	BAS4	27		
	BAS5	28		
	BAS6	29		
	BAS7	30		
POS	POS1	31	0,86	RELIABLE
	POS2	32		
	POS3	33		

	POS4	34		
	POS5	35		
	POS6	36		
	POS7	37		
	POS8	38		
	POS9	39		
AOC	AOC1	39	0,85	RELIABLE
	AOC2	40		
	AOC3	41		
	AOC4	42		
	AOC5	43		
	AOC6	44		
TOI	TOI1	45	0,763	RELIABLE
	TOI2	46		
	TOI3	47		

Source: Research Primary Data (2021)

Based on the Cronbach Alpha reliability test, the minimum Cronbach Alpha score is 0.60 to be valid. Table 3.4 shows that of the 47 statements made pre-test, 47 indicators were reliable. But, because three indicators were not valid, the item test for reliability only used 44 valid and reliable indicators. After the second retest using 44 valid items, the validity and reliability of as follows:

Table 3. 5 Validity and Reliability Pre Test-44 indicators

Variable	Measurement Code	Number of Questionnaire	VALIDITY TEST (CFA)				RELIABILITY TEST		
			KMO	Sig	MSA	Factor Loading	Valid/ Not Valid	Cronbach's Alpha	Reliable/ Not Reliable
PLS	PLS1	1	0,889	0,000	0,872	0,982	VALID	0,986	RELIABLE
	PLS2	2			0,916	0,976			
	PLS3	3			0,916	0,975			
	PLS4	4			0,858	0,984			
PSS	PSS1	5	0,777	0,000	0,759	0,846	VALID	0,901	RELIABLE
	PSS3	6			0,796	0,886			
	PSS4	7			0,727	0,932			
	PSS5	8			0,848	0,849			
PRS	PRS1	9	0,639	0,000	0,615	0,917	VALID	0,872	RELIABLE
	PRS2	10			0,586	0,953			
	PRS3	11			0,804	0,807			

VPS	VPS1	12	0,611	0,000	0,826	0,762	VALID	0,802	RELIABLE
	VPS2	13			0,567	0,926			
	VPS3	14			0,559	0,891			
	VPS4	15			0,675	0,606			
BLS	BLS1	16	0,861	0,000	0,853	0,953	VALID	0,966	RELIABLE
	BLS2	17			0,868	0,956			
	BLS3	18			0,840	0,965			
	BLS4	19			0,885	0,937			
BDS	BDS1	20	0,567	0,000	0,582	0,760	VALID	0,695	RELIABLE
	BDS2	21			0,543	0,893			
	BDS3	22			0,597	0,730			
BAS	BAS1	23	0,84	0,000	0,862	0,875	VALID	0,930	RELIABLE
	BAS2	24			0,760	0,891			
	BAS3	25			0,955	0,855			
	BAS4	26			0,854	0,921			
	BAS5	27			0,836	0,655			
	BAS6	28			0,782	0,816			
	BAS7	29			0,858	0,889			
POS	POS1	30	0,717	0,000	0,765	0,769	VALID	0,877	RELIABLE
	POS2	31			0,848	0,726			
	POS3	32			0,772	0,828			
	POS5	33			0,607	0,782			
	POS6	34			0,615	0,786			
	POS7	35			0,743	0,683			
	POS8	36			0,771	0,773			
	AOC	AOC 1			37	0,861			
AOC 2		38	0,797	0,919					
AOC 3		39	0,909	0,851					
AOC 5		40	0,894	0,802					
AOC 6		41	0,946	0,731					
TOI		TOI1	42	0,671	0,000		0,631	0,868	VALID
	TOI2	43	0,665			0,830			
	TOI3	44	0,747			0,774			

Source: Research Primary Data (2021)

3.6.3 Structural Equation Model (SEM)

According to Ghozali & Latan (2020), Partial Least Square (PLS) is an alternate approach that shifts from a covariance-based to a variant-based SEM

approach. Covariance-based SEM typically tests causality/theory, whereas PLS is a lot of a prophetic model. PLS could be a powerful analytical methodology because it's not supported several assumptions. For instance, the information should be commonly distributed, and the sample doesn't need to be massive. Besides confirming the idea, PLS can even justify a relationship between latent variables. At the same time, PLS will analyze the constructs fashioned by reflective and formative indicators.s

Partial Least Square (PLS) is a multivariate statistical technique that compares multiple dependent and independent variables. Variant-based SEM statistical method is designed to solve various regressions when specific problems occur in the data. The equation analysis tested the measurement model used to test validity, reliability, and hypothesis testing. PLS-SEM analysis usually consists of two sub-models: the measurement model, commonly referred to as the outer model, and the structural model, commonly referred to as the inner model (Ghozali & Latan, 2020, p. 7). The stages of analysis using SEM-PLS are as shown in Figure 3.3

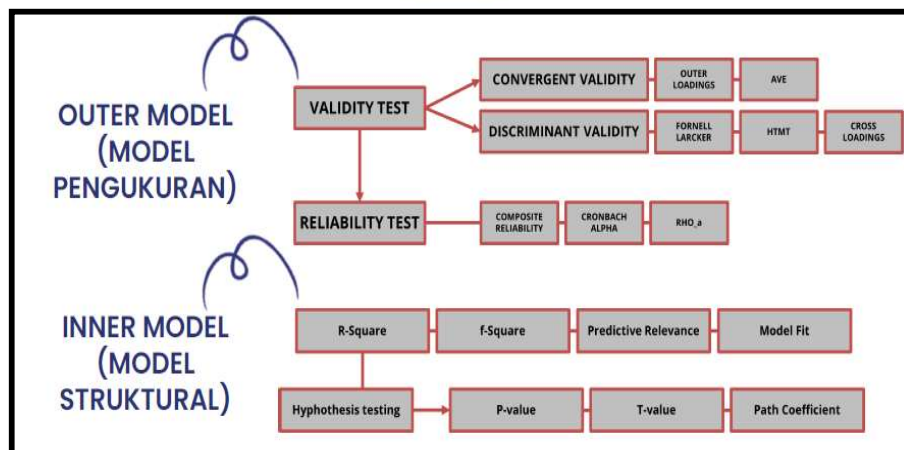


Figure 3. 3 Stage of PLS-SEM Testing
Source: Ghozali and Latan (2020)

3.6.3.1 Evaluation of Measurement Model (Outer Model)

According to Ghazali and Latan (2020, p. 9), The outer model shows how each indicator block relates to its latent variables. Evaluation of the outer model is

carried out to assess the validity and reliability of a model and show the relationship between latent variables.

In this study, researchers used a hierarchical component model (HCM) to examine a high-level structure containing two layers of construction. The high-level component (HOC) captures the higher-order entities that are more abstract, and the lower-level component (LOC) captures the sub-dimensions of the higher entities. Each type of HCM can be characterized by different relationships between (1) HOC and LOC and (2) their constructs and indicators. This study used the indicators as measuring tools (reflective model) using repeat indicators. Indicators as measuring items will be seen concerning sub-dimensions and sub-variables. The first test ensures that all constructs having lower constructs correlate with higher constructs (Hair Jr et al., 2017).

Second-Order Confirmatory Factors Analysis – Higher-Order Construct

The approach to analyzing second-order confirmatory factors analysis (CFA), according to World (Ghozali & Latan, 2020, p. 109), is to use repeated indicators, also known as the hierarchical component model. In general, the analysis of the second-order construct is different from the first-order construct because the analysis of the second-order construct goes through two levels of testing. First, the analysis is carried out from the latent construct dimensions to the indicators. The second analysis is from construct latent to construct its dimensions.

The analysis of the second-order construct, in essence, is to ensure that all compensation and benefit variables already have convergent validity. The testing stages in the second-order (higher-order construct) are as follows:

1. Ensure all outer loadings both on the first order/lower order construct and on the second-order/higher-order construct and with outer loading of > 0.6 .
2. Test the validity and reliability of the first order/lower order construct. If the outer loading is first-order/lower order construct > 0.6 , Cronbach's Alpha > 0.6 , composite reliability > 0.7 and AVE > 0.5 .

3. Test the validity and reliability of the second-order/higher-order construct. If the outer loading second order/higher-order construct >0.6 Cronbach's Alpha >0.6 , composite reliability >0.7 and AVE >0.5 .
4. Looking for a correlation between LOC to HOC if T-statistic $>$ from 1.96, p-value < 0.05 , it can be concluded that there is a correlation between Lower order construct (LOC) to Higher Order Construct (HOC)

In this research, the first thing to do is perform a confirmatory factors analysis for two exogenous variables, compensation satisfaction, and benefit satisfaction. After the confirmatory factors analysis results, outer loading meets the requirements, validity, and reliability. It tested the correlation of the lower-order/first-order construct to the higher-order/second-order construct. It will then be continued with analysis for the full path model.

Full Path Model Analysis

After analyzing the second-order confirmatory factors analysis for compensation and benefit satisfaction, the following analysis for the full path model is next analyzed. Testing the validity and reliability of indicators includes convergent and discriminant validity later. After the indicators are valid, the reliability test is then carried out. The stages of testing the measurement model are as follows:

Validity Test

Convergent Validity

Convergent Validity is to see how well the indicators represent the latent variable construct. The correlation between indicators and latent variables is represented by scores or loading factors for each latent variable. The rule of thumb usually used to assess convergent validity is that the loading factor value must be more than 0.7 for confirmatory. The loading factor between 0.6 - 0.7 for exploratory is still acceptable, and the average variance extracted (AVE) value must be greater than 0.5. However, for research in the early stages of developing a measurement

scale, the loading factor of 0.5 – 0.6 is still considered sufficient (Chin 1998, Ghozali 2015; p. 74). In this study, the researcher used a research model used in previous studies, but the researcher modified the research model with a second-order approach. Therefore, the research conducted is confirmatory semi-exploratory, so the outer loading that will be used is >0.6 .

The second-order approach uses to find the relationship between compensation and benefits satisfaction as variable constructs concerning the low-order and high-order constructs. The test will be conducted with confirmatory factor analysis techniques for the compensation and benefit variables. At the same time, testing whether the construct of satisfaction of compensation and benefit variables as the first order construct significantly affects the second-order construct of satisfaction of compensation and benefits. After testing the second-order confirmatory factor analysis and the lower-order construct's relationship to the first-order construct, an analysis is carried out for the full path model.

Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity tests the validity of the latent variable construct indicators compared to other constructs. The correlation of indicators to the construct of the latent variable should be higher than the correlation of indicators to the constructs of other variables. The discriminant value defines an evaluation of the outer model carried out by comparing the indicator's correlation with the targeted construct, which is then compared to the correlation with other constructs. The way to test discriminant validity with reflexive indicators is by looking at the cross-loading value for each variable. It must be > 0.7 , and it must predict indicators in one block better than indicators in other blocks. A variable can have a high discriminant validity value if the indicator correlation value is more excellent than the indicator correlation with other constructs. Comparing square root AVE for each construct with the correlation value between the constructs in the model is another way to get that. Good discriminant validity is shown by the square root of

the AVE for each construct which is greater than the correlation between constructs in the model (Ghozali & Latan, 2020, p. 74).

According to Henseler (2015), Fornell-Larcker failed to predict the discriminant validity for complex cases in some instances. Testing discriminant validity using HTMT Inference by looking at 2.5% and 97.5% confidence intervals. If the sum of the two values in the two columns is < 1.00 , no column is rated too high, indicating that each indicator already has discriminant validity. In this study, because the researcher used a second-order or repeated indicator approach with two mediating variables, it can be referred to that the data is multi-dimensional or complex. So for discriminant validity testing using HTMT Inference for Direct Path and Indirect Path.

Ghazali and Latan (2020, p. 9) said the outer model shows how each indicator block relates to its latent variables. Evaluation of the outer model is carried out to assess the validity and reliability of a model and show the relationship between latent variables. Testing the validity and reliability of indicators includes convergent and discriminant validity later. After the indicators are valid, the reliability test is then carried out.

Reliability Test

The test's reliability shows the consistency of indicators as a measuring tool. Cronbach's Alpha and Composite Reliability can measure the reliability of a construct with reflective indicators. The construct is declared reliable if the composite reliability and Cronbach Alpha values are above 0.7 (Ghozali & Latan, 2020, p. 75). Testing the reliability of the test can also see the validity of each variable by looking at the AVE value. The AVE value compares the number of variance values that exist in each indicator that can be reached by these variables with the variance resulting from measurement errors. A variable is good if the AVE value is > 0.5 (Hair Jr et al., 2017).

3.6.3.2 Evaluation of the Structural Model (Inner Model)

According to Imam Ghazali and Latan (2020, p. 10), the Inner Model shows the relationship or power of estimation between latent variables or constructs based on substantive theory. Tests for the inner model include testing the coefficient of determination or R^2 , effect size or f^2 , relevant predictive or Q^2 , and Goodness of Fit.

R-Square (R^2)

R-Square (R^2) is also called the coefficient of determination. The value of the coefficient of determination from the R-Square test shows how the exogenous construct explains the endogenous construct from the side of the data variance. R-Square (R^2) is a goodness of fit model test. Rule of Thumb shows the model's strength based on the R-Square value of 0.75 = strong model, R^2 value 0.50 = moderate model strength, and R^2 0.25 = weak model strength. The value of the coefficient of determination (R Square) is estimated to be between 0 and 1. The R Square value indicates that the model is strong, moderate, and weak (Hair Jr et al., 2017; Sarstedt & Christian M. Ringle, 2017). R-Square value for each endogenous latent variable as the predictive power of the structural model, based on the data variance. Meanwhile, Adjusted R Square is the corrected R Square value based on the standard error value. The value of Adjusted R Square provides a stronger picture than R Square in assessing the ability of an exogenous construct to explain endogenous constructs.

f-Square (f^2)

The f-Square (f^2) test serves to see the magnitude of the influence of the X variable on Y, according to Cohan (1998) (Ghozali & Latan, 2020, p. 78). In this case, f^2 shows the strength of the effect or effect size of the predictor, namely exogenous to endogenous variables. The predictor of latent variables states that the f-Square (f^2) value will represent three things 0.02 = shows a small effect, 0.15 = moderate effect, and 0.35 = a large influence.

Predictive Relevance (Q²)

Test of predictive relevance to determine whether the endogenous variable data used by researchers are relevant to the model that has been built. If the value of Q² is more than > 0 , it is relevant to the research model. If the value of Q² < 0 , the dependent variable data is not relevant to the research model. The predictive relevance value is taken from the value of the Q² construct cross-validated redundancy (Ghozali & Latan, 2020, p. 79).

3.6.3.3 Hypothesis Test

Hypothesis testing to see the significance of the effect of exogenous variables on endogenous variables to answer the hypothesis that has been proposed. The test can be accepted with a significance level of t-value > 1.65 (significance level 10%) or t-value > 1.96 (significance 5%). The significance level of the test in this study is 5%, that is, if the t-value > 1.96 and P-Value $< 0.05\%$. Hypothesis testing through the bootstrapping procedure uses all the original samples for resampling. Hair and Hanseler (Ghozali & Latan, 2020, p. 80) recommended doing bootstrap 5000 with a note that the number must be larger than the sample. However, Chin (Ghozali & Latan, 2020, p. 80) suggests that a bootstrapping sample of 200-1000 is sufficient.

3.6.3.4 Mediation Test

In a study that used mediating variables to test all indirect pathways, bootstrap was carried out in a two-step procedure: 1) the need for direct effects were examined using bootstrap without the presence of a mediator constructor; 2) the significance of the indirect effect associated with the t-value was examined using path coefficients when the mediator constructor was included in the model (Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

According to Ghozali and Latan (2020, p. 149), testing a mediation effect is to find a relationship between one variable and another through a connecting variable or an intermediate variable. Baron and Kelly (Ghozali & Latan, 2020, p. 149) state that there are three stages to testing the effect of mediation, namely:

1. The first model tests the exogenous (X) variable against the endogenous (Y) and must be significant at T-statistic > 1.96 .
2. The second model examines the exogenous influence variable (X) on the mediating variable (M) and must be significant at T-statistic > 1.96 .
3. The third model simultaneously examines the effect of exogenous variables (X) and mediating variables (M) on endogenous variables (Y). The relationship between the exogenous (X) and endogenous (Y) variables will be mediated by the mediating variable (M) if the effect of the exogenous variable (X) on the endogenous variable (Y) is not directly significant. In contrast, the effect of the exogenous variable (X) on the endogenous variable (Y) is not directly significant because it is influenced by the mediating variable (M).

In simple terms, the mediating effect can be depicted in Figure 3.4.

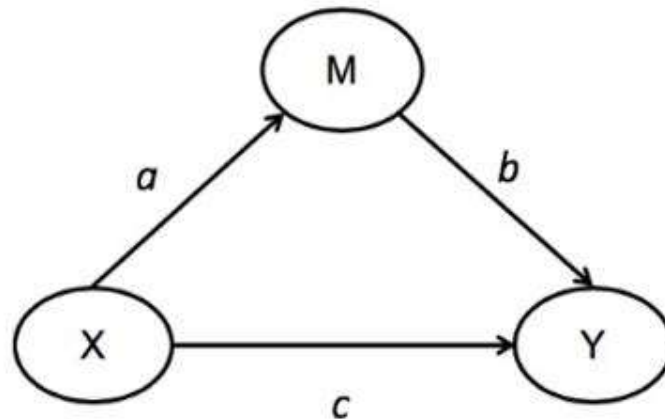


Figure 3. 4 Simple Term of Mediating Effect
Source: Zhao et al., (2010)

Simple mediation effect analysis utilizes the following analysis:

- c is the direct effect
- multiplication between $a \times b$ is the same as the indirect effect
- $c + (a \times b)$ equal to the total effect (total effect)

Baron and Kenny (Zhao et al., 2010) distinguish several mediated and non-mediated typologies into five forms:

1. Complementary mediation (partial mediation): Mediated effect ($a \times b$) and direct effect (c) both exist and point in the same direction.
2. Competitive mediation (partial mediation): Mediated effect ($a \times b$) and direct effect (c) both exist and point in opposite directions.
3. Indirect-only mediation (complete mediation): Mediated effect ($a \times b$) exists, but no direct effect.
4. Direct-only (no mediation): Direct effect (c) exists, but no indirect effect.
5. No-effect (no mediation): Neither direct effect nor indirect effect exists.

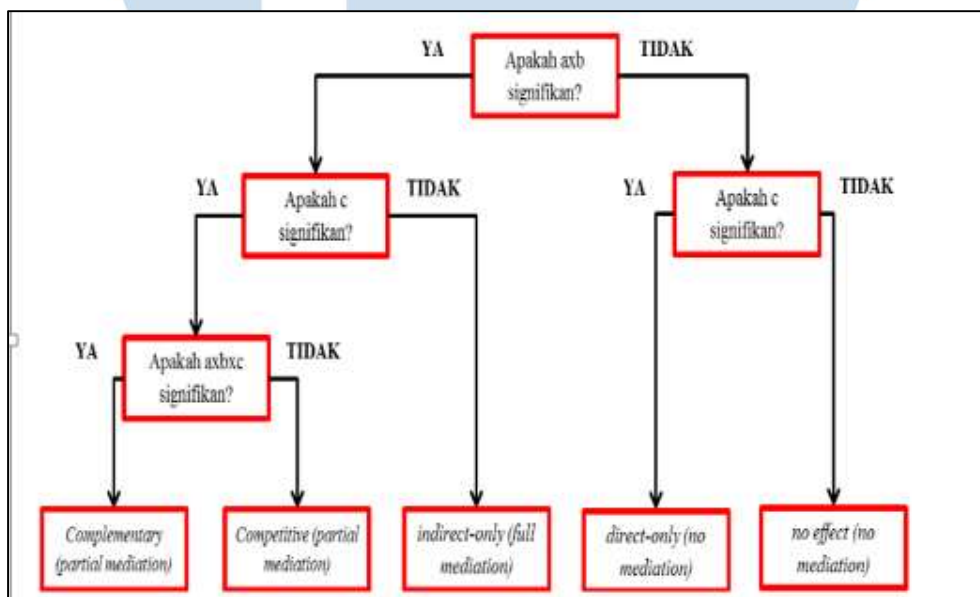


Figure 3. 5 Mediation Grouping Analysis Flow
Source: Zhao et al., (2010)

In this study, the researcher will examine the two roles of the mediating effect, namely:

1. The mediating role of perceived organizational support on compensation satisfaction and benefits on affective organization commitment.

2. The dual mediating role of perceived organizational support and affective organizational commitment is whether it mediates between compensation satisfaction and benefits on turnover intention.

After conducting the mediation test, it can only be known whether perceived organizational support and affective organizational commitment have a mediating effect and the mediating nature of these variables. Flow analysis of the mediation effect will be carried out in Figure 3.5.

