

Examining Malaysian Hotel Employees Organizational Commitment: The Effect of Age, Education Level and Salary

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to investigate the organizational commitment (OC) among Malaysian hotel employees. The aim is to identify the perception of employees concerning OC that they have perceived at their workplace and how gender, education level and range of salary affect them. The data have been collected through sets of questionnaire answered by 624 respondents who are hotel employees in Malaysia. The dimensions of OC which are affective, continuance and normative have been analysed using exploratory factor analysis (EFA). The data then been analysed using t-test and analysis of variance (ANOVA) to find the significance differences between gender, level of education and salary scale with the three dimensions of OC. The result of this study reveals that there is no significant differences between three dimensions of OC and gender. Findings also show that there are significant differences between education level and three dimensions of OC. Similarly, the results also display significant differences between salary scale and affective and continuance commitment but not with normative commitment. Managerial implications, limitations and future research directions are also discussed.

Keywords: Organizational Commitment (OC), gender, education level, salary, Malaysian hotel employees, EFA, ANOVA, developing country.

1. INTRODUCTION

The inseparability characteristic is of hospitality industry requires the availability of the employees at all times. The need for close interaction and communication in hospitality organizations generally lurks the satisfaction of the guests, since the production and consumption process cannot be separated. Employees are becoming increasingly invaluable assets to hotel businesses.

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Companies nowadays emphasis more on intellectual resources than financial resources (Eskildersen & Nussler, 2000). In a market environment where there are competitive pressures, hospitality managers realize that acquisition and retention of high performing employees is a key to delivery of service quality. However, employee retention is still a major concern for the hospitality industry. It is frustrating for management to spend time and effort on employees who go through the employment process only to leave a short time later.

Deery and Shaw (1997) and Lashley and Chaplain (1999) indicate that high staff turnover in hotels is a major factor affecting workplace efficiency, productivity and hotel cost structure. The hotel labor market has a dual face; on the one hand, it is difficult to attract suitable labor; and on the other, it has relatively high levels of turnover representing a significant loss of investment in human capital, training and quality (Davidson, Timo & Wang, 2010). Shortage of skilled employees and a low worker commitment are the most frequently cited problems facing by the hospitality industry by both the trade itself and by industry practitioners (International Labor Organization, 2003). Annual surveys by Malaysian Employers Federation (2011) reports reveal that the annual labor turnover rates in Malaysia for 2010 and 2011 were extremely high, approximately between 9.6 percent and 75 percent respectively. The survey shows that the turnover rates for hospitality industry are 32.4 percent. Retaining qualified employees is becoming a major apprehension. Kuean, Kaur and Wong (2010) view that turnover can give negative impact to the organization whether the employee leaving the organization voluntary or involuntary. Moreover, the fifth largest barrier for an efficient productivity that has been cited by 20 percent managers in the world is high rate of staff turnover (Proudfoot Consulting, 2008). As reported by Burke, Koyuncu and Fiksenbaum (2008), the aspects which contribute to high turnover rate in hospitality industry, may include: labor intensiveness, weak internal labor markets, 24/7-52 weeks a year operation, low status and gender composition especially female employees and a low level of professional prestige. Moreover, Tuzun (2009) agrees that shaping the perceptions of employees about their organization is crucial for understanding what mechanisms lead to employees' attitudes and behaviors toward their job. Organizations need to strategize its employee's retention activities in order to minimize the employee turnover. Branham (2004) proposes that retaining employees starts with commitment.

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Organizational Commitment (OC)

On the word of Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979), OC is defined as a strong desire to sustain service or employment in the organization. Lee, Law and Bobko (1999) also define OC as loyalty to the organization and mobilization of all employees in the development of its goals, purposes and infrastructure. Satisfied employees and employees with high self-esteem and confidence are more possible to be attached with the organization (Pierce, Gardner, Cummings & Dunham, 1989). In addition, extremely dedicated employees are less to be expected to leave the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Based on Ghazzawi's (2008) meta-analysis, the growth in organizational commitment is the outcome of job satisfaction, whereas other studies simply conclude that the existence of a strong positive relationship between job satisfaction and commitment to one's organization (Susskind, Borchgrevink, Kacmar & Brymer, 2000), although, other studies have also found job satisfaction to stem from commitment (Lavelle, Rupp & Brockner 2007). Similarly, Adams and Jones (1997), Allen and Meyer (1990), Meyer and Allen (1997), Meyer and Herscovitch (2001), claim that most researchers agreed the OC suppose be treated as a multidimensional construct. Allen and Meyer (1990) find that three separate dimensions of commitment and more inclusive understanding of the nature of commitment could be achieved when all three are considered concurrently. Allen and Meyer's (1990) proposed three-dimensional approaches which are affective, continuance and normative that explains in detail about the relationship of the employees' psychological attachment to their organization.

2.2 Affective Commitment (AC)

Based on Allen and Meyer (1990), in the organizational behavior writing by previous researchers, the most broadly discussed type of psychological attachment is affective commitment, which is based on affective or positive emotional attachment to the organization. In their study of membership behaviors in professional associations, Gruen, Summers and Acito (2000) define this form of commitment as "the magnitude of the member's psychological attachment to the organization on the basis of how favorable he or she feels about the organization"; and Bansal, Irving and Taylor (2004) view it as "a desire-based attachment to the organization." Organizations with committed employees are more effective and employees who exhibit high levels of AOC are more productive and less likely to quit (Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005). Business leaders view AOC as pivotal for attracting, motivating and retaining key talent (Michaels, Handfield-Jones & Axelrod, 2001). Employees who are low in AOC are more likely to miss work and engage in counterproductive behaviors such as theft, sabotage and aggression (Luchak & Gellatly, 2007;

Meyer & Allen, 1997). For these reasons and because of the participating organization's interest in building commitment, AOC was selected as an outcome of practical importance.

2.3 Continuance Commitment (CC)

Gruen, Summers and Acito (2000) define continuance commitment as the magnitude of the member's psychosomatic attachment to the organization on the foundation of the perceived costs related with leaving it. Many researchers agree that the notion of continuance commitment is according to Becker's (1960) theory of side bets (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Fullerton, 2003; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986), in which the employee's reserves (or side bets) in an organization for example on the development of work friendships, time, energy spent mastering a job skill, political deals and job efforts that comprise barriers that wane the attractiveness of alternative employment. In addition, various researchers agreed that the side bet theory is reliable with exchange-theory concepts of commitment (Farrell & Rusbult, 1981; Mueller, Wallace & Price, 1992; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). The theory mentioned above describes that commitment is built on the basis of an employee's satisfaction with rewards and inducements from the organization, on the other part, the employee must give up rewards if he or she decides to leave the organization.

2.4 Normative Commitment (NC)

The final form of Allen and Meyer's (1990) three-dimensional approach is normative commitment. Normative commitment is primarily based on the individual's sense of moral requirement to the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Gruen, Summers and Acito (2000) conceptualize it as the degree of the member's psychological attachment to the organization on the basis of a perceived moral obligation to keep up a current bond with it. Employees' job satisfaction is positively correlated to their normative commitment level mediated by trust. Dubé, Enz, Renaghan and Siguaw (2000) state that employees look for organizations in which they feel trusted and that provide opportunities to work with trusting co-workers and employers. Moorman, Deshpande and Zaltman (1993) find that between individuals, trust exists (interpersonal trust), between organizations (organizational trust) or between individuals and organizations (inter-organizational trust). Subsequently, according to Doney and Cannon (1997) once employees build trust, they have a tendency to perceive obligations and continue the relationship. In their study of employee behavior which is done by Jaros, Jermier, Koehler and Sincich (1993), they indicate that normative commitment is supposed to be differentiated from affective commitment by the belief that a sense of duty or obligation to work in the organization is not necessarily engaged in emotional attachment and differs from

continuance commitment by not being necessarily changeable with personal calculations of inducements or perceived costs.

All in all, Allen and Meyer (1990) add that “employees with strong affective commitment remain because they want to, those with strong continuance commitment because they need to and those with strong normative commitment because they feel they ought to do so.”

2.5 Past Researches of OC

There have been assorted findings about what characteristics influence greater commitment. DeCotis and Summers (1989) argue that a commitment profile does not subsist therefore there can be no link between one’s personal characteristics and their commitment to an organization. On the other hand, Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) and Steers (1977) investigate the function of personal characteristics and found that the experiences and characteristics that a person create in an organization can predict their commitment to the organization. Additionally, Allen and Meyer (1996), Buchanan (1974) and Hall (1977) find a positive relationship between an employee’s age and time with the organization and their level of commitment. DeCotis and Summers (1989) also find that employee characters such as leadership and communication styles have an effect on organizational commitment. Continuance commitment studies also deal with two antecedents which are investments and alternatives. Studies often look at investments such as money, time or effort. Florkowski and Schuster (1992) find a positive correlation between profit sharing and job satisfaction and commitment. Meyer and Allen (1997) discover that in order for the continuance commitment between the employee and organizations exist, the employee must be able to identify alternatives. Meyer and Allen (1997) and Perry (1997) find that government employees happen to have higher levels of continuance commitment than other sectors. This is because of the antecedents of public service motivation. Lio (1995) states that “facing today’s difficult times, many public employees appreciate the relatively secure job situation associated with public employment and consider it a major reason for their organizational commitment”. Perry (1997) further reiterates that since public sector employees in the earlier period have high levels of commitment to the organization and its goals because it is argued that they are a different type of employee, with strong ethics as well as job security.

Normative commitment does not have a lot of research identified because it is a lately defined type of commitment. Meyer and Allen (1997) begin to study normative commitment in their most current research. They look to comprehend the growth of the psychological contract among the employee and the organization. Meyer and Allen (1997) define psychological contracts as the beliefs that a person has about what will be exchanged between them, the employee and the organization, therefore influencing their responsibility to the organization.

2.6 The Relationship of Managers and OC

Throughout the workplace employees must be given many opportunities to feel committed to the organization. Meyer and Allen (1997) claim that employees who have a good bond with their immediate work group have higher levels of commitment. They discuss the notion that if employees are unswervingly committed to their group it may lead to a higher commitment to the overall organization. Lio (1995) concludes that “workers’ organizational commitment is significantly correlated to their perceived job security” (p. 241). The commitment level of employees may be influenced by the management style of the organization. Nierhoff, Enz and Grover (1990) find that the “overall management culture and style driven by the top management actions are strongly related to the degree of employee commitment” (p. 344). Koopman (1991) studies how leadership styles affected employees and found those employees who favored their manager’s style also favored the organization more. Though there was no direct connection between commitments, it could be argued that this would then affect their levels of commitment to the organization. These correlations bring to light the importance of having strong managers and their roles in the overall organization. Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski and Rhoades (2002) discuss that those employees who feel that they are cared for by their organization and managers also have not only higher levels of commitment, but that they are more conscious about their responsibilities, have greater involvement in the organization, and are more innovative. Managers and organizations must reward and support their employees for the work that they do because this perceived support allows for more trust in the organization.

2.7 The Expected Relationship of OC and Organizational Effectiveness

It is estimated that several measures of organizational effectiveness would be sensitive to differences in the levels of commitment of the members of the organizations studied. Accordingly, it was presumed that organizations whose members were strongly committed would have both high participation and high production. Such organizations were therefore likely to show relatively low levels of absence, tardiness and voluntary turnover, and high levels of operating efficiency. Furthermore, in keeping with the view that committed employees will

connect in spontaneous, innovative behaviors on behalf of the organization, it was predicted that, within limits, organizational commitment among the members would facilitate the ability of an organization to adapt to contingencies (Harris & Eoyang, 1977). Eventually, extreme commitment would probably lead to fanatical behavior, suspension of individual judgment and the like for example the syndrome that Schein (1968) terms "failures of socialization." Conversely, the relationship is presumed to be positive and monotonic over the range of values actually encountered. Campbell, Bownas, Peterson and Dunnette (1974) in view of that while these outcomes are not comprehensive, they are typical of the measures of effectiveness that have appeared in the writing based on the goal model of organizations. It is expected that the relative strong point of the relationship between organizational commitment and organizational effectiveness might differ depending upon the behaviors to which the employees were dedicated. Harris and Eoyang (1977), building upon Steers' (1977) concept of "active" and "passive" commitment, offer a fourfold typology of commitment as a construct having two bipolar dimensions which are first, commitment, or lack of commitment, to remain with the organization, and second, commitment, or lack thereof, to work in support of organizational objectives. Within such a framework, turnover measures should be more sensitive to the extent to which employees were committed to remaining in the organization. On the other hand, according to March and Simon (1958) those measures that nearly reflects a decision by organizational members to produce should be more evidently related to their commitment to exercise effort on behalf of the organization. The second category of indicators includes not only such performance dimensions as service effectiveness and adaptability, but absenteeism and tardiness, as well. Although the term "participation" which is commonly used includes employee behaviors opposite to absenteeism, as well as to turnover, March and Simon (1958) define the term exclusively with respect to turnover.

2.8 The Relationship of OC and Job Satisfaction

Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn (1997) define job satisfaction as positive feelings that employees have towards their jobs. While George and Jones (1996) and Moorhead and Griffin (1995) further describe that satisfaction and devotion that employees have towards their jobs. Job satisfaction is an employee's common attitude towards his job (Robbins, 1986) and being served the events and/or elements which an employee attaches importance. In addition, besides individual variables like gender (Vaydonoff, 1980; Hulin & Smith 1967), age (Lee & Wilbur, 1985), marital status, education and personality (King, Michael & Atkinson, 1982) wage (Borjas, 1979), promotion (Jamal & Baba, 1991), working conditions (Near, Smith, Rice, & Hunt, 1984), job and jobs' characteristics (Robbins, 1986); there are also other factors that may effect job satisfaction (Blegen, 1993). On the word of Meyer, Stanley, Hersecovitch and Topolnytsky (2002), job satisfaction is a determinative of organizational

commitment which is mean correlated to each other. The major difference between organizational commitment and job satisfaction is that while organizational commitment can be described as the emotional responses which an employee has towards his organization while job satisfaction is the responses that an employee has towards any job. It is considered that these two variables are highly correlated to each other. In other words, while an employee has positive mind-set towards the organization including values and objectives, it is possible for him or her to be unsatisfied with the job he or she has in the organization.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Measurement of Scale

OC was measured using the 30 items Organizational Commitment Scale (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Cohen (2003) states that the Meyer and Allen commitment scales are the most valid scales used to measure organizational commitment. This is a 30-item scale that obtained responses on a 7-point Likert scale where 1 = Strongly disagree and 7 = Strongly agree. This scale breaks down into affective, normative or continuance commitment.

3.2 Sampling and Measurement

The unit of analysis for this study was individual operational employee working in large hotels located in the states of Pulau Pinang, Selangor, Kuala Lumpur, Melaka, Sabah and Sarawak. For the purpose of this study, operational employee is defined as full-time hotel employees, who have been employed for more than six months and attached to the front office, housekeeping, food production and food and beverage service departments. In order to gather relevant data for the study, a set of questionnaires were used. Also from the literature review, established measures from the related fields were incorporated in the questionnaire to evaluate the constructs in the study, namely, OC. Questionnaires with close-ended questions were utilized as research instrumentation. All questions in parts 1 were developed using a seven-point Likert scale with the purpose of eliciting respondent's agreement on OC. Part 2 of the questionnaire was used to obtain the profiles of the respondents. For the purpose of data interpretation, the descriptive phrases for the main side of the seven-point scale are (7) "Strongly agree", (6) "Agree", (5) "Slightly agree", (4) "Neutral" (3) "Slightly disagree", (2) "Moderately disagree", and (1) "Strongly disagree". The scale with a neutral response in the middle is the most commonly used in a research paper (Malhotra, 2006; Moser & Kalton, 1996; Sekaran & Bougie, 2010).

The Likert scale was employed in order to present the questions to the respondents. Due to its easy construction, quick completion and uncomplicated measuring, a numerical Likert scale is often used (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000). Furthermore, Malhotra (2006) states that it is easier for the respondents to understand and they enjoy filling in this type of scale.

The questionnaire was divided into three different sections with a specific heading for each section. In addition, instructions were stated clearly and precisely for the respondents. The final section included the profile of the respondent as this data is considered to be personal (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010).

3.3 Data Screening and Analysis

The dataset were coded and saved into SPSS version 20.0 and the process of data screening was done. Consequently, the dataset were then included for reliability testing and exploratory factor analysis (EFA).

4. RESULTS

4.1 Profiles of Respondents

The respondents' profile is shown in Table 1 and the variables are collapsed into categorical variables.

From the 624 respondents, the majority (57.9%) are males. Almost 47.3 percent of the respondents' age is between 21 to 25 years old. Moreover, about 46.2 percent of the respondents are Malays. Meanwhile, most of the respondents (40.5%) completed the undergraduate degree program. The majority of the respondents are from 3-star hotels (51.8%) and most of the respondents (42.6%) have a monthly income ranging from RM1500 to RM2999.

Table 1: Profile of the Respondents (N=624)

Respondent's Profile	Number	Percentage
<i>Gender</i>		
Male	361	57.9
Female	263	42.1
<i>Age</i>		
21 - 25 years old	295	47.3
26 - 30 years old	108	17.3
31 - 35 years old	68	10.9
36 - 40 years old	67	10.7
Above 40 years old	86	13.8
<i>Education Level</i>		
High School	168	26.9
Diploma	161	25.8
Undergraduate Degree	253	40.5
Postgraduate Degree	21	3.4
Others	21	3.4
<i>Monthly Income</i>		
Less than RM1500	225	36.1
RM1500 - RM2999	266	42.6
RM3000 - RM4999	71	11.4
Above RM 5000	62	9.9
<i>Hotel Star Rating</i>		
3 - star	323	51.8
4 - star	60	9.6
5 - star	241	38.6

4.2 Reliability Testing and EFA

Test of internal reliability was taken before proceeding to analyze the objective and research question of the study. This assessment is very important in order to generate information in the depth of consistency presents among ratings given by the respondents from all data collected. Reliability of instruments is vital as it indicates the quality of measurements method consist of the scale used (Pallant, 2007). The most commonly used to measure quantitative measurement is Cronbach's alpha coefficients. All the values which stated above 0.600 were

considered acceptable and more appropriate to proceed with any further testing (Nunally, 1970).

Table 2: Exploratory Factor Analysis of the Constructs and Reliability

Factors/Items		Factor Loading	Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha
Organizational Commitment – KMO = 0.92 Bartlett's: Sig. = 0.00			
Affective			
7	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	0.820	0.945
8	I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.	0.796	
1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with the organization.	0.751	
22	I owe a great deal to this organization.	0.750	
5	I feel like part of the family at my organization.	0.738	
3	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	0.714	
20	This organization deserves my loyalty.	0.690	
12	One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain.	0.686	
14	I was thought to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization.	0.678	
6	I feel emotionally attached to this organization.	0.673	
21	I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.	0.663	
18	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.	0.643	
15	Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organization for most of their careers.	0.627	
2	I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside of it.	0.620	
19	I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.	0.612	

17	I feel obligated to remain with my current employer.	0.595	
10	I believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization.	0.574	
13	If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere, I would not feel it was right to leave my organization.	0.560	
16	I think that wanting to be a “company man” or “company women” is sensible.	0.546	
11	Jumping from organization to organization is unethical to me.	0.419	
Continuance			
29	One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	0.749	0.802
30	One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice – another organization may not match the overall benefit that I have here.	0.679	
28	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.	0.663	
23	I am afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.	0.630	
26	I would be too costly for me to leave my organization right now.	0.630	
24	It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.	0.587	
Normative			
27	Right now staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	0.680	0.622
4	I feel like part of the family at my organization.	0.677	
25	Not much in my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave my organization now.	0.545	

In order to see whether the distribution of the values was adequate for conducting analysis, the Kaiser-Meyen-Olkin (KMO) measure was used with a result of 0.92 (> 0.50). In addition, Bartlett’s test of sphericity measure indicated that the multivariate normality of the set of distribution was normal, showing a significant value, $p = 0.000$ (< 0.05). The data were therefore feasible for conducting the factor analysis (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 1998). In observing the commonalities, it was found that the values were not smaller

than 0.40. This indicated a strong association among the variables. Three factors of OC were derived from the output with eigenvalues exceeding one, explaining 38.54%, 6.61% and 6.27% of the variance respectively. To determine which items were loaded to which factor, rotated component matrix was inspected. The findings suggest that there are three factors related to OC. The factor loadings of the items in the three factors were between 0.419 and 0.820. The three factors were labeled as Affective, Continuance and Normative (Table 2).

4.3 Testing Differences – Affective Commitment, Continuance Commitment and Normative Commitment, and Gender

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the affective commitment scores for males and females. There was no significant difference in scores for males ($M = 95.72$, $SD = 18.58$) and females [$M = 95.43$, $SD = 21.62$; $t(512) = 0.18$, $p = 0.86$]. The magnitude of the differences in the means was very small (eta squared = 0.00005). Similarly, an independent-samples t-test was also conducted to compare the continuance commitment scores for males and females. There was no significant difference in scores for males ($M = 28.55$, $SD = 5.90$) and females [$M = 28.35$, $SD = 5.75$; $t(622) = 0.42$, $p = 0.68$]. The magnitude of the differences in the means was very small (eta squared = 0.0002). Equally, an independent-samples t-test was then conducted to compare the normative commitment scores for males and females. There was no significant difference in scores for males ($M = 11.74$, $SD = 3.34$) and females [$M = 12.23$, $SD = 3.39$; $t(622) = -1.82$, $p = 0.07$]. The magnitude of the differences in the means was very small (eta squared = 0.005). This result supports the previous researches done by Pathardikar and Sahu (2011) and Hogan, Lambert and Griffin (2013) that state all dimensions of organizational commitment are not influenced by gender.

4.4 Testing Differences – Educational Level and Monthly Salary, and Affective Commitment

A one-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to explore the impact of educational levels on levels of affective commitment. Subjects were divided into five groups according to their educational level (Group 1: high school; Group 2: diploma; Group 3: undergraduate degree; Group 4: postgraduate degree; Group 5: other qualifications). There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in affective commitment scores for the five education level [$F(4, 619) = 3.77$, $p = .005$]. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was quite small. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .02. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 1 ($M = 99.70$, $SD = 17.95$) was significantly different from Group 2 ($M = 92.29$, $SD = 23.05$). Group 3 ($M = 94.48$, $SD = 18.03$), Group 4 ($M = 102.38$, $SD =$

17.02) and Group 5 ($M = 94.75$, $SD = 26.76$) did not differ significantly from either Group 1 or 2. The results revealed that the group of postgraduate education had the highest affective commitment. This result is consistent with the researches done by Steijn and Leisink (2006) that state an individual affective commitment is influenced by educational level.

Then, a one-way between-groups analysis of variance was also conducted to explore the impact of salary on levels of affective commitment. Subjects were divided into four groups according to their salary range (Group 1: less than RM1500; Group 2: RM1500 to RM2999; Group 3: RM3000 to RM4999; Group 4: Above RM5000). There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in affective commitment scores for the four salary range groups [$F(3, 620) = 18.83$, $p = .000$]. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was medium. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .08. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 1 ($M = 92.76$, $SD = 19.99$) and Group 2 ($M = 92.67$, $SD = 19.51$) were significantly different from Group 3 ($M = 103.23$, $SD = 18.32$) and Group 4 ($M = 109.73$, $SD = 14.15$). The results revealed that the group of salary range more than RM 5000 had the highest affective commitment. This result supports the previous researches done by Panaccio, Vandenberghe and Ayed (2014) and Hogan, Lambert and Griffin (2013) that state an individual affective commitment is influenced by salary.

Table 3: ANOVA Summary for the Tests Done on Two Groups and Affective Commitment

		Mean	F-Ratio	P
Educational Level	Group 1: High school	99.70	3.77	0.005
	Group 2: Diploma	92.29		
	Group 3: Undergraduate degree	94.48		
	Group 4: Postgraduate degree	102.38		
	Group 5: Others	94.75		
Monthly salary range	Group 1: Less than RM1500	92.76	18.83	0.000
	Group 2: RM1500 - RM2999	92.67		
	Group 3: RM3000 - RM4999	103.23		
	Group 5: Above RM5000	109.73		

4.5 Testing Differences – Educational Level and Monthly Salary, and Continuance Commitment

Similarly, a one-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to explore the impact of educational levels on levels of continuance commitment. Subjects were divided into five groups according to their educational level (Group 1: high school; Group 2: diploma; Group 3: undergraduate degree; Group 4: postgraduate degree; Group 5: other qualifications). There was a statistically insignificant difference at the $p < .05$ level in continuance commitment scores for the five education level [$F(4, 619) = 5.06, p = .001$]. Despite statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was also quite small. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .03. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 1 ($M = 29.46, SD = 6.50$) was significantly different from Group 2 ($M = 27.61, SD = 5.90$) and Group 4 ($M = 25.24, SD = 2.90$); and Group 2 was significantly different from Group 1 and Group 5 ($M = 31.29, SD = 4.23$). Group 3 ($M = 28.38, SD = 5.50$) did not differ significantly from either Group 1, 2, 4 or 5. The results revealed that the group of others education had the highest continuance commitment. This result is consistent with the researches done by Gupta (2009) and Sayeed (1989) that state an individual continuance commitment is influenced by educational level.

Then, a one-way between-groups analysis of variance was also conducted to explore the impact of salary on levels of continuance commitment. Subjects were divided into four groups according to their salary range (Group 1: less than RM 1500; Group 2: RM 1500 to RM 2999; Group 3: RM 3000 to RM 4999; Group 4: Above RM 5000). There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in continuance commitment scores for the four salary range groups [$F(3, 620) = 5.33, p = .001$]. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was small. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .03. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 1 ($M = 28.26, SD = 6.39$) and Group 2 ($M = 27.95, SD = 5.65$) were significantly different from Group 4 ($M = 31.16, SD = 4.66$). Group 3 ($M = 28.70, SD = 5.00$) did not differ significantly from either Group 1, 2 or 4. The results revealed that the group of salary range more than RM5000 had the highest continuance commitment. This result supports the previous researches done by Panaccio, Vandenberghe and Ayed (2014) and Hogan, Lambert and Griffin (2013) that state an individual continuance commitment is influenced by salary.

Table 4: ANOVA Summary for the Tests Done on Two Groups and Continuance Commitment

		Mean	F-Ratio	P
Educational Level	Group 1: High school	29.46	5.06	0.000
	Group 2: Diploma	27.61		
	Group 3: Undergraduate degree	28.38		
	Group 4: Postgraduate degree	25.24		
	Group 5: Others	31.29		
Monthly salary range	Group 1: Less than RM1500	28.26	5.332	0.001
	Group 2: RM1500 - RM2999	27.95		
	Group 3: RM3000 - RM4999	28.70		
	Group 5: Above RM5000	31.16		

4.6 Testing Differences – Educational Level and Monthly Salary, and Normative Commitment

Similarly, a one-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to explore the impact of educational levels on levels of normative commitment. Subjects were divided into five groups according to their educational level (Group 1: High school; Group 2: Diploma; Group 3: Undergraduate degree; Group 4: Postgraduate degree; Group 5: Other qualifications). There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in normative commitment scores for the five education level [$F(4, 619) = 10.84$, $p = .00$]. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was medium. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .07. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 1 ($M = 12.79$, $SD = 3.77$) was significantly different from Group 3 ($M = 11.67$, $SD = 3.16$), Group 4 ($M = 9.29$, $SD = 2.90$) and Group 5 ($M = 9.14$, $SD = 2.22$); Group 2 ($M = 12.21$, $SD = 3.01$) was significantly different from Group 4 and Group 5; and Group 3 was significantly different from Group 4 and Group 5. The results revealed that the group of high school education had the highest normative commitment. This result is consistent with the researches done by Gupta (2009) and, Steijn and Leisink (2006) that state an individual normative commitment is influenced by educational level.

Then, a one-way between-groups analysis of variance was also conducted to explore the impact of salary on levels of normative commitment. Subjects were divided into four groups according to their salary range (Group 1: less than RM 1500; Group 2: RM1500 to RM2999; Group 3: RM3000 to RM4999; Group 4: Above RM5000). There was a statistically insignificant difference at the $p < .05$ level in normative commitment scores for the four salary range groups [$F(3,$

620)=0.652, $p=.582$]. This result is inconsistent with the researches done by Gupta (2009) and, Steijn and Leisink (2006) that state an individual normative commitment is influenced by range of salary.

Table 5: ANOVA Summary for the Tests Done on Two Groups and Normative Commitment

		Mean	F-Ratio	P
Educational Level	Group 1: High school	12.79	10.84	0.000
	Group 2: Diploma	12.21		
	Group 3: Undergraduate degree	11.67		
	Group 4: Postgraduate degree	9.29		
	Group 5: Others	9.14		
Monthly salary range	Group 1: Less than RM1500	11.76	0.65	0.582
	Group 2: RM1500 - RM2999	12.00		
	Group 3: RM3000 - RM4999	12.38		
	Group 5: Above RM5000	11.85		

5. DISCUSSIONS

According to the research findings, no significant result is deducted when gender is regarded with organizational commitment. This is consistent with the previous researches done by Garcia-Bernal, Gargallo-Castel, Marzo-Navarro and Rivera-Torres (2005), Ghiselli, LaLopa and Bai (2001), Hogan, Lambert and Griffin (2013), Karatepe, Yavas, Babakus and Avci (2006) and Pathardikarand (2011).

There are significant differences between educational level and affective commitment and salary, and affective commitment. The highest mean for educational level is from Postgraduate group. The highest mean for salary is from Salary above RM5000. Affective commitment is based on affective or positive emotional attachment to the organization. Organizations with committed employees are more effective and employees who exhibit high levels of AOC are more productive and less likely to quit. Business leaders view AOC as pivotal for attracting, motivating and retaining key talent. Employees who are low in AOC are more likely to miss work and engage in counterproductive behaviors such as theft, sabotage and aggression.

Similarly, there are also significant differences between educational level and continuance commitment and salary, and continuance commitment. The highest mean for educational level is from Others Education group. The highest mean for salary is from Salary above RM5000. Continuance commitment is the magnitude

of the member's psychosomatic attachment to the organization on the foundation of the perceived costs related with leaving it. The employees also reserve the benefit of their continuance commitment in an organization for example on the development of work friendships, time, energy spent mastering a job skill, political deals and job efforts that comprise barriers that decrease the attractiveness of alternative employment. The continuance commitment is built on the basis of an employee's satisfaction with rewards and inducements from the organization, on the other part, the employee must give up rewards if he or she decides to leave the organization.

Lastly, there are only significant differences between educational level and normative commitment but not on salary and continuance commitment. The highest mean for educational level is from High School group. Normative commitment is primarily based on the individual's sense of moral requirement to the organization. Employees' job satisfaction is positively correlated to their normative commitment level mediated by trust. Dubé, Enz, Renaghan and Siguaw (2000) state that employees look for organizations in which they feel trusted and that provide opportunities to work with trusting co-workers and employers. Moorman, Deshpande and Zaltman (1993) find that between individuals, trust exists (interpersonal trust), between organizations (organizational trust), or between individuals and organizations (inter-organizational trust). Subsequently, according to Doney and Cannon (1997) once employees build trust, they have a tendency to perceive obligations and continue the relationship.

Retention of employees has become a strategic issue for gaining a sustainable competitive advantage. In order to retain the employees, hotel managements are proposed to provide the employees the opportunities to improve themselves by additional training program. The managements are also proposed to provide counseling and career development support. Similarly, the management could reward them by incentive programs and better fringe benefits. The employees should also be given more ergonomic and convenient working conditions. The managements are also recommended to provide the employees with necessary budget to socialize the employees and enable them to be involved in social activities. Lastly, the managements are suggested to enable employees to put some goals according to their own evaluations and give them more initiative.

6. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This research has found significant differences between affective, continuance and normative commitment, and educational level and salary. We believe that the suggestions we have suggested could be useful for managerial research and practice of OC in Malaysian hotel industry, in improving the recruitment and

selection strategies as well as to maintain and retain the employees through human resources practices. The findings of this study are interpreted in the light of several limitations and together with the findings, suggest directions for future research.

Firstly, the generalizability of this study's findings may be limited to the star rating of the hotels, namely, 3-star, 4-star and 5-star hotels only. Therefore, future research should attempt to gather more information from the hotels regardless of their star ratings. In this way, comparison between different hotels with different star ratings can be obtained.

Secondly, the findings may be limited to hotel business only. For that reason, future research should attempt to gather information from other businesses in the service industry like the airlines, restaurants, banks and hospitals. Subsequently, comparison between the different businesses in the service industry can be acquired.

Finally, the limitation of this study is that it used only selected variables i.e., OC. There are other variables that could be interesting to be studied in future research in order to examine the antecedents of OC. Variables such as organizational culture and job satisfaction could be examined in detail.

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