

# **TALENT RETENTION FRAMEWORK FOR THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY**

by

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## DECLARATION

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I declare that above dissertation is my own work and all the sources I used or quoted from have been acknowledged and indicated through complete references.

I further declare that I submitted the dissertation to originality checking software and that it falls within the accepted requirements for originality.

I further declare that I have not previously submitted this work, or part of it, for examination at Unisa for another qualification or at any other higher education institution.

I further declare that ethical clearance to conduct the research has been obtained from the Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology, University of South Africa.



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Patsy L Kruger

11 December 2020

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## **ABSTRACT**

### **TALENT RETENTION FRAMEWORK FOR THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY**

Supervisor: Professor N. Ferreira  
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Degree: MCom Business Management: Human Resource Management  
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#### **Abstract**

This research study aimed to propose a talent retention framework for the hospitality industry in the Indian Ocean region by examining the relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in relation to employee retention. In addition, the study aimed to determine whether demographic factors (age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status [local or expatriate]), work role fit and flourishing significantly and positively predict organisational commitment, and whether demographic factors (age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate) differ with regard to these variables. The study was directed at a random sample of employees at international hotels represented in the Indian Ocean region. The data was collected using the Work Role Fit Scale, the Flourishing-at-Work Scale and the Organisational Commitment Scale. The study revealed significant positive relationships between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in the hospitality industry. The results found that fit and flourishing positively and significantly predict organisational commitment. Lastly significant differences were found between the fit, flourishing and organisational commitment of employees in the hospitality industry in terms of demographic variables: age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate).

#### **Opsomming**

Hierdie navorsingstudie het ten doel gehad om 'n talentbehoudraamwerk vir die gasvryheidsbedryf in die Indiese Oseaan-streek voor te stel deur die verhouding tussen gepastheid, florerings en organisatoriese toewyding met betrekking tot werknemerbehoud te ondersoek. Verder het die studie gepoog om te bepaal of demografiese faktore (ouderdom, geslag, nasionaliteit, huwelikstatus en werknemerstatus [plaaslik of uitgestuur]), werkrolgepastheid en florerings die organisatoriese toewyding beduidendheid en positief voorspel, en of demografiese faktore (ouderdom, geslag, nasionaliteit, huwelikstatus en werknemerstatus [plaaslik of uitgestuur]) rakende hierdie veranderlikes verskil. Die studie is

gerig op 'n ewekansige steekproefneming van werknemers by internasionale hotelle wat die Indiese Oseaan-streek verteenwoordig. Die data is deur die werkrolgepastheidskaal, die floreer-by-die-werk-skaal en die organisatoriese toewydingskaal versamel. Die studie het beduidende positiewe verhoudings tussen gepastheid, florering en organisatoriese toewyding in die gasvryheidsbedryf aan die lig gebring. Die resultate het bevind dat gepastheid en florering die organisatoriese toewyding positief en beduidend voorspel. Laastens is beduidende verskille gevind tussen die gepastheid, florering en organisatoriese toewyding van werknemers in die gasvryheidsbedryf met betrekking tot demografiese veranderlikes: ouderdom, geslag, nasionaliteit, huwelikstatus en werknemerstatus (plaaslik of uitgestuur).

### **Okucashuniwe uNkosazana**

Lolu cwaningo lwaluhlose ukuphakamisa uhlaka lokugcinwa kwamakhono embonini yezokungenisa izihambi esifundeni sase-*Indian Ocean* ngokuhlola ubudlelwano phakathi kokuzibophezela okufanelekile, okuchumayo nokuhlelekile maqondana nokugcinwa kwabasebenzi. Ngaphezu kwalokho, lolu cwaningo kuhloswe ngalo ukuthola ukuthi izici zabantu (ubudala, ubulili, ubuzwe, isimo somshado nesimo sokuqashwa ([okwendawo noma okudingisiwe]), indima yomsebenzi efanelekile nokuchuma kahle okuphawulekayo kubikezela ukuzibophezela kwenhlangano, nokuthi ngabe izici zabantu (ubudala, ubulili, ubuzwe, isimo somshado nesimo sokuqashwa (okwasekhaya noma okwamanye amazwe) ziyahluka maqondana nalezi ziguquko. Ucwaningo luqondiswe kusampula engahleliwe yabasebenzi emahhotela aphenesheya amelwe esifundweni sase-*Indian Ocean*. Imiphumela ithole ukuthi okufanelekile nokuchuma kahle okuphawulekayo kubikezela ukuzibophezela kwenhlangano. Okokugcina umehluko obalulekile utholakale phakathi kokuzibophezela okufanelekile, okuchumayo nokuhlelekile kwabasebenzi embonini yezokungenisa izihambi ngokuya ngokuhlukahluka kwezici zabantu: ubudala, ubulili, ubuzwe, isimo somshado nesimo sokuqashwa (okwendawo noma okudingisiwe).

**Key terms:** fit, flourishing, organisational commitment, retention, tourism, hospitality industry and employee turnover

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# **CHAPTER 1: SCIENTIFIC OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH**

The primary focus of this study was to propose a talent retention framework for the Indian Ocean hospitality industry by investigating the relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment. The second aim of the study was to explore whether the selected demographic variables, age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate) differ with regard to these variables. This chapter of the research dissertation aimed to examine background information using a literature study and to develop a motivation for the research resulting in the formulation of the problem statement and the research questions. Subsequently, the research method and paradigm indicate the different steps that were formulated to give structure to the research process.

Since this research study focuses on the relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment, the first chapter explains the background of the study in combination with the problem statement, the general and specific aims, and the statement of significance. In addition, this chapter presents the research methodology and the divisions of the chapters and concludes with a summary.

## **1.1 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION FOR THE RESEARCH**

This research study focused on employees in the hospitality industry, specifically in the Indian Ocean region. A quantitative survey design was followed to determine the relationships between employees' fit, flourishing and organisational commitment.

### **1.1.1 Global challenges of retention**

Talent retention is a critical aspect for most organisations worldwide. Several researchers confirm that employee retention has become a critical aspect for organisations to consider in order to achieve organisational success (Das & Baruah, 2013; Lyons & Bandura, 2019; Mukerjee, 2020). In the present business world, retention of employees is acknowledged as one of the most significant problems (Abou-Moghli, 2019). Owing to the contribution employees make to organisational success, employee retention has become a global mission (Ortlieb & Sieben, 2012). Talented employees have become the biggest driving force for the business sector and retaining talented employees is becoming a major challenge for companies (Mngomezulu et al., 2015).

Imam et al. (2017) thoroughly investigated the retention literature and found that research on retention has been conducted in 22 countries/regions, and that most literature related to studies done in India, the United States of America and United Kingdom. Imam et al. (2017) indicated that future research should be conducted on other countries or regions of the world to fill the gap in employee retention research. Imam et al. (2017) also found that only two

publications focused on cross-country and cross-cultural retention research, indicating a gap in research on retention in other countries for the prosperity of all industries.

Alatawi (2017) noted that employee retention is regarded as a complex and continuous matter to study, as it affects the stability of the organisational climate and the performance, productivity and retention of employees. Replacing top talented employees can be very costly for a company. In some cases, the replacement of a single employee may be equal to 100% of the employee's annual salary. Therefore, retaining employees has become critical for an employer, and research on retention strategies has thus become vital for organisations who aims to be competitive (Saridakis & Cooper, 2016). It is therefore important that employers engage in retaining high-potential and valuable employees (Holtbrugge et al., 2010). Research by Trevisan et al. (2014) contend that the employee's decision to leave an organisation is influenced by a number of factors, such as their perceived fit to the organisation, the culture and values of the organisation, communication and leadership within the organisation, their self-actualisation, work-life balance and the rewards and recognition they receive from the organisation. It is crucial that organisational leaders or human resource practitioners understand which factors increase the retention of their organisation's employees (Sinha, 2012; Thompson, 2014).

It is thus evident that organisations should invest in sound retention strategies. The continuous increase in the attrition of highly skilled and talented employees has become a challenge across all organisations. When companies implement policies and strategies to retain valuable and talented employees, they indirectly invest in the success, productivity and profitability of the organisation (Adnot et al., 2017).

### **1.1.2 Significant challenges in the hospitality industry**

The hospitality industry is known as the biggest, and one of the most important and fastest growing, global industries (Pizam & Shani, 2009; WTTC, 2011). One of the world's oldest professions, the hospitality industry faces significant challenges, for example high and unstable employee turnover and workforce shortages (Bharwani & Butt, 2012; Crick & Spencer, 2011). Over the years, the hospitality industry has faced unexpected disasters, such as the global economic crisis, the great recession of 2007–2010 (Youn & Gu, 2010), the Fourth Industrial Revolution, the South African Minimum Wages legislation framework and the recent coronavirus pandemic which resulted in serious challenges and threats to the hospitality sector.

Much has changed in the hospitality industry since the great recession in 2010. Consumers have reserved spending and minimised and cancelled vacations. In 2008 and 2009, 144,000 workers were made redundant, but the industry recovered, employed 153,000 more people

in 2018 than before the recession in 2008. However, around the globe the hospitality industry continues to recover, emerge from disasters, survive and thrive again (Borko, 2018).

The recent global coronavirus outbreak during 2019/2020 (Covid-19) resulted in the world's hospitality trade being entirely closed down, resulting in travel bans and lockdowns in almost all countries of the world. The dramatic drop in business forced hotels globally to a minimum or zero level of operations. In addition to the economic challenges, many international hotel brands faced the critical issue of a redundant workforce during the Covid-19 crisis. Hotel chains declared different schemes and percentages of salary cuts for their employees, terminations, temporary lay-offs or requested key employees to work from home. As the hospitality business slowly recovered in the third quarter of 2020, the World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) estimated that there would be a global decline of 20 to 30% in international tourist arrivals after the pandemic in 2020. Most hotels brands had to re-enter the recruitment market and restart the competition for the best talents in the industry (Sogno, 2020).

Human resource management and the practice of employee retention are vital in the hospitality industry (Mamahit et al., 2019). Organisations, specifically human resource departments, are concerned with employees' emotional attachment to the organisation, the continuation of their employment, and their commitment and obligation to stay with the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 2011; Feldman & Ng, 2007). Jayawardena et al. (2013) as well as Cummings and Worley (2009) note that companies that function in a highly competitive market experience demands to attract, retain and enhance the talents and outputs of their employees. In addition, Hunker (2014) argues that the hospitality industry is well known for its strict working environment regarding policies, structures and rules, explaining that employees in the hospitality industry have substantial work pressures, stress and physical and mental work. These factors cause employees to experience personal life adjustment and psychological adaptations resulting in employees ultimately leaving the company.

Albattat et al. (2013) comment that hospitality organisations face the challenge of high employee turnover and that it is critical to understand the reasons why employees have intentions to resign. These authors (Albattat et al., 2013) state that employees (especially in the hospitality industry) play a vital role in the organisation's success. Kular et al. (2008) suggests that when employees have intentions to resign there are effects on the organisation, such as frequent absenteeism, lower employee engagement and decreased commitment to the organisation's goals. It is therefore evident that emphasis should be placed on the retention of valuable employees in the hospitality industry to ensure organisational success and competitiveness. According to Pavlou (2019), in 2015 the

hospitality industry in the United States had a voluntary turnover of 17.8% and that the two industries with the highest turnover rates are the hospitality and the healthcare industries.

Alfes et al. (2013) and Kreitner and Cassidy (2011) found that employees are a company's most valuable resource, requiring careful and constant nurturing. In the hospitality industry in the Indian Ocean, employment consists mainly of short employment contracts and employees (local and expatriates) are constantly encouraged to remain longer with the company to develop individual career paths. However, the workforce in this industry is diverse and challenging and companies are not yet recognising their employees as their biggest asset.

The number of hospitality companies in the Indian Ocean region is growing rapidly with more than 10 new resorts opening every year. Since 2013, 30 new resorts have opened; eleven came into operation in 2016, followed by at least 15 in 2017 and 20 new properties in 2019. Maldives will welcome 13 new resort openings in 2020. The total number has now increased to 154 operating resorts (Maldives Insider, 2019).

The hospitality and tourism industry directly supports over 34,500 jobs in Maldives and this number is expected to rise by 3.1% per year to 47,000 jobs by 2028 (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2018). A Mauritian-owned hospitality company operating in the Indian Ocean region targets the opening of 20 new properties by 2022. The World Travel and Tourism Council has reported that out of 185 countries in the world, the four with the highest share of employment in the tourism industry are Seychelles (26.4%), Maldives (16%), Mauritius (7.2%) and Madagascar (6.3%) (Turner, 2018), all of which are in the Indian Ocean.

Therefore, the majority of the employees employed in the hospitality industry are in the Indian Ocean and with new hotels or resorts opening, employees move to find bigger opportunities, resulting in low employee retention.

### **1.1.3 Conceptualisation of retention**

Mamahit et al. (2019) define employee retention as retaining the right people in the right job in the organisation and therefore keeping its best employees. Fatima (2011) defines retention as an effort by employers to keep high-performing and talented employees within the organisation in order for those employees to contribute towards the performance and competitive advantage of the organisation. In addition, retention is also described as an initiative from management to engage in preventing employees leaving the organisation by rewarding high-performing employees and increasing the satisfaction of employees with regard to retention factors (i.e. those elements that convince an employee not to leave the company) (Cascio, 2003; Ferreira, 2012). Intention to leave the organisation generally refers



to an employee's decision to resign and to seek another position in another organisation (Theron et al., 2014).

Ferreira (2012) and Van Rooyen et al. (2010) identify retention as the organisation's attempt to retain employees who are high performers. Employee retention is described by Mensah (2015) as the attempts the employer makes to retain its employees by producing a work environment in which they want to remain for a longer period with the company. Chaminade (2007) indicates that employee retention is the voluntary activity of an organisation to produce an environment where employees are engaged over a long period. Chaminade (2007) further draws the conclusion that retention is a long-standing initiative practised by the employer to ensure that the best individual is appointed and that the employee continues their engagement with the organisation.

#### **1.1.4 Factors influencing retention**

Erasmus et al. (2015) remark that the objective of having a competitive advantage is to place a high priority on the retention of high-performing employees. Tymon et al. (2011) arrived at a similar conclusion, noting that high recruitment, selection and on-boarding costs in organisations can be eliminated or reduced by retaining high-performing and talented employees.

Kossivi et al. (2016) state that organisations need to retain their talented employees in order to remain in business. They (Kossivi et al., 2016) acknowledge that the area of human resources is complex and further investigations are needed to equip organisations with knowledge for improving retention capabilities.

Several research studies have been conducted on the factors that increase the retention of employees. Retention factors can be defined as the initiative and efforts on the part of management to retain the organisation's talented and valuable employees (Cascio, 2003; Fatima, 2011; Van Rooyen et al., 2010). According to Van Dyk (2011), factors of retention influence the employee's decision to remain or to resign, which in turn has an effect on voluntary turnover and higher retention. It is thus evident that the more satisfied an employee is with the retention factors in an organisation, the lower his or her intention to leave the company.

Today many organisations take into account new retention trends. More organisations are accepting the importance of employee retention and even considering appointing full-time employee retention specialists to increase retention. In addition, companies are giving attention to more social initiatives to develop employee retention for the new generation of employees. Companies are making more efforts to comprehend different generational (Baby Boomers, 1946–1964, Generation X, 1965–1981, Generation Y, 1982–1999) preferences

with the purpose of retaining talent and preparing improved retention strategies. Many companies are experimenting with their employees. By treating employees as a critical customer and by creating a solid relationship with employees, companies could retain their talented employees (Singh, 2019). The majority of employees leave as a result of a lack of recognition, professional challenges, career growth and limited development opportunities. Business leaders need to address various factors such as employee rewards, recognition, motivation, passion and managing talent effectively to minimise turnover and retain talented employees (Mngomezulu et al., 2015).

Redondo et al. (2019) found that highly flexible talented employees in multinational organisations show higher organisational commitment; however, contrary to what is expected, this did not indicate a higher intention to leave. Factors listed by Hytter (2007) that could improve employee retention are as follows: commitment, trust, identification and connection to the organisation. Hytter (2007) also found that rewards, leadership styles, career opportunities, training and development opportunities, physical working conditions and work–life balance have an indirect influence on employee retention. Other retention factors identified by authors include satisfying the needs of employees, the employee’s work environment and individual growth and development (Diedericks & Rothman, 2014; Ferreira, 2012; Ramlall, 2014; Seligman, 2011). Döckel (2003) identified the six critical retention factors as follows: compensation, support from the supervisor, job characteristics, opportunities for training and development, work–life balance and career opportunities. Some factors used to measure an organisation’s retention capacity are mentioned by Lyria et al. (2014) as flexible working hours for employees, motivated employees, offering competitive salaries and benefits, working for a company with a good image, as well as the style of the leadership of management and supervisors. Lyria et al. (2014) state that the aim of employee retention is to keep employees working in the company for very long periods of time. According to Döckel (2003), these multiple factors are used to ensure that valuable employees remain with an organisation.

It is evident that proper retention strategies are vital for retaining employees and, in addition, that companies must create an environment where employees are stimulated and encouraged by developing motivation-building best practices within the company culture. Additional practices which should be included are respecting employees and their opinions, listening to employees, allowing employees to voice concerns, rewarding good performances and creating an environment for career development. Retention strategies are advantageous for a company that wants to retain valuable employees and maintain a low employee turnover and reduce expenses (Yazinski, 2009).

Although it is evident that certain physical factors contribute towards the retention of valuable employees, Hunker (2014) found that psychological aspects also play a critical role in the retention of employees.

### **1.1.5 Psychological factors influencing retention**

Kular et al. (2008) suggest that when employees have intentions to resign there are effects on the organisation such as frequent absenteeism, lower employee engagement and decreased commitment to the organisation's goals. Ultimately, researchers argue that once a correlation exists between the organisation's goals, norms and values and the employee's personal goals, the employee experiences commitment to continue their employment with the organisation (Su et al., 2015; Van Vianen et al., 2013).

Organisational commitment is defined as the attitude relating to the employee's outlook towards the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 2011). Van Dyk and Coetzee's (2012) research proved that the intention of employees to leave or remain with their current company is an immensely significant predictor of commitment. Hence, it would appear that organisational commitment influences and significantly correlates with employee retention.

Shipp and Jansen (2011) and Su et al. (2015) indicate that employees have increased performance and remain in organisations when their personal characteristics, namely, skills, knowledge, needs and values, match the organisation's goals. Research by Trevisan et al. (2014) has found that the employee's decision to leave is influenced by their perception of how they fit into the organisation. Ostroff and Schulte (2007) support these views and in addition comment that good fit will usually result in employee satisfaction and poor fit in employee frustration. Tatoglu et al. (2016) state that insufficient theory and empirical research have been developed on talent–organisation fit to make a valuable contribution and a tangible description of this concept. Thus the next section will conceptualise organisational fit in relation to employee retention in organisations.

### **Fit as an element of employee retention**

Janse van Rensburg et al. (2017) confirm that it is thus necessary to study employees' fit in their jobs and organisations with the purpose of optimising their retention. Heathfield (2018) states that employees experiencing job fit are happier and more productive, but when employees have intentions to leave their current employment, the company needs to look at their job fit carefully. The concept of fit to an organisation is defined as the match between the qualities of the employee and the organisation they are employed by (Gregory et al., 2010). In addition, Holtom and Inderrieden (2006) describe fit as the attachments the employee has with the organisation and define fit as the employee's compatibility with the company as well as how comfortable they feel within the organisation.

Scroggins (2008) found that employees, whose self-concept is established by their work-role, find significance in their job, resulting in low or no intention to leave the organisation. Work–role fit therefore has an effect on the employee’s intention to leave the organisation and it is anticipated that work–role fit, supportive co-workers, a good supervisor relationship and a meaningful job will encourage an employee to remain with the organisation (Swart & Rothmann, 2012). It is evident that the perception of organisational fit influences the retention of employees.

Diedericks and Rothmann (2014) found that flourishing individuals display higher levels of organisational commitment and increased retention in comparison to employees who are not flourishing. Wissing and Temane (2013) define flourishing as the status of an individual’s life when it comprises a high level of social, emotional and psychological wellbeing. Diedericks and Rothmann (2014) also define flourishing as a state of mental health that ensures that individuals function optimally and are able to adapt to change and to changes in the workplace. It can therefore be concluded that flourishing influences the retention of valuable employees.

It is evident from the literature that psychological factors do influence retention. This study will focus on fit, flourishing and organisational commitment as a set of psychological factors that has an influence on retention.

#### **1.1.6 Integration of fit, flourishing and organisational commitment**

Research by Trevisan et al. (2014) indicate that the employee’s decision to leave is influenced by their fit perceptions and, according to Giacomani and Caglar (2019), the underlying cause of turnover is a poor employee fit with the company strategy and values.

A study by Nazir et al. (2016) discussed the importance of organisational commitment in a company in China, proposing that management should be cautious when increasing employee commitment. It was recommended that management should implement initiatives such as support from supervisor, attractive benefits, allowing employees more autonomy and allowing employee participation in the company’s decision-making process. On the other hand, low organisational commitment leads to high employee turnover according to Trimble and Fisher (2006). Allen and Meyer’s (2011) research indicated that when employees have commitment, they experience a better fit in the organisation (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Therefore employees who are committed to their jobs are less likely to leave their organisation. Döckel’s (2003) study confirms that retention is narrowly connected to organisational commitment and has a significant impact in the development of organisational commitment among employees.

Salman et al. (2017) state that over the six years preceding their study, an increase occurred in organisational commitment relating to employee retention, as studied by Bianchi (2016) and Dumitru et al. (2015). Salman et al.'s (2017) research elucidated that the importance of organisational commitment is undeniable and that this significant variable has been researched in almost every context in various industries.

Employee commitment is critical for retaining highly talented workforces. The implementation of the company's human resource policies can enhance their employee commitment, resulting in approved employee performance, morale and attitude and, in turn, increasing retention. Moreover, employee commitment plays a key role in not only reducing turnover, but also increasing productivity and improving team performance, resulting in less intention to leave and lower absenteeism. Company strategies, processes and initiatives should be implemented to prevent employees from leaving, encouraging them to remain with the organisation for long periods of time (Sattigeri, 2016).

Diedericks and Rothmann's (2014) study on flourishing offers an additional set of outcomes critical to organisational success, namely organisational commitment and the intention employees have to leave. An alternative study indicates that leaders are more likely to experience flourishing when the work environment has a good flow of communication and information sharing, a flexible chain of command, shared decision-making practices, a distributed decision-making process and more centralised regulations (Petrie, 2014). However regarding the assessment of flourishing at work, Ariza-Montes et al. (2018) state that studies are relatively scarce and that in the literature only one study up to the year 2014 exists related to flourishing at work.

Leaders who flourish also affect the motivation, commitment, loyalty and productivity of employees in the organisation (Worrall & Cooper, 2014). Janse van Rensburg et al. (2017) highlight that it is necessary to study employee fit, flourishing and organisational commitment with the purpose of optimising retention. Although the literature does reveal that there are relationships between the variables, no integrated study, specifically in the hospitality industry in the Indian Ocean, was found. It is thus important to extend the research by exploring the relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in the hospitality industry in the Indian Ocean.

## **1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT**

It is evident from the literature that talent retention remains a serious concern for the hospitality industry, especially for the hospitality industry in the Indian Ocean, as employees in this industry experience unique challenges. No retention framework was found in the literature proposing strategies to assist the hospitality industry in the Indian Ocean to

enhance their retention strategies. The researcher therefore identified this as a gap in the literature. This gap is sufficient reason to conduct a study to propose a talent retention framework for the hospitality industry.

The main purpose of this research was to study the retention of employees in the hospitality industry by investigating the relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment. The second aim was to explore whether demographic variables (age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status), fit and flourishing positively and significantly predict organisational commitment? The third aim determined if differences exist in the fit, flourishing and organisational commitment of employees in the hospitality industry in terms of the demographic variables of age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate). The research literature has shown that theoretical models do not clarify the relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in a single and integrated study. It is also evident from the theoretical background discussed above that the understanding of the variables may influence employees' commitment and ultimately the retention of employees.

The researcher aimed to contribute to the disciplines of Industrial and Organisational Psychology and Human Resource Management by proposing a talent retention framework for the hospitality industry.

### **1.2.1 General research questions**

The general research question for this study is: Is there a significant relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in the hospitality industry in the Indian Ocean? Do employees of different ages, genders, nationalities, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate) differ in terms of the mentioned variables? Do demographic variables (age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status), fit and flourishing positively and significantly predict organisational commitment?

The following specific research questions with regard to the literature review and empirical study are formulated:

### **1.2.2 Research questions with regard to the literature review**

- **Research question 1:** How are careers and the retention of employees in the hospitality industry conceptualised?
- **Research question 2:** How are the three constructs of fit, flourishing and organisational commitment conceptualised and explained by theoretical models in the literature?

- **Research question 3:** Does a theoretical relationship exist between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment and how can this relationship be explained?
  - **Sub-question 3.1:** What is the theoretical relationship between fit and flourishing?
  - **Sub-question 3.2:** What is the theoretical relationship between fit and organisational commitment?
  - **Sub-question 3.3:** What is the theoretical relationship between flourishing and organisational commitment?
- **Research question 4:** Do the demographic variables of age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate) influence the theoretical relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment?
- **Research question 5:** What are the theoretical implications for organisational retention practices in the hospitality industry?

### 1.2.3 Research questions with regard to the empirical study

- **Research question 1:** What is the nature of the empirical relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in a sample of participants permanently employed in the hospitality industry?
- **Research question 2:** Do the demographic variables (age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status), and the independent variables of fit and flourishing positively and significantly predict organisational commitment?
- **Research question 3:** Do empirical differences exist in the fit, flourishing and organisational commitment of employees in the hospitality industry in terms of the demographic variables of age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate) as revealed in the sample of respondents?
- **Research question 4:** What conclusions and recommendations can be formulated for the development of retention strategies for employees in the hospitality industry and for possible future research in the field of Human Resource Management?

## 1.3 AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

The aims of research in general were to document, discover, research and develop methods and systems for the purpose of advancing knowledge. Research discovers things and reaffirms the results of previous research work, solves existing or new problems, develops new theories, explains new phenomena, reviews existing knowledge, expands previous work and supports existing theories (Byrne, 2017). In addition, research communicates responses to questions that have never been answered before and provides a means of extending

knowledge, or determining unknown realities through discovery (Kothari, 2004; Vermeulen et al., 2011).

Given the literature and empirical research questions, and in light of the above discussion, the following aims for this study are formulated:

### **1.3.1 General aim of the research**

The primary aim of this research is to determine whether a relationship exists between fit and flourishing (independent variables) and organisational commitment (dependent variable). The secondary aim is to determine whether demographic variables (age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status), fit and flourishing positively and significantly predict organisational commitment? The third aim determined, if employee's demographic variables: age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate) differ with regard to the independent and dependent variables.

### **1.3.2 Specific aim of the research**

The following specific aims were formulated for the literature review study:

#### **Literature review**

In terms of the literature review the specific aims are as follows:

- **Research aim 1:** To conceptualise careers and the retention of employees in the hospitality industry.
- **Research aim 2:** To conceptualise the three constructs of fit, flourishing and organisational commitment and explain them by means of theoretical models in the literature.
- **Research aim 3:** To identify whether a theoretical relationship exists between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment and to explain this relationship.
  - **Sub-aim 3.1:** To conceptualise the theoretical relationship between fit and flourishing.
  - **Sub-aim 3.2:** To conceptualise the theoretical relationship between fit and organisational commitment.
  - **Sub-aim 3.3:** To conceptualise the theoretical relationship between flourishing and organisational commitment.
- **Research aim 4:** To conceptualise the influence of the demographic variables of age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate),



on the theoretical relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment.

- **Research aim 5:** To identify the theoretical implications for organisational retention practices in the hospitality industry.

### **Empirical study**

In terms of the empirical study, the specific aims are as follows:

- **Research aim 1:** To investigate the direction and magnitude of the statistical inter-correlations between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in a sample of participants permanently employed in the hospitality industry.
- **Research aim 2:** To empirically investigate whether the demographic variables (age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status) and the independent variables of fit and flourishing, positively and significantly predict organisational commitment.
- **Research aim 3:** To empirically investigate whether differences exist in the fit, flourishing and organisational commitment of employees in the hospitality industry in terms of the demographic variables of age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate), as revealed in the sample of respondents.
- **Research aim 4:** To formulate conclusions and recommendations for the development of retention strategies for employees in the hospitality industry, as well as for possible future research in the field of Human Resource Management.

### **1.3.3 Hypotheses**

This research study ventured to substantiate the following:

- **H<sub>1</sub>:** There is a statistically significant positive relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment.
- **H<sub>2</sub>:** The demographic variables (age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status), and the independent variables of fit and flourishing, positively and significantly predict organisational commitment.
- **H<sub>3</sub>:** Differences exist between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in terms of the demographic variables of age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate).

### **1.4 POTENTIAL VALUE ADDED**

This study is projected to add to the knowledge base by proposing a talent retention framework based on the relationship found between fit and flourishing (independent variables) and organisational commitment (dependent variable) in the international

hospitality industry in the Indian Ocean region. This study may be useful as a result of the relationships found between the concepts and may serve as a useful source of information for industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners in determining the psychological aspects that play a role in increasing organisational commitment and enhancing the retention of valuable and talented employees. This study aims to assist human resource practitioners in the hospitality industry and in other organisations to retain valuable and talented employees by proposing interventions to enhance fit, flourishing and employee commitment.

The findings may also be useful to future researchers interested in studying these variables. The research results found will contribute to the body of knowledge concerned with the psychological factors that could influence organisational commitment and retention.

The study may also highlight whether employees of different ages, genders, nationalities, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate) differ in terms of their fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in the company. By identifying differences in terms of demographic information that addresses the needs of a diverse group of employees in an international hospitality group, the results may be valuable in retaining employees. The additional outcome of the study would be to provide human resource management with knowledge related to the factors influencing the retention of the current employees (local or expatriate) and could be beneficial for implementing new or specific retention strategies for different groups of employees.

Positive outcomes from the research may be that the international hospitality industry would be aware of the role that fit, flourishing and organisational commitment plays in the retention of local and expatriate employees in the Indian Ocean and reduce the workforce challenges that include high employee turnover which is regarded as a complex and ongoing issue for study (Alatawi, 2017).

#### **1.4.1 The research model**

Mouton's (2011) model, which consists of five dimensions, formed the framework for this social science research. Mouton (2011) describes the dimensions as sociological, ontological, teleological, epistemological and methodological. According to Mouton (2011), social science research, in which social reality is studied objectively, is conducted with the purpose of gaining a valid understanding of human activity. Clarke (2005) states that social scientists recognise that concepts contained in models are frequently based on opinions, values, rules, cultures and traditions that cannot be accurately fragmented.

#### **1.4.2 Field of study**

This research study was directed at the field of Human Resource Management, which is referred to by Rogers (2012) as the process of generating, evaluating and implementing policies and practices with the aim of acquiring, developing and engaging employees who perform the organisation's duties. Coyle-Shapiro et al. (2013) and Ferreira et al. (2012) theoretically describe the field of Human Resource Management as an academic discipline studying the management of people. In addition, Connor et al. (2013) and Rogers (2012) define Human Resource Management as the process of developing, implementing and evaluating policies, procedures and practices with the purpose of obtaining and engaging employees to perform the work of the company.

Cawle and Snyder (2015) are of the view that over the past century, human resources have shifted and business leaders now recognise the role and purpose of human resources far more than they did 120 years ago, owing to changes in organisations and the economy. Alfes et al. (2013) and Kreitner and Cassidy (2011) state that Human Resource Management places the focus on employees as a valuable resource that requires continuous development. Furthermore, a company can maintain a competitive advantage by utilising its human resources efficiently and exploiting its employees' skills and knowledge to meet organisational objectives (Marler & Fisher, 2013; Price, 2011).

#### **1.4.3 Theoretical models**

Three theoretical instruments have been used in this research to collect data chosen based on suitability, validity, reliability and cost-effectiveness. These three scales, namely the Work Role Fit Scale (WRFS) developed by May et al. (2004), the Flourishing-at-Work Scale (FAWS) by Rautenbach (2015) and the Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS) developed by Meyer and Allen (1997), were applied. The underlying strengths of these tested models are their applicability for collecting empirical data which allows for testing the hypothesis for truth or non-truth.

#### **1.4.4 Conceptual descriptions**

Through concepts researchers make sense of reality, using them to make logical meaning of the world and to perceive consistency and order (Clarke, 2005; Jensen, 2014). The following descriptions of the concepts in the research study will provide clarification and explanation:

***Fit*** refers to match the employee experiences between their work-role and self-concept (May et al., 2004; Olivier & Rothmann, 2007; Schreuder & Theron, 2004). May et al. (2004) state that an extraordinary level of work–role fit results in an inflated experience of emotional importance in the workplace, as employees could demonstrate their values and beliefs in their work (Shamir, 1991; Van Zyl et al., 2010).

**Flourishing** as a concept was defined and used for the first time in the modern world to refer to extraordinary levels of wellbeing. Flourishing requires the combination of high levels of social wellbeing, psychological wellbeing and emotional wellbeing (Keyes, 2002). Diener et al. (2010) define flourishing as high levels of subjective wellbeing and indicate that flourishing refers to an individual's experience of high levels of personal wellbeing, pleasant emotions, little pain, engagement in interesting activities and an overall satisfaction with their lives.

The construct of **organisational commitment** is arguably dominated by researchers Meyer and Allen (1997) and is described as a psychological condition that connects the individual to the organisation. This is practised by the employee as three instantaneous mind-sets or bases, incorporating affective normative and continuance organisational commitment (Meyer et al., 2002). Jaros (2007) indicates that affective commitment (AC) refers to the employee's affection for the workplace, normative commitment (NC) refers to their feeling of obligation to stay and continuance commitment (CC) refers to the employee's fear of what they may lose if they leave the organisation. Meyer et al. (2006) define organisational commitment as the employee's desire to remain as a member of an company and consists of two elements, namely affective (feelings) and cognitive (behaviour), which encompass the employee's aspiration to exert themselves more than is expected, as well as their belief in the values and goals of the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 2004).

**Retention** is defined by Kibui et al. (2014) and Mary and Kyongo (2013) as a process whereby employees are encouraged by the employer to remain with the company for a maximum period of time, utilising initiatives to prevent them from leaving. Retention is a deliberate series of actions by an organisation aimed at retaining employees for the long term (Cascio, 2003; Chiboiwa et al., 2010; Delobbe & Vandenberghe, 2000; Samuel & Chipunza, 2009; Sandhya & Kumar, 2014; Spector, 2008; Walker et al., 2016). Van Rooyen et al. (2010) state that retention can be described as the efforts to retain employees who have a positive performance evaluation and who leave a company by way of a voluntary resignation. Liang (2013) supports Döckel (2003) in defining employee retention as a practice where employers retain talented employees with the objective of achieving the company's business goals and objectives.

Umamaheswari and Krishnan (2015) define retention factors as practices of management which encourage employees to remain in the company. Management can make use of various retention factors which influence employees' commitment and decision to remain with an organisation (Burton et al., 2010; D'Amato & Herzfeldt, 2008; Döckel et al., 2006; Ferreira, 2012; Straz, 2014; Van Dyk & Coetzee, 2012). The most important retention factors

are compensation, training, development and career opportunities, job characteristics, support from a supervisor, a work–life balance and commitment (Döckel, 2003).

Table 1.1 provides a summary of the core constructs of fit, flourishing and organisational commitment, the underpinning models, as well as the measuring instruments applied in this study.

**Table 1.1**

*Summary of the Core Constructs, Theoretical Models and Measuring Instruments Relevant to the Study*

<b>Construct</b>	<b>Core description</b>	<b>Underpinning theoretical model/theory</b>	<b>Measuring instrument</b>	<b>Relevance to retention strategies</b>
<b>Fit</b>	Fit is defined as an inflated experience of emotional importance in the workplace (Shamir, 1991; Van Zyl et al., 2010).	The concept of fit to an organisation is defined as the match between the qualities of the employee and the organisation (Gregory et al., 2010, in addition Holtom & Inderrieden, 2006).	The Work Role Fit Scale (WRFS) developed by May et al. (2004)	Janse van Rensburg et al. (2017) confirm that the study of employees' fit is critical for the purpose of optimising retention.
<b>Flourishing</b>	Schutte et al. (2009)	Diener et al. (2010) define flourishing as high levels of subjective wellbeing (personal wellbeing, pleasant emotions, very little pain, engagement in interesting activities and an overall satisfaction with their lives).	The Flourishing-at-Work Scale (FAWS) by Rautenbach (2015)	Diedericks and Rothmann (2014) found that flourishing individuals display higher levels of organisational commitment and decreased turnover intention in comparison to employees who are not flourishing.
<b>Organisational commitment</b>	Meyer and Allen (1997) describe organisational commitment as a psychological condition connecting the individual to the organisation. Meyer et al. (2006) define organisational commitment as the employee's desire to remain as a member of a company.	Three instantaneous mind-sets: affective normative and continuance organisational commitment (Meyer et al., 2002).	The Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS) developed by Meyer and Allen (1997)	Once a correlation exists between the organisation's goals, norms and values and the employee's personal goals, the employee experiences commitment to continue their employment with the organisation (Su et al., 2015; Van Vianen et al., 2013).

Source: Own compilation

#### **1.4.5 Market of intellectual resources**

The market of intellectual resources is defined as a collection of beliefs that has a direct impact on the cognitive conditions of a scientific statement (Mouton, 2011). Menell (2011) in addition describes the market of intellectual resources as the inability of a competitive market to support a capable level of creativity.

Marais (2012) indicates that intellectual resources for all research should comply with epistemic criteria in order to qualify as scientific research and should reflect the following components: specify concepts in terms of empirical referents, the usage of testable hypotheses and communicate the findings of subject research for peer review. The researcher's conceptions are supplemented by previous research practices, selected research methodology and textbooks, as well as methodology to identify the primary criteria of scientific research (Alasuutari et al., 2008; Blumberg et al., 2011; Marais et al., 2011). The conceptual descriptions of fit, flourishing and organisational commitment are presented in this study, together with the theoretical and methodological statements and assumptions.

#### **1.4.6 Meta-theoretical statements**

This study focuses on the discipline of Human Resource Management as a field of application. According to Mouton (2011), the researcher is destined to make meta-theoretical assumptions at different stages of the scientific research process. Meta-theoretical assumptions would include the following: paradigms and models in the content of the study and assumptions on various theories.

These assumptions have not been tested in the different stages of the scientific research process to justify the definite theories. Turner and Durham (2014) describe meta-theory as a comprehensive non-ordinary theory that is considered as an essential prerequisite for building and compiling the theory of the research. Turner and Durham (2014) refer to meta-theoretical assumptions as the re-analysis of previous researchers' work and ideas, analysing the existing theories and making them more formal and precise.

#### **1.4.7 The empirical study**

Empirical research is obtainable from the post-positivist paradigm instead of the positivist paradigm. The positivist paradigm reflects full understanding which is based on observing and experimenting by means of direct measurement of the phenomena through which knowledge and concepts are experienced and introduced by means of rational deduction (Gray et al., 2013; Ryan, 2006). Empirical research implies that only when a researcher assumes entire detachment will the inquiry be completely objective and bias-free (Gray et al., 2013).

People live their lives in the perspective of a worldview, which influences the manner in which they behave, think and structure their lives, as well as the manner in which they approach research (Ryan, 2006). Considering that people do not recognise that their beliefs are related to a worldview, it is important for researchers to review and analyse these worldviews (Aliyu et al., 2014; Ryan, 2006). It is therefore concluded that it is almost impossible to be entirely objective when research is conducted.

A post-positivist scientific approach suggests that the researcher is, to a certain extent, involved in the research and not entirely detached from the research. This approach also suggests that the researcher's personal views and actions are accepted as a human inquiry characteristic (Hall et al., 2013).

According to Adam (2014) and Ryan (2006) post-positivist research can be characterised as follows:

- broad rather than specialised research
- unseparated theory from the practice
- may have various different features that qualify as research
- not ignoring theory for the sake of just listing the facts
- the motivation of the researcher and their commitment to research are critical and vital to the business (Schatz & Walker, 1995)
- research is not exclusively concerned with applying the correct techniques to collect and organise information (Robson & McCartan, 2016; Schratz & Walker, 1995).

In view of the above descriptions and paradigms, it was concluded that the post-positivist framework was the most applicable research for this study as it incorporated the considerations.

#### **1.4.8 Theoretical assumptions**

Based on the literature review, the following theoretical assumptions are made in this study:

- the need for additional research that seeks to isolate fit, flourishing and organisational commitment
- demographic factors such as age, nationality, gender, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate), fit and flourishing will have an influence on an employee's organisational commitment
- the three constructs of fit, flourishing and organisational commitment are multidimensional and can be influenced by external factors such as age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate).

#### **1.4.9 Methodological assumptions**

Methodological assumptions are described as the expectations and preferences of what good research consists of. Methodological assumptions are also regarded as beliefs concerned with the nature of scientific and social science. According to Pickard (2013), methodological assumptions are research paradigms that address the philosophical dimensions of social sciences, while Mouton (2011) in turn argues that a direct link exists between methodological beliefs and the epistemic status of the research findings.

The following methodological assumptions are epistemological assumptions that affect the nature and structure of the current research study:

##### **Sociological dimension**

Lor (2011) describes sociological dimensions as the “where, who and what” of the research, which entail the sources of the researcher, who is conducting the research and the context in which the research is conducted. The term “sociological” is used very widely to incorporate social, economic, cultural, political and semantic factors. In addition, the researcher’s origin, background, interests, work environments, contacts and academic environment, also described as the sociological dimensions of the researcher, influence the choice of the researcher’s topic as well as the way the research is conducted (Lor, 2011).

The sociological dimension clarifies scientific research as a combined or collaborative activity (Mouton, 2011). The research will contribute to the area of this study using the research community.

##### **Ontological dimension**

The ontological dimension postulates that research is always directed at a facet or facets of social reality in the social sciences (Mouton, 2011; Pring, 2004). Neuman (2011) views ontology in terms of social research as how reality is perceived. In turn, Creswell (2013) describes that the ontological dimension relates to the study, where human activities and institutional behaviour can be measured, and the ontological assumption describes reality as being objective and separate from the researcher.

This study will measure the properties of the constructs of fit, flourishing and organisational commitment and will be based on the quantitative method, in compliance with the ontological assumption.



## **Teleological dimension**

Mouton and Marais (1996) state that the teleological dimension views research as a human activity, with the aim of understanding phenomena, whether intentional or goal-directed. Pickard (2013) describes the dimension as the achievement made through the research and Lor (2011) adds that the teleological assumption refers to the purpose and goals the researcher sets for their research. The teleological dimension proposes that research should be methodical and goal directed. This study investigated a problem that is interrelated with the research goals; that is, to measure the relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment. In addition recommendations related to retention strategies will be added to the Human Resource Management field using the teleological dimension.

The teleological dimension further views research as a human activity which should be intentional, systematic and goal-directed, with the main aim of understanding the research problem. Throughout the research report, the relationship between the research problems was investigated and the research goals explained. The research goal of this research study was to measure the relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in the hospitality industry. The teleological dimension furthermore makes contributions to the field of Human Resource Management, making recommendations relating to employee retention.

## **Epistemological dimension**

Smiraglia (2013) refer to epistemology as the study of knowledge and a division of the philosophy of investigating the origin and the nature of knowledge, and encompasses what we can determine and observe. Smiraglia (2013) states that epistemology informs researchers where knowledge originated from. In addition, this dimension can be regarded as the personification of the ideal of science (Hofer & Bendixen, 2012; Mouton, 2011). Wahyuni (2012) further defines epistemology as a belief in understanding and using acceptable and valid knowledge. The epistemological dimension seeks to ensure that the research is conducted in a valid and reliable manner and founded on reality. Therefore, the aim of the epistemological dimension was to provide a valid and reliable understanding of the reality and to endeavour to reach the truth through valid and reliable results and the application of a well-structured research design.

## **Methodological dimension**

Levačić and Glatter (2003) describe the methodological dimension as the criteria by which evidence is collected. This dimension supports the propositions and is normative if agreed

rules are applied when assessing the evidence and describing the validity and reliability of the study (Levačić & Glatter, 2003).

The types of processes followed in research studies used to achieve a specific outcome are referred to as the methodological dimension, using the following classification of methodologies, namely quantitative and/or qualitative. Methodological dimensions incorporate the types of processes to be followed with the aim of achieving particular research outcomes (Mouton, 2011).

This study will present quantitative and exploratory research in the form of a literature review of fit, flourishing and organisational commitment, including quantitative research in the empirical study.

## **1.5 RESEARCH DESIGN**

A research design is best described by Welman et al. (2007) as a plan to acquire the most suitable data for investigating research questions, and can be categorised as quantitative or qualitative research. In addition, Marais (2012) explains that the research design encompasses the numerical indicators of concepts, a formalised methodology, cross-referencing, clarification and the recording of statistics.

The research design supports the researcher's aim of completing the process with the highest validity, objectivity and accuracy (Salkind, 2018). A research design describes the types of research conducted and thereafter follows with a discussion of validity and reliability. The design starts with the description of the purpose of the research, then lists the research questions and the aims of the study that will be assessed (Saunders et al., 2019; Yin 2012).

Terre Blanche et al. (2006) also refer to a research design as the strategic framework of the research and list four dimensions of the development of the research design as: (1) the purpose of the research; (2) the theoretical paradigm informing the research study; (3) the context of the research; and (4) the research techniques.

The research design for this study took the format of a quantitative non-experimental research design. Data was collected by means of a survey method, which allowed easy access to the data to be collected and analysed in the most economical and shortest period possible. The use of survey methods allowed for generalisation and the researcher was able to collect information from a reasonably large number of participants in an international hotel group in the Indian Ocean regions. Nouri and Kyj (2008) propose that questionnaires are an efficient mechanism for collecting data. This data collection method was further appropriate as the sample was scattered across the region.

The survey method for the purpose of this study included an electronic questionnaire booklet. The questionnaire booklet consisted of a number of questionnaires which included a demographic questionnaire, which was used to collect demographic data (age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate). Fit was measured using the Work Role Fit Scale (WRFS) (May et al., 2004), flourishing was measured using the Flourishing-at-Work Scale (FAWS) (Rautenbach, 2015) and organisational commitment was measured by means of the Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS) (Meyer & Allen, 1997). After receiving the completed questionnaires via the LimeSurvey platform, the data was captured onto an Excel sheet and tested for reliability using the Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient and thereafter analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS).

Correlational analysis and inferential statistics were conducted in order to achieve the research objectives. When developing the research design, Terre Blanche et al. (2006) recommend that the researcher should consider whether the aims of the study are descriptive, exploratory or explanatory, as this will determine the type of research conducted.

#### **1.5.1 Descriptive research**

Clow and James (2014) explain that descriptive research is the most frequently used research type and defines the who, what, when, where and how questions of the research study. Descriptive studies mostly use numbers, allowing for the examination of statistical and mathematical relationships; however, the danger is that this type of research findings may not be useful for proving connections, providing a description of the relationships only.

Descriptive research has been applied in the literature review for this topic, which includes literature on the fit, flourishing and organisational commitment of employees in the hospitality industry. In the empirical study, descriptive research was utilised by determining the standard deviations and Cronbach's alphas of the data collection instruments in relation to the constructs of fit, flourishing and organisational commitment for staff in the hospitality industry.

#### **1.5.2 Exploratory research**

An exploratory research design describes how the researcher plans to collect the data and where the information will be found (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). Once limited information concerning the research topic area exists, exploratory research occurs and the researcher will discover more about the subject by gathering basic data (Grinnell & Unrau, 2011). Exploratory research occurs when the researcher asks complex and specific research questions based on prevailing comprehensive knowledge of the research topic (Grinnell & Unrau, 2005). Mouton (2011) states that the aims of exploratory research are to establish

primary concepts, identify new visions, undertake the initial investigation, determine constructs and establish priorities for future research. In a social science study, the process of collecting data in the workplace is described as the generalisation of the psychological experiences of employees. This research is used as the first stage of a comprehensive research study to examine the relationship between the variables and test the hypotheses, examine and define the problem statement and identify the parameters for further studies. The goals of the exploratory research are to assist researchers who face unclear problems, to understand the situation, to provide solutions to the problem and to develop future research projects (Given, 2008).

This research study is described as exploratory considering that it compares various theoretical perspectives on fit, flourishing and organisational commitment.

### **1.5.3 Explanatory research**

This type of study provides explanations of the phenomena. It is designed as an open and flexible investigation and adopts an inductive approach. An explanatory study is designed to identify interconnections and focuses on the design and elimination of the hypotheses. This study also indicates details on how researchers collect data (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). In addition, Mouton and Marais (1996) explain that explanatory research encompasses the existence of a relationship between the variables and refers to a relationship model indicating the direction of the relationship. Exploratory research furthermore explains and provides information useful for developing the hypotheses. Traditionally, exploratory research refers to a quantitative study testing the hypotheses, measuring the relationships between the variables and analysing the data by means of statistical techniques.

Explanatory research was applied in this empirical study to determine the relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in an international hotel group. A conclusion on the relationship was formulated between the constructs of fit, flourishing and organisational commitment.

### **1.5.4 Research variables**

In attempting to determine a relationship between the independent variables (fit and flourishing) and the dependent variable (organisational commitment), data was gathered by means of the measuring instruments. A dependent variable is described as the main factor required to be explained or projected and is affected by other factors. An independent variable is the alleged cause of certain changes in the dependent variable (Robbins & Judge, 2013).

In this study, the data on fit records was measured using the WRFS (May et al., 2004), flourishing data by means of the FAWS (Rautenbach, 2015), the independent variables and the data on organisational commitment, the dependant variable, were measured by means of the OCS (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

This research was interested in

- measuring the relationship between fit (independent variable) and organisational commitment (dependant variable)
- measuring the relationship between flourishing (independent variable) and organisational commitment (independent variable)
- measuring the relationship between fit and flourishing (independent variables) and organisational commitment (dependant variable)
- determining whether age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate) differ in terms of fit, flourishing and organisational commitment.

#### **1.5.5 Methods used to ensure validity and reliability**

##### **Validity**

Roberts (2010) defines validity as the extent to which the instrument accurately measures what it is intended to measure. In turn, Saunders et al. (2019) state that validity is represented when scores on the particular instruments draw meaningful and useful conclusions from the research. Mills et al. (2010) refer to validity as the degree to which a theory is essentially represented by the indicators of a particular concept and how accurately a method measured what it was intended to measure and how accurate a method measured what it was intended to measure.

Once the research instruments achieve the purpose they were designed for and measure what they were supposed to measure, validity is achieved. When the research instrument accurately measures the complete realm related to the constructs or variables and the relationship between the independent and the dependent variables effectively and with certainty, the research design is described as being valid (Heale & Twycross, 2015).

##### **Validity in terms of the literature review**

Frey (2018) indicates that research is a critical part of today's reality and ensures the progress and development of individuals, economies and societies. Therefore, it is critical to implement high quality research in all the research stages. Frey (2018) highlights that the most critical part of the research is validity. The constructs and concepts found relating to fit,

flourishing and organisational commitment was structured in an organised, logical and systematic manner. Wherever possible the most current literature was applied.

### **Validity in terms of the empirical study**

The measuring instruments should measure what they are intended to measure (criterion-related validity), cover the range of values within the concept (content validity) as well as measure the degree of the theoretical construct against what is expected to be measured. In quantitative research, the term “validity” is used discussing measurement. The concept of validity is concerned with how well the researcher succeeds in measuring the concepts investigated, focusing on quantitative methodologies (De Vos et al., 2011).

There are two types of validity, namely internal and external validity. McLeod (2017) defines internal validity as the manner in which the experimental design is structured and external validity as the process of examining the results and questioning whether there is a possible relationship.

Standardised measuring instruments were used in this study to ensure the validity of the empirical study.

The researcher ensured internal validity in the following ways:

- using literature from reliable sources that are relevant to the topic discussed
- applying theories applicable to the topic at hand, and
- utilising standardised measuring tools.

External validity was ensured by selecting a specific sample that was representative of the population.

### **Reliability**

Reliability refers to the measuring instruments being reliable, used consistently and accurately, providing the same result for each repetitive test (Bless et al., 2007). In turn, Foxcroft and Roodt (2005) indicate that measures are considered to be reliable if they provide the same result repeatedly, considering what is measured remains unchanged. Roos (2016) states that reliability relates to the consistency of the selected instrument, while Frey (2018) describes the reliability of the measurements researchers use as critical and refers to reliability as the consistency of measures, the stability of research results and the foundation of conducting the research. Frey (2018) also refers to reliability as the degree of the assessment of the research when the results and conclusions made from a study reproduce the same results and the research is consistent and stable over time. Mills et al.

(2010) indicate that the aim of reliability is to reduce preconception, to eliminate the error of data collection and analysis, as well as to ensure that if the research is conducted again the same results and conclusions will be reached. When the scores of the items in the instruments are consistent over a period of time, consistent in test administration and transparency, then the reliability of the research is achieved (Saunders et al., 2019). The Cronbach's alpha measure of internal consistency, the most widely used method, was utilised to measure reliability in this research study. Internal consistency was determined by the average intercorrelation of items and the number of items in the scale. Developed by Lee Cronbach in 1951, alpha provides the measurement of the internal consistency of a scale articulated in a number between 0 and 1 (Kimberlin & Winterstein, 2008). For the purpose of this research study, a Cronbach's alpha of above .50 was considered acceptable (Goforth, 2015).

Literature review reliability was warranted through the availability of and access to the literature sources and the theoretical views to the researcher. The research context was evaluated at all times and reliability was ensured by means of effective planning of the research. To keep data as current as possible some internet sources were exploited and, to confirm reliability, the data was endorsed prior to being used as well as compared to data using the same concepts. All instruments in the study were selected based on their reliability which has been tested in previous research studies. In addition, the reliability of this empirical study was assured by selecting a representative sample of the population.

#### **1.5.6 Unit of analysis**

Saunders et al. (2019) describe data analysis as the ability to analyse information, clarify the nature of components and determine the relationships between concepts involving the person or individuals from whom the researcher collects the data. Check and Schutt (2012) state that the unit of analysis for the research includes the items that you are studying. In turn, the researchers Mouton and Marais (1996) describe the units of analysis in terms of the following four categories: (1) individuals, (2) groups, (3) organisations and (4) social artefacts. In this research study, the unit of analysis used was the "individual" employee. The purpose was to determine the possibility of a relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment of the individual employee employed in the hospitality industry in the Indian Ocean region. The focus of the individual analysis was on the characteristics, traits, orientation and behaviour of the individual (Du Buisson-Narsai, 2018).

#### **1.5.7 Delimitations**

In the inception stage of a research study, the decision of sampling elicited and involved three aspects: what the researcher wanted to do, what the researcher was able to do (relating to time and resources) and what the researcher was allowed to do. These decisions

were formed by the limits imposed on the survey research study, also known as the delimitations of a study. After identifying the population, a selected sample is drawn followed by a series of decisions which affect the original choice of the sample (Andres, 2012).

This study was limited to the research related to the relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment. If the study can substantiate that a relationship exists, the findings would be valuable to other researchers in addressing interrelated variables with regard to these three constructs, as well show the results of unanticipated challenges that emerged during the study. The delimitations in the study presented an opportunity to review the chosen objectives, the research questions, the paradigm, the theoretical framework and the selection of the sample, as well as providing suggestions for further or future research.

### **1.5.8 Ethical considerations**

Welman et al. (2007) state that the ethical rights of participants refer to the rights participants have to privacy, confidentiality, secrecy and voluntary participation. Welman et al. (2007) suggest that ethical considerations also entail keeping the company's information and identity private and anonymous. All information obtained from the respondents and the company was used solely for the purpose of fulfilling the research study requirements.

Ethical considerations are critical in the research process and the term involves inclinations that influence human behaviour complying with a code of principles within a set of rules, which needs to adhere to professional obligations and comply with legal and social regulations, and defines the responsibilities of the researchers (Babbie, 2010; Bless et al., 2007; De Vos et al., 2011; Monette et al., 2005; Walliman, 2006). Saunders et al. (2019) describe research ethics as the appropriateness of the behaviour of the researcher relating to the rights of the respondents or the rights of the parties affected by the research project.

The following procedures were required to ensure that the research study adhered to all the ethical requirements:

- Conducting research within recognised parameters.
- Obtaining approval from the academic institution and company where data will be collected.
- Utilising classical and recent resources when analysing and describing concepts.
- Complying with ethical guidelines provided by the academic institution/consulting experts in the field of research to ensure a scientific research process.
- Explicitly referencing and quoting all sources and practising low/non-plagiarism which was checked by Turnitin.



- Participation in the study being entirely voluntary and respondents providing their consent before participating.
- Participation remaining anonymous, as no respondents' names were mentioned in the study.
- The researcher undertaking to remain objective and honest and maintaining a high level of integrity.
- No financial incentives being used to encourage participation.
- Providing the results of the research to stakeholders, company and participants.
- Feedback and information provided by the participants being treated with complete confidentiality and their identity remaining anonymous.
- Recording the process and findings in a thesis format, providing opportunities to obtain accurate and honest information.
- Ensuing that no misleading reporting or falsification of data or findings took place.

For this research study, the researcher firstly requested approval for ethical clearance from the University of South Africa (UNISA) before the research was conducted. Permission was requested for conducting the research and for having access to the sample group's email addresses from the management of the hotel group by means of written correspondence. In the covering letter, the employees of the hospitality group were assured of their confidentiality and anonymity. Voluntary participation and consent was requested from each participant before taking part in the study.

## **1.6 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

This research was conducted in the following three phases: (1) literature review, (2) empirical study and (3) integration of the literature review and empirical study phases. The three phases are divided into steps and explained as follows:

### **Phase 1: Literature review**

According to Machi and McEvoy (2016) and Sekaran and Bougie (2013), a literature review is defined as a review in which published and unpublished work from secondary data sources in areas of particular interest to the researcher are examined. It discusses the importance of the subject being researched, as well as the type of theory used in the research, and the background and history of the research study (Machi & McEvoy, 2016; Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). There are three steps in the literature review process, which include identifying and accessing the various materials, gathering the relevant information and writing up the literature review (Machi & McEvoy, 2016; Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). The

literature review may be based on various sources, the most commonly used being books, reports, monographs, theses, conference proceedings, working papers and research articles in journals (Machi & McEvoy, 2016; Sekaran & Bougie, 2013).

The researcher has reviewed the relevant literature on fit, flourishing and organisational commitment, which were examined by collecting and analysing previous research studies and related academic literature. The literature review has provided theoretical background to this topic and has helped to conceptualise the three constructs of fit, flourishing and organisational commitment.

The literature review included the following steps:

- The context of the study, namely retention and the new world of work, was conceptualised from a theoretical perspective.
- Fit was conceptualised from a theoretical perspective.
- Flourishing was conceptualised from a theoretical perspective.
- Organisational commitment were conceptualised from a theoretical perspective.

The variables were integrated and the theoretical relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment was conceptualised.

## **Phase 2: Empirical study**

This research comprised a descriptive, cross-sectional and quantitative survey which gathered data concerning fit, flourishing and organisational commitment. Correlational statistics were used to measure the relationship between the three variables. The survey included cross-sectional and longitudinal research using a questionnaire for collecting the data with the purpose of generalising from the selected sample to the population (Creswell, 2013).

Mouton (2001) states that quantitative survey research comprises of seven steps. The research aims provides a wide overview of a representative sample of a large population. Surveys often lead to criticism of “surface level” analyses as a quantitative tool. This is very often criticised as having a shortage of depth and an exclusive perspective. On the other hand, the possibilities of exposing trends and patterns through powerful statistical analyses have specific advantages (Griesel & Parker, 2009; Mouton, 2001).

To achieve the empirical aims, the following seven steps described by Mouton (2001) were completed:

### **Step 1: Determination and description of the sample**

The determination and description of the population and sample are discussed in Chapter 4.

### **Step 2: Choice and motivation of the measuring instruments**

The instruments that measure the dependent variable (organisational commitment) and the two independent variables (fit and flourishing) are discussed in Chapter 4.

### **Step 3: Administration of the measuring instruments**

This step involved the collection of data from the sample and is discussed in more detail in Chapter 4.

### **Step 4: Scoring of the measuring instruments**

The responses to all the completed questionnaires were captured in an electronic Excel spreadsheet and the data was analysed using SPSS.

### **Step 5: Formulation of research hypotheses**

A hypothesis is presented as the intangible statement of the affiliation between two or more variables (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). The research hypotheses in this research study were formulated with the purpose of achieving the objectives of the study, in particular the investigation of the relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment.

- **H<sub>1</sub>:** There is a statistically significant positive relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment.
- **H<sub>2</sub>:** The demographic variables (age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status), and the independent variables of fit and flourishing, positively and significantly predict organisational commitment.
- **H<sub>3</sub>:** Differences exist between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in terms of the demographic variables of age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate).

### **Step 6: Statistical processing of data**

The statistical procedures relevant to this research include descriptive statistical analysis (internal consistency reliability, means, standard deviations, kurtosis, skewness and frequency data), correlational analysis (Spearman coefficients) and inferential statistics (multiple regression and test for significant mean differences). Statistical processing is accomplished in Chapter 5.

## **Step 7: Reporting and interpreting the results**

The results of this empirical study are presented in tables, graphs and diagrams and the findings are discussed and presented in a clear, methodical and organised manner, as discussed further in Chapter 5.

## **Phase 3: Integration and conclusions**

### **Step 1: Integration of the research findings**

The findings of the empirical study are incorporated with the findings of the literature review and the overall findings of the research are delivered. This is discussed in Chapter 5.

### **Step 2: Formulation of conclusions, limitations and recommendations**

The limitations of this research study are discussed, conclusions are drawn based on the integration of the findings and recommendations are prepared in terms of fit, flourishing and organisational commitment as constructs supporting employee retention in the hospitality industry. This will be discussed in detail in Chapter 6.

## **1.7 CHAPTER DIVISION**

The following chapters are constructed:

Chapter 1: Scientific overview of the research

Chapter 2: Careers and retention in the hospitality industry

Chapter 3: Fit, flourishing and organisational commitment

Chapter 4: Research methodology

Chapter 5: Research results

Chapter 6: Conclusions, limitations and recommendations

## **1.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

In this chapter the researcher discussed the background, the problem statements, the objectives of the study, the research design and methodology and the paradigm perspectives. The purpose of this study was to investigate whether a relationship exists between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in relation to the retention of employees. Chapter 2 addresses the first research aim of the literature review, namely, to conceptualise careers and the retention of employees in the hospitality industry. The chapter includes a critical evaluation of the nature of hospitality careers, retention rates and challenges and trends in the hospitality industry, as well as comparing the traditional with the contemporary hospitality workplace.

## **CHAPTER 2: CAREERS AND RETENTION IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY**

This chapter provides an overview of careers and talent retention in the hospitality industry.

### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

Internationally, it is projected that the income revenue from the hospitality and tourism industry will increase by 36.3% by the year 2021 (Peric et al., 2011), indicating that the industry's economy is growing significantly. Vasquez (2014) indicates that a company that creates career opportunities for its employees and recognises the need for retaining employees contributes favourably to the overall economy. Employee retention strategies benefit the hospitality industry, increasing the organisation's performance and competitiveness and strengthening the economy (Olson, 2010). Companies are required to transform as a result of the pressure generated by globalisation, which has created new competitive markets shares (Blickle & Witzki, 2008).

The concerning amount of turnover in the hospitality industry poses a difficult challenge for hotel leaders, hospitality business owners and companies, creating a feeling of powerlessness (Kiruthiga & Magesh, 2015; Sagaraju, 2018). Effective employee retention strategies therefore play a critical role in the hospitality industry.

In the 21st-century world of work, employers and employees face several challenges which are likely to have an impact on retention strategies. It is imperative to research and apprehend the nature of careers in the contemporary world of work owing to the changes in careers resulting from the ongoing changes in organisations today (Enache et al., 2013; Oxenbridge & Evesson, 2012).

### **2.2 CAREERS**

The labour market is a key driver of changes in a career system (Baruch, 2003). Okurame and Fabunmi (2014) as well as Rousseau (1995) state that the traditional linear career has transformed into a multidimensional career system where organisations serve employees. Traditionally, a person's career development was solely their own responsibility (Osibanjo et al., 2014), however today, career choices are greater and more flexible, for example working from home and having unlimited access to information.

Highly skilled employees find new jobs without difficulty and in the 21st century companies focus more on employee development, management and leadership styles (Bersin, 2017). Rodrigues et al. (2013) state that the foundations of a traditional career are salary, growth and promotion, making a shift in the control of a career from the organisation to the

individual (Rodrigues et al., 2015). In addition, the contemporary workplace expect from employees to manage their own careers (Cannon & Shay, 2018; Zafar & Norazuwa, 2012). Careers in the 21st century allow employees to develop their own career plans (Okurame & Fabunmi, 2014; Robbins et al., 2009). With the support and encouragement of the company, employees can manage and assume responsibility of their own careers which are driven by their own values and needs (Sultana & Malik, 2019).

### **2.2.1 Defining a career**

Multiple definitions for a career are recorded and various researchers have described what a career is. Earlier, a career was defined as the development of an employee through his experiences, continuous change, and valuable development opportunities in various jobs in one or several companies (Baruch, 2004; Briscoe et al., 2012; Sullivan, 1999). Conventionally, a career was defined as the clear pathway a career followed in the same company over a long period of time (Savickas; 2012). More recently, McKay (2018) has defined career as an employee's progression through a range of jobs over their lifetime, including their work experience and education. Career therefore refers to what a person does to earn a living (McKay, 2018).

Bersin (2017) describes careers as the required experience and skills the employee has. Organisations create more productive employees by allocating a substantial quantity of resources for developing certain skills by providing applicable training.

According to Bersin (2017), a traditional career consists of three main components:

- the expertise, profession, and identity of the employee
- something that is developed over time and is long-lasting
- something that provides psychological and financial rewards.

Cheng (2014) recently noted that in order for employees to succeed in new careers, they need to differentiate themselves from the competition, and also be differentiated from the competition. It is important to note that there is a difference between a job and a career. The differences between and characteristics of a job and a career are explained in Table 2.1 below:

**Table 2.1***Differences and Characteristics of a Job and a Career*

A job	A career
Something the employee does to earn money.	A series of employment opportunities which are connected.
Minimal impact on the employee's future work life.	Provides experience and learning to invigorate the employee's future.
A few networking opportunities are offered.	A career is encumbered with opportunities.
Doing only what is required or expected.	In a career, it is required to go the extra mile and perform beyond the minimum of the job description.

Source: Adapted from Binar Academy, 2018

In today's world of work, organisations assume that employees will only stay a few years in a specific job or in a single organisation. Millennials (those born between 1981 and 1996) regard development and learning opportunities as the biggest retention factor for remaining in a specific job or organisation. Research data reveals that 58% of companies accept the truth that their new employees will remain in the company for less than 10 years (Bersin, 2017). On average, new degree-holders have twice as many jobs in their first five years of entering the workplace compared to the 1980s (Bersin, 2017). Companies today offer careers where continuous development and learning are encouraged. A single, lifelong career is becoming obsolete and the practice of changing companies as well as changing jobs is common, and job-hopping has become the custom (Bersin, 2017). It would also however appear that it is not only job-hopping that is becoming a reality, but also moving between different careers.

In the 21st-century, a career does not follow a methodical hierarchical advancement. Alternatively, employees gain experience from multiple employers through a development process (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011). Talented employees today can select from a larger number of available high potential employers, which creates a challenge for organisations to retain these employees (Ariss et al., 2014; Ulrich, 1997). To attract and retain the right talent, employers are required to offer something more valuable to employees, for instance providing career development opportunities (Young, 2014)

### **2.2.2 Differentiation of careers in various locations**

In the new world of work, jobs involving physical labour are being replaced by the increasing rate of automation for example in the manufacturing industry. This is also referred to as industry 4.0. However, service jobs in the hospitality industry indicate a strong prospective growth rate over the next ten years (Walsh et al., 2011). Employment opportunities can be found in all other industries that require human capital similar to hospitality, for example the

healthcare industry which is recruiting hospitality managers to enhance their service divisions. In addition, a growing interest is emerging in the long-term care industry which is increasingly hiring employees from the hospitality industry. The retail industry, for example grocery stores, is also developing into a service industry similar to that of hospitality where growth in career opportunities is emerging (Walsh et al., 2011).

A worldwide survey conducted by Tiny (2015) with over 30 000 employees in more than 500 organisations determined the industries with the happiest employees. The results of this study indicated that the hospitality industry ranked sixth out of the top-ten happiest industries. Today, many hospitality organisations are making efforts to increase happiness and productivity in the workplace, as well as intensify training opportunities with the goal of increasing the retention of valuable employees (Tiny, 2015).

Globally, hospitality organisations focus on growth and are driven by performance, but particularly in the Middle East, where organisations are experiencing rapid economic development. Irrespective of the type of industry or location, the human capital development of employees, efficient leadership and retention are global concerns (Great Value Colleges, 2019; Martin, 2015).

Careers for talented employees in various industries are growing in many parts of the world. Notwithstanding the growth and potential, the hospitality industry is traditionally regarded as having one of the highest turnover rates worldwide, yet employment prospects in the hospitality industry are favourable. In the United States, it is estimated that the hospitality industry grew by 5% in 2018. In Asia, growth is also increasing, in particular in China and India, creating more multinational career opportunities. The hospitality industry and its related businesses have exceptional prospects and human capital growth and career opportunities exist for hospitality employees (Walsh et al, 2011).

### **2.2.3 Careers in the hospitality industry**

According to the United States Bureau of Labour Statistics, between 2004 and 2014 the hospitality industry grew by 17%. The hospitality sector employment rates are predicted to increase to almost 15.7 million by 2024. The industry is growing at an annual rate of 0.6% and has created an additional 2.2 million new jobs within a period of ten years (Bureau of Labour Statistics, 2016). At the end of 2017, 12.4 million people worked in the hospitality industry, comprising 8.6% of total employment worldwide (MSc in International Hospitality Management, 2018). In more recent years, the labour market in the leisure and hospitality sectors has grown, for example in the first quarter of 2018 it increased to 16 256 000 employees, a 3% increase over 2017.

Job openings have also increased and reached a high of 31% growth in December 2017



and an additional growth of 24% in January 2018 (HCareers, 2018). In view of this career growth, an international research study indicated that the service industry will require significant amounts of highly skilled labour to meet the increasing service expectations of guests (New Zealand Statistics Department, 2016).

In 2014, the hospitality industry grew with 842 new hotels in the Asia/Pacific region which attracted a substantial number of new employees (PWC, 2016). In 2016, the PwC Annual Global CEO Survey (2016) reported that sourcing and retaining skilled employees is a global concern and the labour shortage has doubled in percentage since 1996 globally. A survey by People1st (2017) indicated that the tourism and hospitality industry is the third biggest employer in the United Kingdom and would have a projected shortfall of 1.3 million employees by 2024. Then again, the New Zealand tourism industry anticipates needing 36 000 new employees by 2025, not taking turnover into account (Tourism Industry Association of New Zealand, 2015).

According to Tsaur and Tang (2013), the hospitality industry is predominantly a tourist-dependent industry, comprising various service-oriented businesses such as hotels, resorts, lodges, bed and breakfast establishments, casinos, entertainment and restaurants. The industry consists of a number of main sectors: food and beverage, tourism, accommodation (MSc in International Hospitality Management, 2018), cruise lines, ground transportation and airlines (Langford et al., 2019), making the industry diverse, massive and broad.

In addition, the hospitality industry is highly seasonal and the operational cycles of hotels result in employment of a mixture of nationalities and full-time and part-time employees to control labour costs (Allan et al., 2001; Lai & Baum, 2005). This situation would suit part-time workers, interns or students (Jogaratham & Buchanan, 2004; Lewis & Gruyere, 2010; Mulcahy, 1999; Zeytinoglu et al., 2004), but adds to the reputation the hospitality industry has of being a non-permanent workplace which does not provide long-term careers for hospitality employees (Brien, 2004).

The hospitality industry offers many opportunities to gain experience at various levels in different aspects of the industry and globally and the hospitality industry is estimated to employ one of every 15 workers. Career opportunities are not restricted to hotels and restaurants but are also available in subsidiary businesses, such as suppliers, consulting, construction firms and technology providers. Service jobs in the hospitality industry remain a viable option for people to earn a living (Walsh et al., 2011).

Employees can choose from a countless number of careers paths in the hospitality industry, ranging from dishwashers (stewards), concierges, porters, event planners, sommeliers, managers, administration, transport, laundry, public area cleaners, guides, chefs,

bartenders, safety officers, human resources, maintenance teams and many others (Cheng, 2014). There are, therefore, limitless job opportunities available for a career in the hospitality industry. Nevertheless, the industry is experiencing an extremely high turnover rate, the reasons for which are unclear.

Mujač č ević et al. (2011) indicate that more than 25% of employment worldwide is from the tourism and hospitality industry. In the United States alone, the hotel and restaurant industry comprises over 328 000 management, business and financial employees. It is therefore critical to realise that the hospitality industry is vast and fast-growing, and hospitality companies are constantly seeking top talented employees and ways to retain such valuable employees (Walsh et al., 2011).

The Indian Ocean, which covers a very large portion of the earth, consists of thousands of remote and isolated islands. In this part of the world, the hospitality and tourism industry contributes the largest portion to the region's economy, resulting in the creation of many jobs as well as international foreign investment (Baum, 2015; Conlin & Baum, 2003; Sharpley & Tefler, 2015). Careers in the Indian Ocean region provides diversity and exposure to various trades and diverse cultures and religions, as well as an opportunity to live in a favoured tourism environment with a warm climate and blue waters (Kearney, 2004).

In the Small Islands Developing States (SIDS) (e.g. Seychelles and Maldives), the tourism and hospitality industry is the core and the dominant business and economic lifeline of these countries. However, in most instances, human resource functions are either ignored or receive insufficient emphasis (Shakeela, & Cooper, 2009). The SIDS trade is predominantly luxury island holidays, and the tourism and hospitality industry employs approximately two-thirds of the countries' or islands' population. With the construction of resorts and hotels on remote islands, it is inevitable that expatriates would need to be employed to meet the specific skill demands for effectively and successfully operating a luxury resort. There has thus been an influx of expatriates on various skills levels who are employed in key roles in professional categories such as finance, management and administration (Shakeela, & Cooper, 2009).

The developing countries in the Indian Ocean have a chronic shortage of local skilled and trained employees which results in employing high numbers of expatriates. Top-level jobs such as chefs, diving instructors, accountants and management are dominated by expatriate employees. In Seychelles, the hospitality industry provides low pay for low-skilled local employees and is increasingly recruiting from overseas, thus increasing the percentage of migrant employees in the hospitality sector from 8% to 23.4% between 2001 and 2010 (Lee et al., 2015).

## 2.2.4 21st-century trends in the hospitality industry

The hospitality industry is approaching close to ten consecutive years of growth which is driven by high customer spending power, an essential desire for travel, a strong economy, an increase in global emerging markets and technology innovations. Demand for international travel is increasing, and more companies are relying on their business travel to connect and grow. In the United States, gross hotel bookings grew from \$116 billion to \$185 billion from 2009 to 2017 and the revenue from airlines increased from \$155 billion to \$222 billion. In 2017, travel and tourism comprised approximately \$1.6 trillion bookings. The food and beverage sector recovered after low performance since the economic crash in 2008. Visits to restaurants and takeaways by consumers have increased in the 21st century, with the food service sector revealing 3.7% growth in 2017 and 5 to 6% growth in 2018 (Bassey, 2012; World Travel and Tourism Council [WTTC], 2012).

In 2009, the first hotel and airline apps were introduced in the hospitality industry. The degree to which technology has evolved in this industry in a relatively short time is one of the greatest contributing factors to growth. For example, certain hotel groups or brands match lighting, temperature and entertainment settings of their rooms and allow for choices of pillows, the colour of linen and preferred complimentary drink prior to arrival. Guests' personalised experiences are likely to continue beyond 2019 and hotel brands will continue to source ways of gaining an advantage over competitors. In addition, the industry is constantly evolving as travel is becoming more affordable and customers are focusing more on quality (School of Hotel Administration, 2018). The new trends, such as guests booking with Airbnb, travellers with their pets seeking pet-friendly accommodation or requests for a hotel room with a treadmill are immersing (Emlyon Business School, 2018).

Inversely, the current rapid growth in the hospitality industry and the new digital innovations come with pronounced concerns. The trends and challenges could have the following consequences (Langford et al., 2019).

- increased competition in new travel markets, for example Portugal and Vietnam
- increased need for infrastructure in the form of roads, airports, parks, railways, ports and recreation facilities
- profit margins threatened by expenses resulting from high operation costs such as fuel, real estate and labour
- improvement of auxiliary services such as security to ensure demands for a seamless and safe guest experience
- hotel owners cutting costs will unavoidably create conflict with operators seeking a high level of services

- labour shortages resulting from an evolving workforce.

Hospitality leaders will need to plan well in advance and revenue managers will have to maintain rates owing to the fact that pricing power has shifted to the consumer. Industry players that are able to endure potential storms without reducing or compromising high-quality service and that provide competitive rates will stand in a superior position to profit in future economy descents (Langford et al., 2019).

In contrast, in the 21st century, the vibrant hospitality industry offers more exciting and interesting careers than in the past. Currently, the industry offers a career with a living income of six figures in dollars, excellent benefits, and a more dynamic work environment than has previously been that case and in comparison with other careers (MSc in International Hospitality Management, 2018). The constant change and the new trends require being up to date, creative and service orientated to ensure success in one's career and improvement for the organisation (School of Hotel Administration, 2018).

It is predicted that by 2022 over 328 million jobs will be created in the hospitality and tourism industry (Basse, 2012; World Travel and Tourism Council [WTTC], 2012). Regardless of the decrease in the unemployment rate over a decade for the hospitality industry, a reduction was recorded by March 2018 to a low of 5.8%, in comparison to the unemployment rate of 4.1% in the United States of America (Langford et al., 2019).

The industry is experiencing a tight labour market and hiring for hospitality jobs is at a historic high. The emergence of a highly competitive talent market has resulted in recruitment agents and specialists making efforts and putting great thought into the marketing of jobs. Employers in the 21st century need to create a branding strategy, which is smart and of high quality to attract the most suitable candidates. Recruiters need to be more innovative, invest in their talent pool and think strategically for the long term (HCareers, 2018).

In the 21st century, the hospitality industry is a sphere with numerous emerging trends for careers. Recruiters are finding new methods to source and engage candidates for the hospitality industry on short notice. Innovative digital recruitment techniques for hospitality staff are becoming more prevalent. Younger employees are inclined towards certain sectors of the hospitality industry and a solution would be to recruit younger but qualified employees from higher education institutions. This new strategy could allow employees to be trained in brand expectations at an early stage, growing with the company and building their long-term career in the industry (Emlyon Business School, 2018).

Owing to the fast growing hospitality sector in the Indian Ocean region, the destination presents a very attractive place of work, notwithstanding major hospitality concerns. Countries in the Indian Ocean such as Seychelles, Mauritius, Maldives, Madagascar and Zanzibar focus on being world-class, high-end luxury destinations, targeting the Indian, Chinese and European markets. Hotels are expected to create superior experiences for their guests and receive competitive reviews, resulting in challenges in terms of sourcing highly talented and skilled employees.

The characteristics of hospitality management careers internationally would be working outside your own country; interacting with people from various countries; working in an international tourist environment; having expatriate benefits such as allowances, accommodation, meals and travel; networking with colleagues from different nationalities; keeping guests constantly satisfied; having career growth opportunities; working in a diverse and challenging environment; and being able to apply creativity (Walsh & Taylor, 2007). However, although this might seem like living a dream life, working on a remote island poses numerous challenges for these employees. The “one island one resort” employment in SDIs such as the Maldives and Seychelles, is an environment where employees work and live on the same remote island, creating no balance or separation between personal life and work life (Shakeela & Cooper, 2009). Regardless of these benefits, a high level of turnover is one of the major challenges the hospitality industry faces in the Indian Ocean region. Hospitality employees are taking responsibility for their careers and continuously looking for challenging jobs which offer growth, work–life balance, competent leadership and good compensation. Mkono (2010) found that should an island offer work–life balance, career growth opportunities and fair compensation, employees are more committed to their jobs and are less likely to leave the island, thus retention ratios increase.

### **2.3 RETENTION**

Retention is regarded as a necessity and encompasses the practice of retaining the right people in the right job and, hence, keeping the best employees (Mamahit et al., 2019). Additionally, retention is defined as the efforts of the employer to inspire employees to remain in the organisation for a maximum period of time with the aim of meeting organisational objectives (Kaila, 2012).

The hospitality industry provides many jobs around the globe and creates economic stability through tourism activities. In addition, it contributes significantly to global gross domestic product (GDP) (Rishi & Gaur, 2012). As already indicated, business organisations in the hospitality sector face many challenges, including employee retention (Brhane & Zewdie, 2018). From all areas or countries, both locally and globally, the hospitality industry employs more people than any other industry, making employee retention a dynamic aspect for this

industry (Ogbonna & Lloyd 2002; Peric et al., 2011; World Travel and Tourism Council, 2012).

Managers in the hotel industry face major problems with employee turnover intention on a daily basis (Ferreira et al., 2017). Employees play crucial part in the organisation and are its most valuable assets and retaining employees is not an easy task. Currently, organisations are functioning in a highly unsettled and dynamic environment which requires flexible and skilled manpower. To succeed, companies need to maintain a high employee retention rate (Brhane & Zewdie, 2018); however, talent warfare has emerged due to the international nature of the hotel industry, where hospitality companies now have to compete for the best-qualified candidates (Torres & Mejia, 2017).

Retention is crucial for keeping high potential and loyal employees. This is also applicable to the hospitality industry where the best practice of retention is of the utmost importance. As a result, the development of an employee retention programme should be the most important component of any hospitality company's human resources function (Mamahit et al., 2019).

Kaila (2012) and Matindo et al. (2015) recognise the following important reasons why companies need to allocate resources to retain valuable employees:

- to reduce turnover cost which is a result of hiring costs, productivity loss, training costs
- to reduce the loss of valuable skills and knowledge
- to reduce interruptions to service and the loss of business
- to prevent a lack of loyalty from remaining employees
- to avoid the difficulty in attracting new skilled employees
- to prevent time wasted on hiring and training new employees.

### **2.3.1 Differentiation of retention in various locations**

Employee retention literature and research in the past was mostly conducted in the UK, US and Indian labour markets. Only one study has focused on retention in Asian countries such as Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Taiwan. Future research should still be conducted on emerging Asian markets, such as China, the Indian Ocean region and Pakistan (Imam et al., 2017).

There are many reasons employees all over the world stay in hospitality. Hamington (2010) explains that some employees remain in the hospitality industry for reasons such as the desire to thrive and for personal pride. Chuang et al. (2009) established that employees, for example cooks and chefs, remain with their company because they love being creative in the kitchen, enjoy what they do and feel proud of their work. The hospitality industry is

becoming dominant (O'Donovan et al., 2012) and a failure to retain hospitality employees will affect economic growth regionally, nationally and internationally (Edirisinghe & Manuel, 2019; Vasquez, 2014).

Career growth opportunities are one of the predominant concerns of the hospitality industry today (Zopiatis et al., 2014). One of the main reasons for this concern is that the majority of employees consider their employment as a stepping stone or as temporary, as opposed to a long-term career commitment (McGinley et al., 2017). Bednarska and Olszewski's (2013) study conducted in Poland discovered that 345 hospitality and tourism graduates and undergraduates planned short-term careers, which could have a major impact on retention in that country and keeping knowledge and talent in the hospitality industry. A study focusing on areas in Trinidad and Tobago related to employee turnover in the hospitality industry revealed that employee devotion was a major factor which contributed to retention (Butcher, 2012). In addition, Yang (2014) found that employees in the lower ranks of the Chinese hotel industry displaying the highest turnover rates are to be found in the front office, housekeeping, food, and beverage service and preparation areas.

Koonja (2016) reported that a hotel and resort group operating in the competitive luxury hospitality market in the Indian Ocean region expanded its business rapidly, recruiting more than 19 different nationalities to work at a single hotel or resort. The group constantly empowers its employees with the skills to offer the highest quality service and provides employees with training, mentorship and resources. Nevertheless, regardless of the investment in their employees, the group still has a high turnover (Koonja, 2016).

One of Asia's leading hospitality companies, the Indian Hotels Company Limited (IHCL), owns over 165 hotels in 80 countries, including the UK, India, North America, Zambia, South Africa, Sri Lanka, United Arab Emirates (UAE), Maldives, Malaysia, Nepal and Bhutan. The IHCL has employees from diverse backgrounds, nationalities and cultures. What makes this hospitality company successful is retaining motivated, skilled and happy employees, allowing them opportunities to grow and develop their careers, providing work-life balance and ensuring staff wellness (The Indian Hotels Company Limited, 2018). In addition women are encouraged to apply for vacancies in the company to ensure that 50% of the workforce is female. This company also offers recruitment incentive programmes, day-care centres, productivity-based remuneration and hospitalisation plans covering fertility treatment for its female employees. This hospitality company retains employees by providing a positive, safe and enabling work environment and doing rigorous background research on all new hires. Regardless of the size or location, the retention of employees and the skill development of talent remain the foremost success factors for any hospitality organisation and the hospitality industry as a whole (The Indian Hotels Company Limited, 2018).

### **2.3.2 Factors influencing retention**

Retention is critical in the hotel industry as the human resources in this field create the most significant factor (McGinley et al., 2017) for maintaining a competitive advantage. It is therefore fundamental to recognise all the factors that have an impact on retention (Fukofuka, 2014; Hatum, 2010). It is moreover critical for management to understand every aspect influencing employee turnover with the purpose of maintaining stability in the labour force (Schlechter et al., 2016).

Owing to the overhead costs of recruiting and training new employees, turnover becomes a high expense. In addition, high turnover results in the disruption of operations for the business (Akgunduz & Sanli, 2017), a decrease in service quality, a loss in competitive advantage (Mohsin et al., 2013), as well as loss of revenue (Guilding et al., 2014) for any company. Furthermore, the cost of replacing talented employees can be an unforeseen expenditure, due to productivity loss during the training stages that inevitably accompany new hires (Vasquez, 2014). High employee turnover results in losses of millions of dollars in revenue, and results in a decrease in productivity and an increase in accident rates in the workplace (Wärnich et al., 2015).

Sinha and Sinha (2012) discuss numerous retention factors, for example communication, recognition of skills and performance, motivation and the employer–employee relationships which increase the likelihood of employees staying in the organisation. Additional factors such as the lack of benefits (Al-Emadi et al., 2015); human resource development (Nawaz & Pangil, 2016); human resource management, the level of commitment of the employee; career development; the organisational culture; remuneration and working conditions (Mwasaru & Kazungu Kingi, 2015; Tandung, 2016) could result in an employee leaving. Luna-Arocas and Camps (2008) state that an employee's decision to remain with the organisation is not influenced by financial rewards alone and are not the exclusive key for retaining employees (De Vos & Meganck, 2009). Benefits offered also have an impact on retention, such as offering generous leave benefits. Other retention factors such as a career, work content, finances, work–life balance, and affiliation can focus on retaining employees with scarce and specialist skills (Britton et al., 1999; Munsamy & Bosch-Venter, 2009). Inconsistent compensation structures also have a negative impact on the retention strategy and employees have been found to openly move to another organisation for a raise in salary (Van Dyk, 2011). Anvari et al. (2014) state that one of the main causes of staff turnover is that of employees' dissatisfaction with rewards. Cropp (2016) states that hoteliers report that a shortage of skilled and potential exists, mainly due to low remuneration. Remuneration in the hospitality industry is inadequate compared to other industries (Armoo & Neequaye, 2014). This is supported by a study which indicated that a negative relationship exists between turnover and remuneration in the hospitality industry (Alhamwan et al., 2015;



Buttner & Lowe, 2017). Front of house employees in the hospitality industry receive comparatively low salaries and are the most likely to leave (Lu et al., 2016).

In addition, a study in the USA of 859 hotel employees found that younger employees were less likely to leave than older employees (Lu et al., 2016) and that companies should train and mentor the younger employees and improve retention among them (Lu et al., 2016). Employees also leave their current hotel for better career growth opportunities, advancement and an opportunity to work internationally or in a new country (Davis, 2018).

A research study by Davis (2018) moreover suggests that an additional factor, namely effective leadership, is influential in improving retention rates. This researcher's results indicate that hotels with a high turnover rate would benefit from appointing effective leaders who display a true passion for their employees and who provide development and growth opportunities (Davis, 2018). The researcher recommends that leaders should be recruited and trained to create career paths for employees and to discuss career goals with employees. When employees are encouraged to view the hotel industry as a favourable career opportunity, the turnover rates will decrease. A further factor human resource managers could consider is that candidates should be interviewed and evaluated carefully to ensure that the right abilities and skills are obtained, as well as finding candidates who fit the company's culture (Davis, 2018).

In the contemporary workplace, employees put a priority on their work–life balance (Carlson et al., 2009). The concept of work–life balance is becoming a critical factor, and it is important for employers to monitor their employees' level of work–life balance before it becomes a problem and it is too late to retain the employee (Deery & Jago, 2015). Many companies are recognising the importance of balancing work and life and the implementation of effective work–life policies and the acknowledgment of a real work–life balance increases the retention of employees (Holland et al., 2007).

The culture in organisations relating to the connection between an employee and a manager (Döckel, 2003), the development of employees and the feeling of being valued and important (Van Dyk, 2011) are factors which play a critical role in retention. Another factor which has a significant impact on retention is communication (Mabindisa, 2013) and employee engagement (Markos & Sridevi, 2010). Constant and open communication and updating employees on learning opportunities motivate them to remain with an organisation (Ng & Feldman, 2010).

In addition, several research studies have been conducted to investigate whether demographic variables influence the retention of employees. Ng and Feldman (2010) found that middle-aged employees indicate a higher tendency to remain in an organisation (Ng &

Feldman, 2010). Luekens et al. (2004), as well as Agyeman and Ponniah (2014), found that women have a higher tendency to remain with an organisation than their male counterparts.

There are various reasons why employees intend to leave their jobs voluntarily with the most recurrent reasons being

- limited career and growth opportunities
- their manager or the management
- benefits and remuneration
- job fit
- the company culture (Binar Academy, 2018).

### **2.3.3 Retention rates in the hospitality industry**

Globally, employee retention is critical for increasing the economy. However, the high percentages of employees leaving the hospitality industry contribute to high unemployment rates, which in turn slow economic growth (Vasquez, 2014), as well as disturbing the operations of the business, owing to the high overhead costs consequential to the recruiting and training of new employees (Akgunduz & Sanli, 2017). The cost of losing talented employees is increasing owing to the escalation of tight labour markets, making the measuring of turnover for employers an essential practice today (Steinman, 2018). Limited numbers of employees remain in the hospitality industry (Vasquez, 2014) and Lo and Lamm (2005) determined that less than 12% of employees in this industry remain with the organisation for an extended period of time.

The National Restaurant Association of America reported that for two years consecutively, namely 2015 and 2016, the restaurant industry battled with employee retention and faced a 72.9% employee turnover rate. In the restaurant industry, 43% managers leave within one year of service and 42% of the front of house employees resign within the first three months of employment. The cost of recruiting and training a new restaurant employee is calculated as \$3500 per employee (Steinman, 2018). Data from research received from the restaurant industry in the US, between July and September 2017, indicates that employees with greater responsibilities, for example the manager or service staff, have higher retention rates than temporary positions such as runners, cashiers or catering staff. The highest turnover in the restaurant industry is among roles such as dishwashers (34%), cashiers (36%), sommeliers (32%) and, to a lesser extent, roles like barman (25%) and manager (23%) (Steinman, 2018).

In 2016, employee turnover in the United States was measured at 15.1%, which included employees who left voluntarily, were dismissed, terminated and retired. Government positions were among the lowest turnover rates of all industries and the industries with the

highest turnover rates were the hotel industry with 60 to 300% and the fast food industry with 100% (Wells, 2017). The higher the turnover in the organisation, the more susceptible the business will be to increased costs, which makes retention an important focus. The Bureau of Labour Statistics estimates an employee turnover rate of 73.8% annually in the hotel industry. This figure is significant considering that most human resource specialists agree that a healthy turnover rate should be between 10% and 15% (MSc in International Hospitality Management, 2018). The recommended percentage of turnover employers should aim for should be 10%, which should be the low performers compared to the target of an average employee retention rate of 90% consisting of talented and high performers (Wells, 2017).

The latest turnover trends in the hospitality industry in the USA indicate a turnover of 50% of non-management hotel employees and a turnover of approximately 25% for management hotel employees. Research also indicates that Millennials, who are known to be job-hoppers, have less loyalty towards companies and are most likely to leave their job for a better opportunity. The study also reported that 50% of entry-level hotel employees leave the company within the first year of joining (Wells, 2018).

Although contrasting turnover percentages were found in the literature, all of the results indicate a very high turnover rate in the hospitality industry. In any company and industry, losing talented employees is unavoidable, unforeseen and comes at a high cost. Therefore, reducing turnover is vital for all employers worldwide if they are to increase performance and strengthen economic growth (Vasquez, 2014). Management and leaders in hospitality companies lack retention strategies to ensure a low employee turnover rate and high turnover has a negative long-term impact on the sustainability and profitability of the company (Davis, 2018).

#### **2.3.4 Retention challenges in the hospitality industry**

The hospitality industry operates all over the world and this makes the retention challenges a global issue. Retention is an essential contribution to the company's economic development and the high employee turnover in the hotel industry leads to substantial instability and uncertainty (Vasquez, 2014). In addition, the high turnover rate is one of the most problematic managerial concerns in the hotel industry and is consistently higher than in many other industries (Kim, 2014). Organisational leaders face challenges in managing and retaining employees (Aruna & Anitha, 2015; Mwasaru & Kazungu Kingi, 2015), the greatest challenges being the failure to source and retain qualified employees (Pearlman & Schaffer, 2013) and the ways in which to attract employees during labour shortage periods (Jayawardena et al., 2013). Because of the global nature of the hotel industry, a talent war has surfaced, as hospitality firms compete for the most qualified applicants (Torres & Mejia,

2017). As the workforce pool continues to decline in the hotel industry, the employer or management must implement new creative strategies to attract and retain employees (Milman & Dickson, 2014). According to Joyner (2000), most highly skilled employees seek the satisfaction of accomplishment, rather than the amount of time spend on doing tasks. It, therefore, seems as if employees in the new world of work value continuous learning and skill development (Bova & Kroth, 2001).

As already indicated, employee turnover intention is a major problem that managers in the hotel industry face on a daily basis (Ferreira et al., 2017), as it leads to a decrease in service quality and causes hotels to lose competitive advantage (Mohsin et al., 2013). Therefore, staff turnover can result in a loss of revenue (Guilding et al., 2014). High staff turnover also leads to higher costs in the hotel industry (Tews et al., 2013). If disengaged and unsatisfied employees provide poor customer service it can affect a hotel's reputation and decrease guest or customer loyalty (Wells, 2018).

The cost of turnover for the employer includes

- disengagement as a result of pre-departure
- time and money spent on sourcing, selecting and hiring new employees
- orientation and training of new employees
- loss of productivity in operations
- poor customer service provided by disengaged and dissatisfied or disengaged employees, affecting the reputation of the company (Wells, 2018).

To complicate matters further, the challenges today involve employees who have different perspectives to those of employees of five decades ago, particularly the Millennials who are most unlikely to remain in one or two companies for their entire career (Solnet et al., 2012).

Another significant challenge in the hospitality industry is employee stress. In a study conducted in 65 different hotels, 164 managers and 65 casual workers were interviewed for eight consecutive days. The study concluded that the two greatest stressors in the workplace were work overload and interpersonal tension. These stressors were found to be linked to high turnover (O'Neill & Davis, 2010). Therefore, employers need to identify the work stressors since the nature of the hospitality industry is largely seasonal and entails long working hours. According to Chen and Wu (2017), a high work pressure environment causes high employee turnover rates.

Companies would improve the competitive advantage, save costs and enhance strategic human resource planning by lowering their levels of turnover (Schlechter et al., 2016). There are however, no fixed practices in the hotel industry that can guide companies on how to

retain their employees and keep them committed, as employees place different emphases on different variables, depending on their organisational fit (Mehta et al., 2014).

### **2.3.5 Improving retention in hospitality**

To increase retention, hospitality managers need to re-evaluate their retention strategies and pay attention to the turnover challenge which contributes to instability and uncertainty in this industry (Vasquez, 2014). A company's most valuable asset, namely the employee, is the key factor which assists management to meet their retention objectives and goals successfully (Davis, 2018). Employers do have the capability to reinforce an employee's decision to stay by implementing the best retention practices (Al-Emadi et al., 2015).

Understanding why employees leave would be the first step in solving high turnover rates. In summary, Sagaraju (2018) lists five key ways in which retention can be improved:

- recruiting the right employees who understand their career path in the company
- creating flexible work hours allowing for work–life balance
- encouraging good workplace relationships in the work environment
- focusing on efficient, continuous training, cross-training and cross-exposure, and
- providing a relaxed, fun and happy work environment.

Turnover across the USA in a major player in the industry, the Hilton International Hotel Group, dropped by 6% in 2017 and among its Millennial employees, by 13%. Hilton achieved this by improving remuneration and working conditions for its employees, remaining competitive with other industries and thus saving a tremendous amount of money and drastically reducing their turnover problem (Wells, 2018).

If hospitality management implements employee retention strategies successfully, such as training and development, competitive remuneration, effective communication and increasing job satisfaction, a reduction in turnover would be seen (Anvari et al., 2014). Akyüz et al. (2015) found that human resource management practices, for example managing behaviour and attitudes, providing extensive training and feedback, can affect turnover as well as the company ethics. Therefore human resource managers play a major role in designing effective policies and strategies that can contribute to employee retention (Mwasaru & Kazungu Kingi, 2015; Tandung, 2016).

In a study of 431 service sector employees in China who were being prepared for promotions, Chan et al. (2016) established that employees displayed adaptive skills and acquired career satisfaction, resulting in lower intention to quit (Chan et al., 2016). As a

result of this preparation, they experienced greater career satisfaction and were unlikely to leave their company (Chan & Mai, 2015) experiencing a feeling of growth in the organisation (Hytter, 2007).

A major key factor in increasing employee retention in the hospitality industry is career development (Armoo & Neequaye, 2014; Kiruthiga & Magesh, 2015). Hotels with high turnover rates could benefit from hiring suitable managers who express real concern for their employees, who empower them, and who offer opportunities for development and growth (Davis, 2018). Access to training and development opportunities is critical in employees' decisions to remain with the company (Briscoe et al., 2012) and an increase in employability attributes improves the employee's inclination to remain in the company (Hytter, 2007). Davis (2018) recommends that companies recruit, train and retain managers with the following qualities: managers who connect, engage, motivate and inspire employees and provide clear career paths for employees. Davis (2018) also recommends that managers use performance reviews to provide clear career goals for employees and also provide consistent training. Sustainable career opportunities can be created by leaders who provide support, systematic career opportunities (Alkahtani, 2015) and development opportunities for employees which in turn decreases turnover rates in the hotel industry (Davis, 2018). Company representatives will have a greater chance of retaining an employee whose values, career goals and plans fit well with the organisational culture (Karatepe, 2013).

In the 21st century, management styles are more relaxed and employees are not micromanaged but are trusted to work more productively and independently, and required to set their own work schedules. In the new world of work, managerial structures are more linear, replacing the traditional hierarchical management style. Employees are not dependent on the manager's instructions and individual employees are more valued, irrespective of age, gender and nationality (Rathman, 2011). The biggest challenges experienced in multigenerational workplaces are associated with ethnicity and gender (Rathman, 2011). Ultimately, achieving employee retention entails effective leadership with a long-term vision (Enderwick, 2011).

The findings of a study by Davis (2018) reveals that it is of great importance that leaders listen to their employees, engage with them, value and empower them by involving them in decision-making. In addition, management should put strategies in place to acquire feedback from their employees, consider their suggestions and provide consistent, open and honest feedback. To gain the employees' commitment, managers could engage employees, which would ultimately result in a reduction in turnover.

Other key tactics an organisation company can implement in order to increase retention include improving recruiting and on-boarding practices. A high level of career satisfaction,

different types of work levels and experiences, as well as overall organisational culture, play an important role in the intention to leave the organisation (Guan, Guo et al., 2014; Guan, Wen et al., 2014; Singh, 2018).

Employers should provide employees with opportunities to develop key internal relationships, and supervisors should also provide coaching on career opportunities and job performance (Kang et al., 2015). Retaining employees can also be achieved by creating the right organisational culture which results in attracting and retaining high quality talent. Wells (2017) indicates that up to 66% of highly engaged employees remain in their companies and that employee engagement results in employees who have no intention of leaving.

To overcome the retention challenges, the hospitality sector needs to collaborate with academia and the government (Cavico & Mujtaba, 2010; Molian, 2012; Olson, 2010), and managers in this industry need to develop a better understanding of employee retention that may result from the direct influence employees have on the company's performance (Robinson et al., 2014). In addition, hospitality educators could shape the career expectations of hospitality students (Brown et al., 2015) and provide an adequate understanding and expectations of a career in the industry, including the realities of compensation expectations, work conditions and work life (Brown et al., 2015).

A better understanding of the different needs and preferences of various generations such as the Baby Boomers (1946–1964), Generation X (1965–1981) and Generation Y (1982–1999) could assist companies in improving retention strategies and retaining talented employees (Singh, 2019).

## **2.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

In the 21st-century workplace, changes have taken place in the prevailing state of workplaces and the nature of careers. Although employees have been expected to remain in an organisation for life, in terms of the new paradigm they tend to work for multiple organisations over their lifetime. This paradigm shift forces organisations to adjust and set strategies to retain certain valuable employees. Singh (2019) states that today's organisations are setting new retention trends and are realising and accepting the importance of retention. Furthermore, companies are hiring full-time retention specialists and giving more attention to social initiatives to develop retention interventions for the new generation of employees. It is evident that remuneration is no longer the only deciding factor in employee retention, but that psychological factors also play a vital role in retaining employees. Companies are creating solid relationships and treating employees like valued customers with the focus on retaining them.

In this chapter, the theoretical framework of this research was discussed, contrasting the traditional with the contemporary workplace. A summary of talent retention and the hospitality industry was also given in this chapter. Research aim 1, namely to conceptualise careers and the retention of employees in the hospitality industry, was achieved in this chapter. The next chapter (chapter 3) will focus on the following five research aims:

- **Research aim 2:** To conceptualise the three constructs of fit, flourishing and organisational commitment and explain them by means of theoretical models in the literature.
- **Research aim 3:** To identify whether a theoretical relationship exists between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment and to explain this relationship.
  - **Sub-aim 3.1:** To conceptualise the theoretical relationship between fit and flourishing.
  - **Sub-aim 3.2:** To conceptualise the theoretical relationship between fit and organisational commitment.
  - **Sub-aim 3.3:** To conceptualise the theoretical relationship between flourishing and organisational commitment.
- **Research aim 4:** To conceptualise the influence of the demographic variables of age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate), on the theoretical relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment.
- **Research aim 5:** To identify the theoretical implications for organisational retention practices in the hospitality industry.



# CHAPTER 3: FIT, FLOURISHING AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

## 3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter aims to conceptualise the variables in the research study and to explore related theoretical models. The chapter defines and describes the terms “fit”, “flourishing” and “organisational commitment”, as well as theories related to these constructs. The variables that have an impact on the relationships between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in terms of their relevance are explained, together with how demographic characteristics affect the development of these variables. Factors that contribute to the retention of employees in the hospitality industry will also be discussed.

## 3.2 CONCEPTUALISATION

The concepts of fit, flourishing and organisational commitment will be defined and conceptualised in the following subsections.

### 3.2.1 Conceptualising fit

Fit refers to matching the experiences of an employee to his/her work role and self-concept (May et al., 2004; Olivier & Rothmann, 2007; Schreuder & Theron, 2004). Kristof (1996) defines fit as the state that is achieved when the employee’s characteristics are in harmony with the characteristics of the organisation. In turn, Holtom and Inderrieden (2006) define fit as occurring when employees perceive their goals as compatible with the goals of the organisation. It thus seems as if all authors are in agreement that fit occurs when there is uniformity between the norms and values of the individual employee and the organisation.

In addition, Greguras and Diefendorff (2009) define fit as a single dimension called person-environment (PE) fit which refers to the similarity between the employees’ work environments and their characteristics. Employees spend a large percentage of their time at work, therefore organisations should become involved in improving the quality of their employees’ working lives (Buitendach & Rothmann, 2009), as well as increasing their intention to stay with the organisation (Armstrong, 2006; Snyder & Lopez, 2002). According to Hood and Johnson (1991), the best people to determine the extent of fit are the employees.

Furthermore, fit is described as a detailed multidimensional concept (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005) experienced by employees in multiple aspects of their work environment (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011), such as person–job (PJ) fit, person–environment (PE) fit, person–organisation (PO) fit, person–group (PG), person–supervisor (PS), person–career (PC),

needs–supplies (NS), and demands–abilities (DA) (Cable & De Rue, 2002; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Parasuraman et al., 2000).

While researchers use multiple concepts of fit levels, person–environment (PE) fit is considered as the general concept for fit. PE fit is described as how employees experience both fit and concurrent ease in numerous aspects of their environment (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011). Ostroff and Schulte (2007) conceptualise PE fit in terms of the specific person–situation relationship that indicates the equivalence between the personal and the environmental dimensions.

Despite the concept of fit incorporating numerous dimensions in this study, focus is given to the conceptualisation of PE fit by assessing the compatibility between the person and his or her work environment using the Work-Role Fit (WRF) Model (May et al., 2004). Song and Chon (2012) describe PE fit in terms of three identifiable domains, namely person–job (PJ) fit, person–group (PG) fit and person–organisation (PO) fit.

Among the various types of fit, the most studied are PO fit and PJ fit (Chuang & Sackett, 2005); however, these concepts have not been researched as yet in the hospitality industry (Sekiguchi, 2007). Sekiguchi (2007) describes PJ fit as the match between the skills, knowledge and abilities of the individual and the demands of a job. In addition, PJ fit is defined as the degree to which the employees match their job requirements (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), the positive emotions they experience as a result of a well-suited working environment matching their personal characteristics and the match between the demands of the job and an employee's ability. PJ fit leads to a number of positive job outcomes, such as job satisfaction, commitment and work performance (Kristof, 1996), which are linked to a decrease in employee turnover (Lam et al., 2001). In turn, PO fit is defined as the compatibility between the individual and the organisation. PG fit is defined as the level of compatibility of individuals and their work groups, such as departments, divisions and regions in the organisation.

The concept of fit is relatively new in the Human Resource (HR) Management field and, consequently, research studies that investigate and describe the concept of work–role fit in the workplace are limited. May et al. (2004) define work–role fit as the perceived fit between an individual's role in the workplace and their self-concept. This definition of May et al. (2004) will be accepted for this study.

In earlier studies, the concept of fit between the employee and the organisation refers to the compatibility of the employee's personality, attitude and values with the organisation's goals, processes, policies, values and culture (Schneider et al., 1995). In a later study, Holtom and

Inderrieden (2006) state that the employees' fit to the organisation relates to the attachments they have to that organisation.

In more recent literature reviews, the concept of fit to an organisation refers to the match between the qualities of the employees and the requirements of the organisation that employs them (Gregory et al., 2010) and, thus, successful fit is established when the employee's values, plans and career goals fit with the company's culture (Demir, 2015). Mensele and Coetzee (2014) expand this idea by stating that the employee's career goals, personal values and plans should "fit" the criteria outlined in their job descriptions in addition to the overall culture of the company.

A high level of "work-role" fit results in a positive emotional experience in the workplace, because employees are able to demonstrate that their workplace values and beliefs "fit" with their own personal values and comfort zone (Shamir, 1991; Van Zyl et al., 2010). Individuals who experience high levels of work–role fit consider their jobs to be a profession and are willing to go beyond the limitations set out in their job description to achieve their tasks (Dik & Duffy, 2008). May et al. (2004) and Olivier and Rothmann (2007) state that individuals who have an opportunity to express their strengths in the workplace achieve greater work–role fit.

On the other hand, employees with a low level of work–role fit experience little meaning in their work (Wrzesniewski, 2003) which results in an increase in levels of frustration and pessimism (Meyers, 2007), leading to high levels of stress and burnout (Dik & Duffy, 2008).

### **3.2.2 Conceptualising flourishing**

Flourishing as a concept was defined and used for the first time in the modern world as "extraordinary levels of wellbeing" (Keyes, 2002). Corey Keyes (2002), the first psychologist to apply the term "flourishing", describes this concept as the presence of employees with good mental health who are filled with positive emotions and, thus, function effectively both socially and psychologically. Initially, most researchers adopted Keyes's theoretical model of flourishing. The original researcher of this term states that flourishing requires the combination of the presence of high levels of social, psychological and emotional wellbeing (Keyes, 2002). Diener et al. (2010) indicates that flourishing refers to an individual having very high levels of personal wellbeing, pleasant emotions, minimum pain, engagement in interesting activities and an overall satisfaction with life (Hone et al., 2014; Seligman, 2011). Diener et al.'s (2010) definition of flourishing, referring to individuals having very high levels of personal wellbeing, will be adopted for this study.

Flourishing is defined as the epidemiology of high levels of wellbeing (Hone et al., 2014) and refers to a high level of subjective wellbeing relating to a sense of satisfaction with one's lifestyle (Diener et al., 2010), psychological wellbeing (Ryff, 1989) and social wellbeing

(Keyes, 2002). Psychosocial flourishing is described by Diener et al. (2010) as comprising the following dimensions, namely, rewarding and supportive social relationships, being respected by others, contributing to the happiness of other people, experiencing a meaningful and purposeful life, being optimistic and trusting one's capabilities. In turn, Keyes (2007) defines flourishing as an arrangement of positive functioning abilities and positive feelings in life and claims that flourishing refers to high levels of wellbeing in terms of both functioning and feeling well.

Huppert and So (2009) similarly define flourishing as the combination of functioning effectively and feeling good, which is based on the "self-report" of the individual and is a subjective measure of wellbeing. Flourishing is summarised as being achieved when an individual experiences a sense of wellbeing, functions effectively and perceives life as "going well". Flourishing is a phenomenon in which wellbeing is conceptualised (Huppert & So, 2009).

In turn, Rothmann (2013) defines flourishing at work as relating to a situation when employees are deemed to function well within an organisational context (psychological wellbeing), feeling good (emotional wellbeing) and fitting in well (social wellbeing). Flourishing at work is presented as a multidimensional approach in a work-related environment and is defined as a combination of positive feelings and effective functioning (Noble & McGrath, 2015, Rothmann, 2013).

Janse van Rensburg et al. (2017) also state that flourishing at work comprises three dimensions, namely emotional, psychological and social wellbeing. Emotional wellbeing consists of job satisfaction, positive affect and negative affect; psychological wellbeing consists of competence, autonomy, learning, meaning, relatedness, purpose, positive relations with others and engagement; and social wellbeing entails social integration, personal growth, acceptance, involvement, coherence and unity (Janse van Rensburg et al., 2017).

In addition, flourishing is defined as the subjective condition that implicates overall contentment with life as well as positive emotions (Diener, 1984). Employees who experience psychosocial flourishing are more inclined to have more frequent positive emotions, contribute more to society and appear to be more successful in life (Diener et al., 2010; Keyes, 2007).

The term "flourishing" has been more broadly defined by Bono et al. (2012) to include employees experiencing a sense of thriving (e.g. vitality and learning), happiness (e.g. positive moods and emotions) and engagement (e.g. job satisfaction and self-determined motivation). Bono et al. (2012) argue that flourishing refers to high levels of wellbeing in

terms of feeling well and functioning effectively, both of which have an impact on the company culture, as well as the overall satisfaction of the employee. Wissing and Temane (2013) define flourishing as referring to the life of an individual who experiences a high level of social, emotional and psychological wellbeing. More specifically, the term “flourishing at work” applies when employees believe that life at work is going well and that they are functioning effectively (Rothmann, 2013). Rothmann (2013) supports the existence of a relationship between “flourishing” and sound mental health, which ensures that individuals function optimally and can adapt to change in the workplace.

Emotional wellbeing, as conceptualised by the research of Keyes (2002, 2007) and Rojas and Veenhoven (2013), comprises of job satisfaction and positive emotions, resulting in a contented and stable lifestyle. Psychological wellbeing entails independence, meaning, purpose, affiliation, competence, individual learning and development, and employee engagement. In turn, Keyes (2007) denotes social wellbeing as the employee’s experience of receiving positive appraisals and being committed to the social tasks experienced in the workplace.

The concept of flourishing comprises of the existence of individuals who thrive at work, are happy, inherently motivated, engaged, successful and have a positive attitude towards learning (Bono et al., 2012), generally function well in life (Keyes, 2002), experience wellbeing, perform better and have lower absenteeism rates (Keyes, 2007). Employees experience learning when they obtain and apply the knowledge and skills needed to carry out their job satisfactorily (May et al., 2004; Steger et al., 2012). Their level of work engagement indicates the connection the employees have to their work, such as being physically and mentally involved in their work or tasks and exhibiting energy, which results in their experiencing a sense of value in what they achieve (Kahn & Heaphy, 2014). Huppert and So (2013) arrived at a similar conclusion, noting that flourishing reflects emotional stability, positive emotions, engagement, vitality, proficiency, flexibility, self-esteem, engagement, optimism, meaningful and positive relationships. Seligman (2011) states that research studies progressively use the concept of flourishing to define wellbeing and components of happiness. Seligman (2011) further comments that individuals who experience flourishing have a high level of satisfaction both in their personal life and at work and thus are more effective in learning and experience better interpersonal relationships.

Huppert & So (2009) and Keyes (2002) believe that flourishing refers to the experience of feeling good, of life going well, functioning well and having a high level of mental wellbeing. Keyes and Annas (2009) define flourishing as the condition through which individuals experience high levels of emotional, psychological and social wellbeing and also point out that flourishing plays a significant role in both their work and the organisational environment.

Seligman (2011) likewise notes that flourishing describes the employee's subjective wellbeing and that while certain people experience wellbeing, some employees never achieve this state, regardless of favourable working conditions.

Employees with a high level of flourishing are individuals who experience emotional wellbeing with its associated components of diligence (Schotanus-Dijkstra et al., 2016), happiness and life satisfaction (Diener, 1984), optimism and self-esteem (Diener et al., 2010), as well as positive relationships, a sense of purpose in life and personal growth (Keyes, 2002; Ryan et al., 2008). In direct contrast, individuals who experience low flourishing levels are less physically and mentally healthy, a state which is associated with low resilience to vulnerabilities and changes in life (Bergsma et al., 2011; Seligman, 2011; Kobau et al., 2011) and some of these employees become stagnant and feel empty (Huppert & So, 2013).

### **3.2.3 Conceptualising organisational commitment**

Mowday et al. (1982) were the first psychologists to describe “organisational commitment”. In the field of industrial and organisational psychology and HR management, the concept of organisational commitment has received much attention and a vast amount of literature and research exists on this concept. Allen and Meyer (2011) note that organisational commitment is one of the foremost work attitudes explored in studies in the fields of organisational behaviour and HR management.

Many definitions of organisational commitment have been offered by researchers over the past three decades, some of which are listed below in chronological order:

Caldwell et al. (1990) define organisational commitment as the psychological bond between the employee and the organisation, encompassing the employee's loyalty to the values of the organisation. Meyer et al. (2002) further explain that organisational commitment is characterised by three factors, namely, a strong belief in, and acceptance of, the organisation's goals and values; an inclination to apply extensive effort on behalf of the organisation; and a strong desire to continue as an employee of the organisation. Balay (2000) defines organisational commitment as the bonding feeling and attachment linking the employees to the company and uniting them as a result of their having a common goal and values. Cohen et al. (2003) define organisational commitment as the force that binds an employee to a sequence of actions to achieve targets. Arnold (2005) and Rafiki and Hidayat (2019) offers a general description of organisational commitment, namely, the absolute strength of employees' identification and association with their organisation. Chew and Wong (2008) refer to organisational commitment as the level of attachment that employees feel towards their place of work, while Chelladurai (2009) states that organisational

commitment is one of the determining factors which affects the employees' participation in activities and performance in the company. Farahani et al. (2011) further define organisational commitment as the psychological devotion to and love the employees have for their organisation. Additionally, Qureshi et al. (2011) define organisational commitment as the employees' feelings of responsibility towards the company's mission. Benjamin and David (2012) similarly define organisational commitment as the employees' loyalty, their contribution to the company's vision, as well as their intent to remain with the organisation.

Meyer and Allen (1997) describe organisational commitment as a psychological condition that connects the individual to the organisation. Consequently, organisational commitment is practised by the employee as three instantaneous mind-sets or bases, incorporating affective, normative and continuance organisational commitment (Meyer et al., 2002). Organisational commitment comprises a combination of employees' desire to remain with the organisation (both affective/feelings and cognitive/behaviour) which encompasses employees' desire to make additional exertions to those expected of them, as well as their belief in the values and goals of the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 2004; Meyer et al., 2006). Jaros (2007) indicates that affective commitment (AC) refers to the employee's affection for the workplace, normative commitment (NC) to their feelings of obligation to remain with the organisation, and continuance commitment (CC) to the employees' fear of what will be lost if they leave the organisation. Organisational commitment research remains complex and fragmented. Reviews of empirical research as well as theoretical frameworks of organisational commitment indicate that the construct of affective commitment appears to be the core concept of organisational commitment. Affective commitment has been generally defined as the emotional attachment and the bond the employee has with their organisation (Mercurion, 2015).

When employees are more committed they often develop a more positive perception towards the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 2011; Mensele & Coetzee, 2014; Miller & Lee, 2001). Abdulla et al. (2017) defines organisational commitment as an individual's desire to remain attached to and focused on his work. The definition of organisational commitment provided by Meyer and Allen (1997), relating to employees' psychological relationship with the organisation, will be adopted for this study.

Meyer and Allen (1997) developed a broadly accepted definition of this concept, stating that "organisational commitment" is the inner condition connecting the employee to the organisation, referring to the employee's positive attitude or psychological connection to the organisation. Employees may develop a more positive perception of the organisation when they are more committed to the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 2011; Miller & Lee, 2001; Mensele & Coetzee, 2014). Other researchers perceive the concept of organisational

commitment as a work-related attitude referring to the condition in which the employee identifies with the organisation and intends to remain with the organisation (Mensele & Coetzee, 2014; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Robbins et al., 2003; Slocum & Hellriegel, 2007).

According to Hughes et al. (2010), commitment to an organisation appears to be directly related to the employees' observation of how they are treated during uncertain times and periods of change, as well as to the nature of their career forecasts within the organisation at a particular time. Ferreira and Coetzee (2010) further comment that employees who do not take ownership of their careers eventually feel less committed to their organisation.

Organisational commitment can be seen as an affective point of reference that the employees have toward the organisation and also relates to their leaving or remaining with the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Mathieu and Zajac (1990) conceptualised that organisational commitment could be regarded as the way in which employees connect with their organisation. Colarelli and Bishop (1990), on the other hand, relate commitment to occupation and, thus, conceptualise commitment as the desire to remain with an organisation and to build a professional connection with that organisation. Meyer and Allen (1997) suggest that organisational commitment should be conceptualised as a psychological state that is concerned with how the individuals feel about their desire to continue working for the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Yet, in another way, the concept of organisational commitment is perceived as a work-related attitude referring to the condition in which employees identify with their organisation. Organisational commitment also refers to the link between the employees' and the organisation's goals, and the way in which the employees identify with and expect the organisation's values will determine their intention to remain in the organisation (Mensele & Coetzee, 2014; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Robbins et al., 2003; Slocum & Hellriegel, 2007).

As indicated earlier, employees who do not take ownership of their careers, become less committed to their organisation (Ferreira & Coetzee, 2010). Hence, managers need to show an interest in understanding and developing employees' organisational commitment to make them feel valued and, resultantly, increase their productivity. Earlier research shows that organisational commitment practices improve employee performance, service quality and productivity. Findings from previous studies have shown that factors such as the most recent status of an employee, team-building, on-the-job training, employee unity, mentorship programmes and non-monetary benefits have a great influence on an employee's commitment to the workplace (Nyamu, 2013).

In addition to being associated with employees' intention to leave the company, organisational commitment includes employees' attitudes toward organisational changes, maintaining high performance levels and organisational turnover, as well as corporate social



responsibility interventions such as activities that focus on the welfare of employees and their families (Allen & Meyer, 2011; Soobramoney & Ledimo, 2016). Morrow (1993) found that employees with a low level of organisational commitment are inclined to be unproductive and may even be “idlers” at work.

Ermiş (2014) describes organisational commitment as a representation of the strong bond an employee experiences with the organisation that employs them. To create a high level of performance and productivity, it is essential for a company to integrate a high-quality workforce into their body, to retain employees within the organisation and to increase their “positive feelings” towards their job (Ermiş et al., 2015). Organisational commitment is regarded, therefore, as an important and increasing aspect of organisational behaviour and psychology, as well as an important step in attaining organisational goals (Ermiş et al., 2015).

Organisations can influence employees’ organisational commitment through their HR management policies and practices (Jawaad et al., 2019). These HR practices should not function in isolation, but be compatible with company strategy, a process that can result in positive results when implemented sufficiently. Therefore, HR departments must determine the degree to which their employees experience organisational commitment by striving to understand employees better, ensuring that they are functioning efficiently and effectively and studying the reasons behind their intention to resign from their job (Tolukan et al., 2016).

### **3.3 THEORETICAL MODELS**

The various theoretical models of “fit”, “flourishing” and “organisational commitment” are described in the section below.

#### **3.3.1 Fit**

Studies related to fit indicate that the concept can be explained by several theoretical models which investigate and document different perspectives on the concept of fit. The different models distinguish fit as either unidimensional or multidimensional. These models will be explored in the section below.

The following two models of the concept fit are described by the researcher, namely (1) the three-factor model of Su et al. (2015) and (1) the model of May et al. (2004).

#### **The three-factor model of Su et al. (2015)**

Su et al. (2015) state that fit occurs between employees and the entire organisation, their groups or their jobs. Su et al.’s (2015) model describes the three domains of fit, namely person–job (PJ), person–organisation (PO) fit, and person–group (PG) fit as follow:

PJ fit discusses the match between the personal characteristics of the employee and the job characteristics. This type of fit consists of demands–ability (DA) fit, which occurs when employees have the skills, knowledge and abilities to meet the challenges and requirements of their job. On the other hand, needs–supply (NS) fit transpires when the employees' jobs satisfy their personal needs (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011).

The use of PJ fit ensures that employee selection procedures focus on selecting employees whose knowledge, skills and abilities match the job requirements (Sekiguchi & Huber, 2011). In addition, it is critical for HR practitioners to understand and be aware of the effect that PJ fit has on the recruitment process and, thus, avoid successful applicants leaving the company due to an overall lack of fit within the organisation, their jobs and the groups they function and work in (Barrick & Parks-Leduc, 2019).

PO fit is defined by Su et al. (2015) as the alignment of the individual's norms, culture and values in relation to the norms, culture and values of the organisation and the compatibility of the two. The outcomes of PO fit include changes in both organisational and personal values, and a high level of fit between employees and their organisation leads to a positive career outcome, increased employee satisfaction, commitment and feelings of competence and comfort in the organisation (Su et al., 2015).

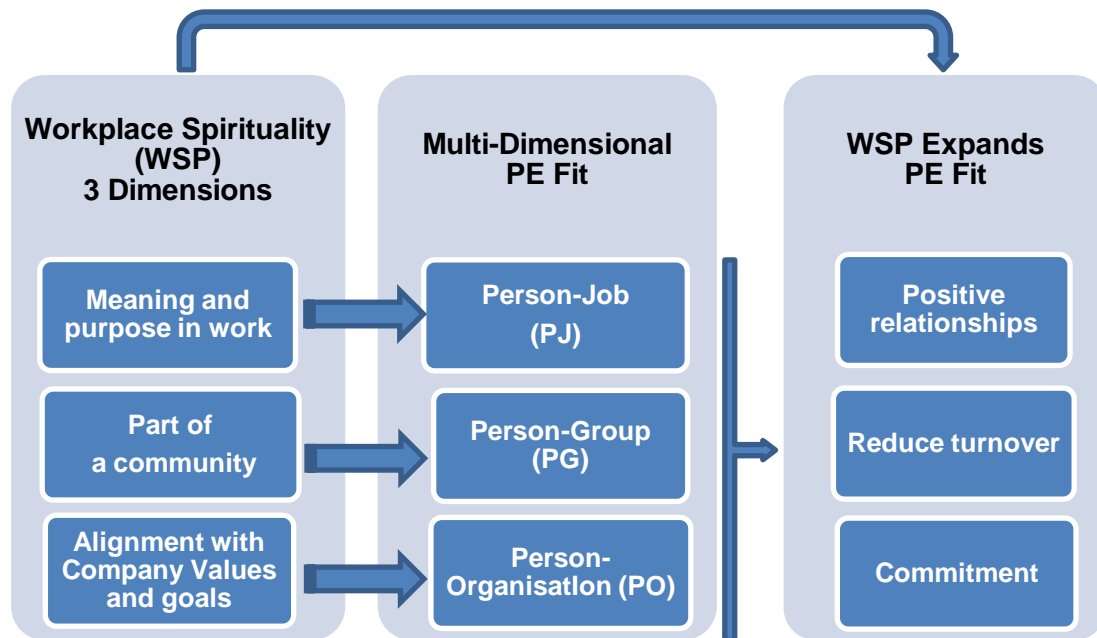
Van Vianen et al. (2013) remark that people develop mutual relationships in order to be included socially and to satisfy their need to belong. Therefore, these authors conclude that the outcomes of natural PG fit can be described in terms of a person's connection to and social integration with other people within the same organisation (Van Vianen et al., 2013). PG fit, therefore, refers to both the degree to which employees are required to work together and their interactions in the workplace. In addition, PG fit is the result of the compatibility that employees have with their workgroups, community, personal goals, values and social interaction skills (Glew, 2012; Su et al., 2015).

In the last decade, new research has evolved on workplace spirituality (WSP). This research examines the employees' level of motivation and engagement in the workplace (Milliman et al., 2018) and aims to determine whether employees experience their work as fulfilling and meaningful (Milliman et al., 2017). WSP is categorised by McLaughlin (2013) into three areas: (1) finding meaning and purpose in one's work, (2) the need to be part of a community and (3) the alignment with the organisation's goals and values. Organisations that create a spiritual environment for employees in the workplace encourage commitment and positive relationships, reduce turnover and ultimately increase person-environment (PE) fit (Shahid & Azhar, 2013).

The three domains of fit (PJ, PO and PG) described by Su et al. (2015) in relation to WSP are summarised in Figure 3.1 below by Milliman et al. (2017).

**Figure 3.1**

*A Multidimensional Person–Environment (PE) Fit Theory Model*



Source: Own compilation

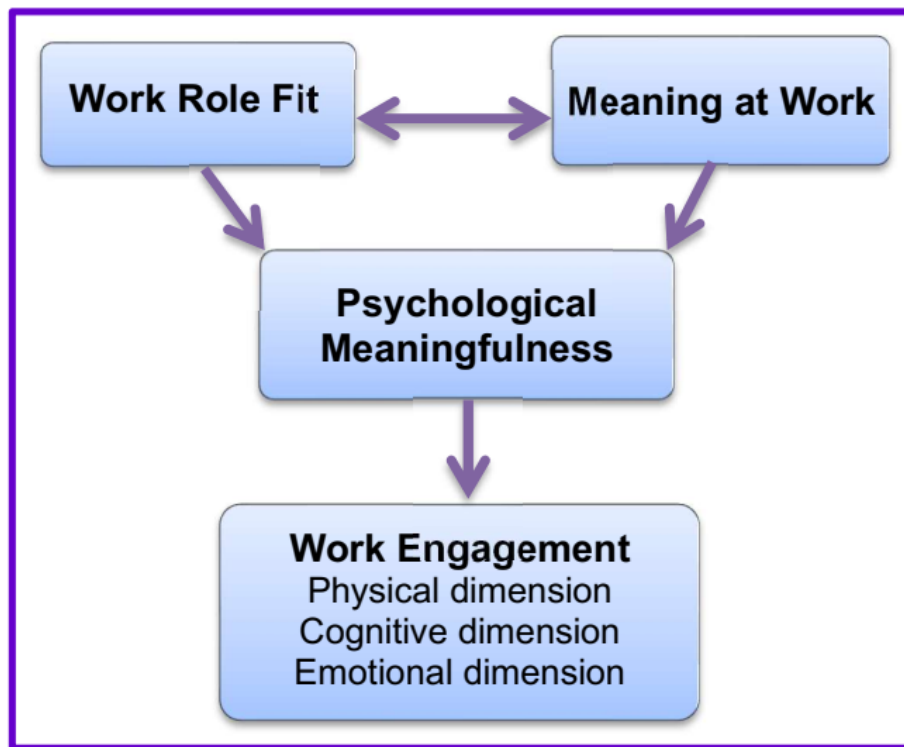
Su et al.’s (2015) three-factor model assists HR practitioners to understand the impact of recruiting employees who fit the organisation, ultimately resulting in increasing retention. This model is also critical in understanding employee behaviour (Schneider, 2001) and is reliable, thus providing a valuable measure to examine employees’ fit within their workplace. Kristof-Brown and Billsberry (2013) have criticised this model and indicate that the methodology behind the model is too diverse and complex to conceptualise and measure fit.

**The model of May et al. (2004)**

The second model, namely the work–role fit (WRF) model of May et al. (2004), comprises the fit between employees’ self-concept and their role in the workplace, and is measured by items such as “My job ‘fits’ how I see myself”; “The work I do in this job helps me satisfy who I am” and “My job ‘fits’ how I see myself in the future”.

**Figure 3.2**

*The Conceptual Model of Fit*



Source: Van Zyl et al., 2010, p. 16

May et al. (2004) state that employees invest more of themselves when they achieve the goals set for them by the organisation and experience a connection between the requirements of their work role and the self. When the work roles match the employee's values (Waterman, 1993) and involve the employee's individual strengths (Seligman, 2011), the experiences of one's self-concept in relation to the WRF is increased (May et al., 2004). Individuals experiencing high levels of WRF perceive their jobs as meaningful and are willing to go beyond the limitations of their job descriptions to accomplish tasks (Dik & Duffy, 2008). An opportunity to express one's strengths in the workplace also leads to greater WRF, which leads to work engagement (May et al., 2004; Olivier & Rothmann, 2007). Moreover, employees feel more effective in their job when they experience WRF (Kahn, 1990) and recognise their work as a career and not merely as a job (Dik & Duffy, 2008). Alternatively, the result of employees continually experiencing low levels of WRF fit is manifest as an increase in their levels of frustration and negativity (Meyers, 2007) and a job which has to be recrafted in terms of individuals reshaping their work activities to derive more meaning (Wrzesniewski, 2003).

In summary, May et al.'s (2004) model advises that a PE fit theory can be used successfully to measure an individual's developmental stage in their surrounding work environment. The limited items listed in the work-role (WR) model can be considered as a weakness, as three

questions resulted in insufficient measuring of PE fit. In addition, it is evident that the model has not been used sufficiently in the hospitality industry.

The two conceptualisations, namely that of Su et al. (2015) and that of May et al. (2004), are summarised in tabular format (Table 3.1) below:

**Table 3.1**  
*A Summary of the Two Conceptualisations of Fit*

Conceptualisations of Fit	Definition	Main facets of model	Explanation of the sub-variable
Personal Environment (PE) Fit (Su et al., 2015)	Su et al. (2015) state that fit occurs between employees and the entire organisation, their groups and their jobs.	Person–job (PJ) fit	PJ fit discusses the match between the employee's personal characteristics and the job characteristics.
		Person–organisation (PO) fit	PO fit is the alignment of the individual's norms, culture and values in relation to the norms, culture and values of the organisation and the compatibility of these two settings.
		Person–group (PG) fit	PG fit, therefore, refers to both the degree to which employees are required to work together and their interactions in the workplace
Work-role fit (WRF) (May et al., 2004)	May et al. (2004) state that fit comprises the fit between an employee's self-concept and their role in the workplace	Employee's self-concept	Employees achieve a high level of meaning in their work when their work roles and activities are aligned with their self-concept.
		Employee's role in the workplace related to ✓ employee's value ✓ employee meaningfulness	Employees whose work roles are aligned with their self-concept, experience psychological meaningfulness
		Employee's role in the workplace related to ✓ work engagement ✓ cognitive dimension ✓ physical dimension ✓ emotional dimension	Employees whose work roles are compatible with their values achieve good WRF, psychological meaningfulness and work engagement

Source: Own compilation

For the purpose of this study, the WRF model (May et al., 2004) will be adopted. Even though PE fit has been researched extensively, the concept of fit is unknown in the hospitality industry. The current insufficiency of published material implies that the impact of PE fit in the hospitality industry has been overlooked. Moreover, talent retention is a key

challenge facing HR managers (Koketso & Rust, 2012) and a starting point to its resolution could be to measure the level of PE fit in the hospitality industry.

### **3.3.2 Flourishing**

Flourishing is presented as a multidimensional concept that includes a series of “well” feelings (i.e. emotional wellbeing) and effective functioning (i.e. psychological and social wellbeing) in the work environment (Rothmann, 2013). Keyes and Annas (2009) arrive at a similar conclusion, noting that flourishing occurs in an environment where an individual experiences psychological, emotional and social wellbeing.

Research teams such as Keyes (2007), Huppert and So (2013), Diener et al. (2010) and Seligman (2011) define flourishing differently; however, all agree on the following common attribute, namely that flourishing refers to a high level of subjective wellbeing.

Studies on flourishing show that the concept can be disseminated to various theoretical models that can, in turn, be used for investigating and documenting the different perspectives, such as engagement, wellbeing, relationships, meaning and emotions. These different models are explored further in this study and flourishing is distinguished as either unidimensional or multidimensional.

Three flourishing models, namely, (1) the Huppert and So (2009) model, (2) the PERMA model of Seligman (2011) and (2) the Flourishing at Work Model by Rautenbach (2015), will be described and the differences and similarities explained. All three models contain two common factors, namely that flourishing refers to excessive levels of subjective wellbeing; and that wellbeing is a multidimensional paradigm that cannot be measured sufficiently using a single-item assessment (Hone et al., 2014).

#### **The Huppert and So (2009) model**

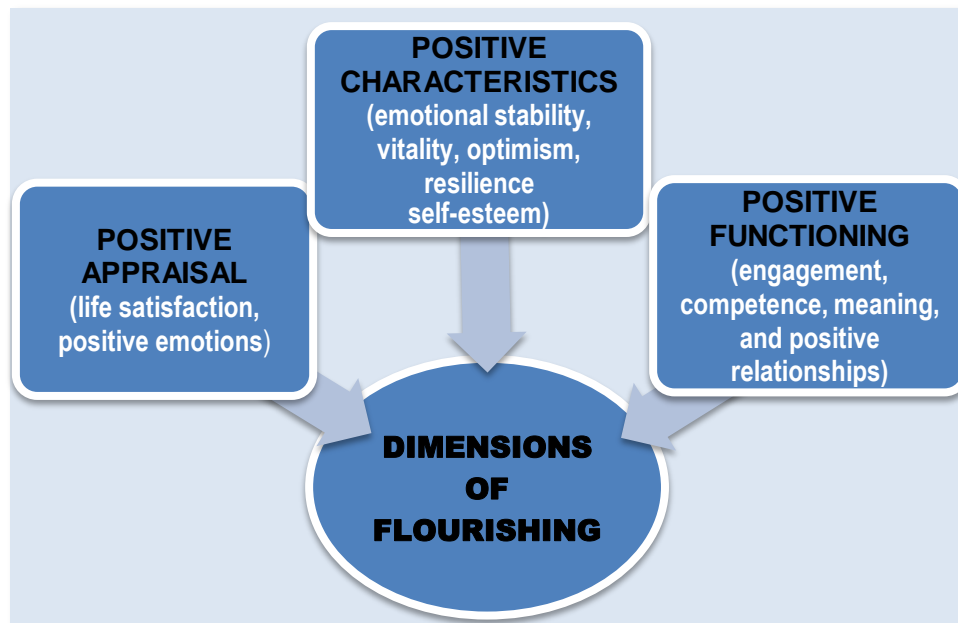
Huppert and So (2013) define the features of wellbeing as the opposite of the symptoms of depression and anxiety, and delineate ten positive features of flourishing or wellbeing, namely: emotional stability, competence, purpose and meaning, engagement, positive emotion, optimism, positive relationships, self-esteem, resilience and vitality. In addition, the concept of flourishing is described by Huppert and So (2009) as a means of theorising the state of wellbeing that exists when a person is functioning effectively, is “feeling good” and his/her life is going well.

Figure 3.3 provides a visual representation of Huppert and So’s (2009) model. Huppert and So (2013) conceptualise flourishing in terms of positive mental health based on three dimensions; namely, positive characteristics (including vitality, emotional stability, resilience, optimism, flexibility, and self-esteem), positive functioning (including meaning, engagement,

competence and positive relationships), and positive appraisal (including life satisfaction and positive emotion). Huppert and So's (2013) concept of flourishing is summarised in Figure 3.3 as follows:

**Figure 3.3**

*A Model of Flourishing*



Source: Own compilation

Huppert and So's (2009) model is the only model which requires the endorsement of one particular variable, describing flourishing as an individual experiencing that their life as going well. The authors use the concept of flourishing synonymously with mental wellbeing, symbolising flourishing as mental health. Therefore, Huppert and So's (2009) criterion was not developed for measuring flourishing in the work context.

### **Seligman's (2011) PERMA model**

Seligman (2011) states that the standard for measuring wellbeing is "flourishing" and that the goal of positive psychology is to increase flourishing. Seligman (2011) defines flourishing as the status of an individual's wellbeing in life whilst experiencing the five key elements portrayed in the PERMA model, which is generally described as a multidimensional approach. Seligman (2011) theorises that flourishing can be defined and measured as five separate, yet conversely correlated, constructs, namely the PERMA elements. The PERMA model of wellbeing consists of the following elements: positive emotions (P), engagement (E), relationships (R), meaning (M), and accomplishment (A) and proposes that wellbeing consists of feelings and functioning dimensions.

Asebedo and Seay (2015) explain the five components of the PERMA model as follows:

Positive emotions (P) reflects the individual's pleasure through positive affect and subjective assessment of their past, present and future, for example comfort, happiness, life satisfaction and optimism. This component also includes the sharing of experiences and knowledge, connections with other individuals, teams and the organisation for which they work, with the aim of changing their mind-set and developing greater levels of trust and collaboration.

Engagement (E) refers to the psychological status of individuals who are fully engaged in both their own goals and those of the organisation, as well as being completely absorbed in their task or activity, resulting in the loss of their sense of time. Engaged individuals create an open channel of communication which promotes collaboration and a culture of teamwork.

Relationships (R) refers to the positive, supportive, trusting and fulfilling connection one makes with others while creating a desire to encourage and support each other. The team's success is determined by the strength of the relationship the team members encounter with each other.

Meaning (M) refers to individuals moving beyond their roles, encountering a sense of belonging and contributing towards the purpose of the organisation. Individuals experience meaning when they discover their talents and strengths and realise that these are useful within the organisation.

Achievement (A) (occasionally called the accomplishment component) refers to the pursuit of winning, success, support and appreciation from other individuals, which subsequently increases the value of the team.

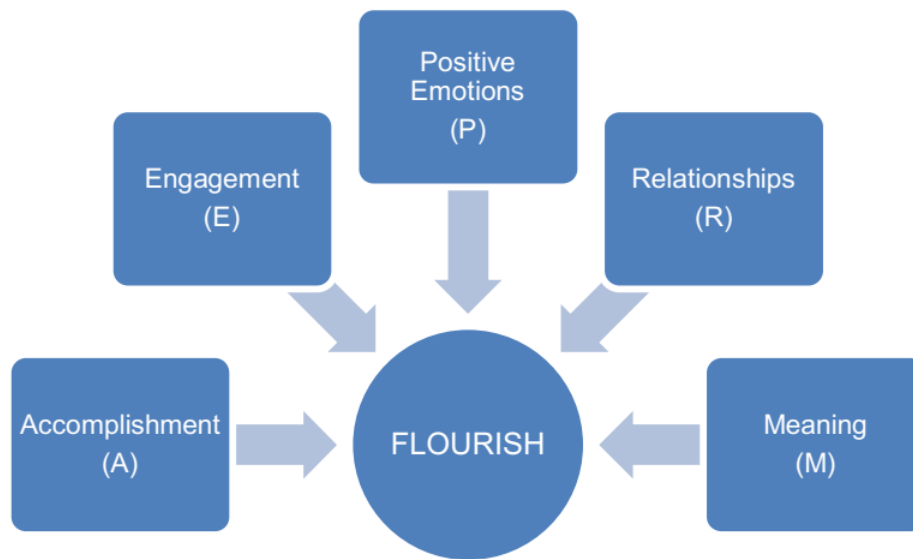
Seligman's (2011) PERMA theory argues that each element of wellbeing should have three properties: It should (1) contribute to wellbeing; (2) define and measure wellbeing independently of the other elements (exclusivity); and (3) pursue wellbeing for its own sake and not only for obtaining any of the other elements (Khaw & Kern, 2015).

Seligman's (2011) wellbeing theory is summarised in Figure 3.4 below. Asebedo and Martin (2015) state that an individual flourishes when they experience the five key elements, namely, Positive emotions, Engagement, Relationships, Meaning, and Accomplishment – abbreviated as PERMA – which are illustrated in Figure 3.4.



**Figure 3.4**

*The Wellbeing Theory (PERMA)*



Source: Own compilation

Although this multidimensional instrument reveals cross-time stability, reliability and deviation from other measures, Oishi and Schimmack (2010) criticise the model and indicate that a need exists to test the measure and the PERMA theory across different cultures. Cross-cultural studies are critical in developing valid measures of psychological constructs in order to take into account variations in response styles, culture and judgement biases that might be country-specific.

### **The Flourishing at Work Model by Rautenbach (2015)**

Rautenbach (2015) defines flourishing in the workplace as the employees' state of wellbeing achieved through positive experiences and job-related factors. Rautenbach (2015) reports on the psychometric properties of an extended version of the Flourishing-at-Work Scale (FAWS), namely the Flourishing-at-Work Scale – Short Form (FAWS-SF), and proves that a need exists for a short measure to establish workplace flourishing.

The FAWS-SF (Rautenbach, 2015) was derived from the FAWS of Rothmann (2013), which measures flourishing at work as a newly developed model. The FAWS-SF, consisting of the three dimensions of wellbeing at work, namely emotional, psychological and social wellbeing in the work context, are explained by Janse van Rensburg et al. (2017) and Rautenbach and Rothmann (2017). Rautenbach (2015) states that the FAWS-SF can be used to assess the flourishing dimensions (emotional, psychological and social wellbeing) of employees in the workplace.

Emotional wellbeing refers to the employees' overall satisfaction with life, consisting of three dimensions, namely, positive affect, negative affect and job satisfaction (Van Zyl & Rothmann, 2019). Employees compare their work experiences, as well as their perceptions of their job with the quality of their work life, which is associated with job satisfaction, health, wellbeing and productivity (Pereira et al., 2019). Positive and negative affects involve reflections on the pleasant and unpleasant experiences an employee has in the job (Rothman, 2013). Positive affect refers to the pleasant responses of employees to work activities, such as hope, pride, joy, serenity and gratitude. Negative affect refers to negative responses, for instance sadness, frustration, anger, anxiety, guilt and boredom, creating unpleasant emotions. Job satisfaction entails the long-term assessment of the employee's job (Rojas & Veenhoven, 2013).

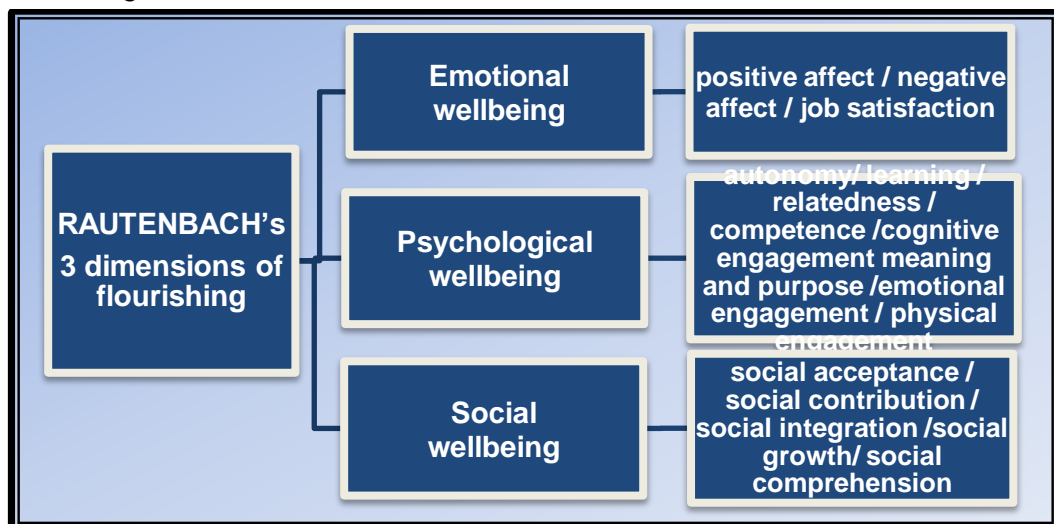
Psychological wellbeing refers to the individuals' positive functioning in life and consists of the following eight dimensions, namely, autonomy, learning, relatedness, competence, cognitive engagement, meaning and purpose, emotional engagement, and physical engagement.

Social wellbeing relates to individuals' evaluation of their functioning on a public and social level comprising five items: social acceptance, social contribution, social integration, social growth, and social comprehension.

The FAWS-SF by Rautenbach (2015) is summarised in Figure 3.5 as follows:

**Figure 3.5**

*The Flourishing at Work Model*



Source: Own compilation

In Table 3.2 a summary of the three different conceptualisations of flourishing is presented to give an overview of the three models.

**Table 3.2***A Summary of the Three Different Conceptualisations of Flourishing*

<b>The Flourishing Model</b>	<b>Definition</b>	<b>The conceptualisation of the Flourishing Model</b>	<b>Main facets/characteristics of the model</b>
Huppert & So (2009)	Huppert and So (2009) define flourishing as the means of theorising the state of wellbeing that exists when a person is functioning effectively	The three dimensions: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• positive characteristics</li> <li>• positive functioning</li> <li>• positive appraisal</li> </ul>	Positive relationships, engagement, meaning, self-esteem, positive emotions, competence, optimism, emotional stability, resilience and vitality
Seligman (2011)	Flourishing is defined by Seligman (2011) as the status of an individual's wellbeing in life while experiencing the five key elements.	The five components of PERMA: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• positive emotions</li> <li>• engagement</li> <li>• relationships</li> <li>• meaning</li> <li>• accomplishment</li> </ul>	Positive relationships, engagement, meaning and purpose, positive emotions and accomplishment/competence
Rautenbach (2015)	Flourishing is defined by Rautenbach (2015) as the employees' state of wellbeing achieved through positive experiences and job-related factors.	The three-dimensional wellbeing at work: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• emotional wellbeing</li> <li>• psychological wellbeing</li> <li>• social wellbeing</li> </ul>	Social acceptance, social contribution, social integration, social growth, social comprehension, cognitive engagement, emotional engagement, physical engagement, negative effect, meaning and purpose, job satisfaction, autonomy, positive affect, relatedness, competence and learning

Source: Own compilation

### 3.3.3 Organisational commitment

Studies on organisational commitment indicate that the concept can be separated into diverse theoretical models which investigate and document the different perspectives articulated in the workplace. The different models distinguish organisational commitment as either unidimensional or multidimensional.

In earlier years, Porter et al. (1974) used organisational commitment to introduce the concept as a unidimensional model, focusing on an attitudinal dimension encompassing the loyalty, identification and involvement of the employee regarding the organisation. Porter et al. (1974) define commitment as being founded on the involvement of the employee with the organisation and they consider organisational commitment as a unidimensional concept based on the emotional commitment. Previously, the unidimensional models of commitment indicated that the single element of time was suggested as the most important variable for commitment. The longer the employee remains with the organisation, the greater their personal commitment (Becker, 1960; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972).

The organisational commitment (OC) model, developed by Steers (1977), uses a multidimensional approach and describes organisational commitment as an attitude reflecting both individual identification and involvement in the organisation. In addition, Steers (1977) OC model highlights that individuals will be committed to the assumption that they should develop a sufficiently positive attitude towards the organisation or its goals. The OC model consists of multiple constructs, namely: (1) personal characteristics (age, gender, level of education, nationality and personality factors); (2) job characteristics (task identity, feedback and interaction); and (3) outcomes of commitment (job attendance, the intention to quit, remaining with the organisation, performance and the actual employee turnover). When referred to the attitudinal approach, OC models could develop as a result of categories such as (1) work experiences (organisational factors e.g. unsatisfactory work life, remuneration, and benefits); (2) perceptions of the organisation; (3) personal characteristics and dependability (e.g. age, gender and education) and (4) personal importance, which subsequently develops into positive feelings towards the organisation and, in turn, leads to commitment (Mowday et al., 1982).

The differences between the multidimensional frameworks relating to organisational commitment are determined by the different intentions and strategies involved in the models' development. The different multidimensional models of organisational commitment present a challenge for developing one generic model, as well as formulating one common definition of commitment (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

The OC models which have produced the most research and explain commitment in relation to organisational behaviour will be discussed in this study. Therefore, the following three multidimensional theoretical models of organisational commitment will be explored in the section below: (1) the O'Reilly model (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986), (2) the Morrow model (1983) and (3) the three-component model of Meyer and Allen (1997).

### **The O'Reilly model (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986)**

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) define organisational commitment as the employees' psychological connection to the organisation, including loyalty, job involvement and their belief in the organisation's values. O'Reilly and Chatman (1989) state that commitment can be explained by firstly understanding the underlying psychology of commitment and, thereafter, managing commitment to develop an attachment between employees. The commitment of employees is determined by the employees' attitudes which result from them behaving in a certain way, regardless of whether they adopt the values of the organisation. The commitment of the employees is also evident when they remain in the organisation due to the attractive rewards the company offers (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986).

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) develop their multidimensional structure based on the hypothesis that commitment signifies a stance and represents an attitude towards the organisation. This model forms part of the process of development of the individual's internal commitment. Based on Kelman's (1958) research on attitude and behaviour change, O'Reilly and Chatman's model of organisational commitment developed a multidimensional framework which adopted three forms of commitment, namely, compliance, internalisation and identification.

The compliance stage focuses on the individual accepting to gain from compensation, rewards or promotion by the organisation, which is measured against the need to stay with the organisation (Beck & Wilson, 2000). Compliance occurs when the employees adopt attitudes and corresponding behaviour to gain specific rewards (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986).

The identification of a step further into deeper commitment occurs when the powers of other individuals are recognised to ensure a satisfying and rewarding relationship with the organisation (O'Reilly, 1989). Identification occurs when an employee accepts the influence to create or sustain a satisfying relationship with the organisation (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). This stage is supported by the normative element of commitment, as later identified by Meyer and Allen (1997).

An internalisation stage transpires when the employees realise that the organisation's principles and values are in harmony with their own values and principles and have similar morals (O'Reilly, 1989). In addition, internalisation occurs when the attitude and behaviour of the employee is inspired to adopt the company's values (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). This stage is based on the affective element of commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). During the identification stage the employees feel proud to be part of the organisation and accept the company's accomplishments. However, the identification stage is separated from the internalisation stage owing to the presence of employees who do not adopt the organisation's values as their own. For this reason, internalisation only occurs when the employees' values are similar to the values of the organisation (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986).

In summary, O'Reilly and Chatman's (1986) commitment model comprises three distinct stages of commitment, namely, compliance, internalisation and identification and categorised as follows:

**Figure 3.6**

*O'Reilly and Chatman's (1986) Model of Organisational Commitment*



Source: Adopted from Ferreira, 2012, p. 134–135

The benefit of O'Reilly and Chatman's (1986) model is that it is the first model to distinguish clearly between psychological attachment and instrumental exchange (commitment based on rewards) as forms of commitment (Weibo et al., 2010). Internalisation and identification correlate positively with employees' intention to remain with the organisation, whereas compliance correlates positively with turnover (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986).

### **The Morrow model (1983)**

Morrow (1983) laid a solid foundation for the different organisational commitment forms, as well as the theoretical paths that were included in all future models. Morrow (1983) defines organisational commitment as the dedication and loyalty an employee has towards his/her organisation. Furthermore, Morrow (1983) argues that organisational commitment is characterised by behaviour and attitude.

Morrow (1983) identifies five major elements of commitment which mutually influence each other and are divided into two main groups. The first group examines the commitment that affects the employee's work attitude that has no connection to the organisation the employee works for. The second group includes affective and continuance organisational commitment which is directly influenced by the organisation the employee works for (Allen & Meyer, 2011). The five commitment forms proposed by Morrow (1993) are: (1) affective organisational commitment; (2) continuance organisational commitment; (3) job involvement; (4) career commitment and (5) protestant work ethic endorsement.

Affective and continuance organisational commitment are related to the attitude towards the organisation which represents the individual's emotional attachment as well as positive attitude towards the organisation (Morrow, 1993).

Lodahl and Kejner (1965) were the first researchers to introduce the concept of job involvement and defined this concept as the degree to which the employee's work performance is affected by their self-esteem. In contrast to this approach, Kanungo (1982) developed a new scale to measure job involvement and defines this concept as employees' beliefs concerning their relationship with their present job and the extent to which the job can satisfy their individual needs. In turn, Morrow (1983) contends that employees' job involvement is a function of their personality differences; however Brooke et al. (1988) state that job involvement is conceptualised as employees' cognitive beliefs regarding their job.

Career commitment is defined as the attitude of the employees toward their profession. Morrow (1983) reasons that the best construct to measure the employees' focus on their careers (e.g. career involvement and career salience) is through their career commitment (Blau, 1985; Morrow, 1993).

Findings in the research of Cooper-Hakim and Viswesvaran (2005) proposes that career commitment is positively correlated with the employees' workplace attitude as well as commitment towards their performance, intention to leave and their development in the workplace. In addition, Cooper-Hakim and Viswesvaran (2005) determine that career commitment correlates moderately with job involvement as well as affective commitment and weakly with protestant work ethic (PWE) and continuance commitment (Blau, 1985).

Protestant work ethic (PWE) is the most common construct to measure the value of work commitment (Morrow, 1993). The concept of PWE originated from Weber (1958) and has a religious origin; however, currently PWE is conceptualised as the validation of the benefits and values related to placing work at the central point of an individual's life. Employees with a high level of PWE have a tendency to engage in positive work-related behaviours. Lounsbury et al. (2004) state that employees with high levels of PWE are more inclined to work longer hours with the aim of becoming more successful. Morrow (1983) states that PWE is a personality variable which has an impact on the manner in which employees perceive their work and their leisure activities. PWE is also linked to positive outcomes in the workplace, such as career success (Ghorpade et al., 2006).

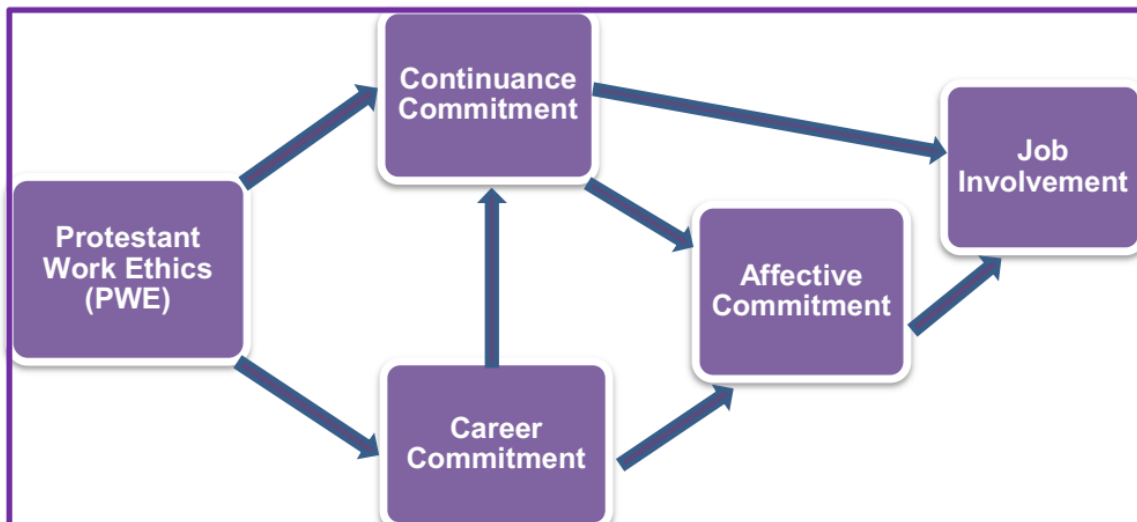
Morrow (1983) divides the above key elements of commitment into the following two major groups:

Group one contains commitment that manipulates non-work thoughts, for example professional commitment (Greenhaus, 1971), work commitment (Blau & Boal, 1987) and PWE (Mirels & Garrett, 1971). Group two contains commitment which is directly influenced by the organisation and includes equally both the continuance and the affective commitment with which career commitment is associated (Morrow, 1983).

The study of Zabel (2012) summarises Morrow's (1993) model, suggesting that a path exists from continuance commitment to affective commitment and mediates a relationship between PWE and job involvement. Morrow (1993) also proposes a path from PWE to career commitment well as continuance commitment.

**Figure 3.7**

*Morrow's Commitment Model*



Source: Zabel, 2012, p. 5

Morrow (1993) further discusses that a path exists between career commitment, continuance commitment and affective commitment, and states that a path exists from continuance commitment and affective commitment to job involvement. The relationships between the five different types of commitment, which have a mutual influence on one another, are illustrated in Figure 3.7 above.

### **The three-component model of Meyer and Allen (1997)**

In comparison to Morrow's commitment model (1993), the multidimensional model of Meyer and Allen (1997) makes the most significant contribution to the organisational commitment literature and seems to be the most widely used model in both literature and research.

Organisations, specifically HR departments, have been concerned with the employee's emotional attachment to the organisation, the continuation of their employment and commitment and their obligation to stay with the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 2011; Feldman & Ng, 2007).

In Meyer and Allen's (1997) earlier definition, organisational commitment is defined as a two-dimensional concept, namely affective and continuance commitment. Later, Allen and Meyer (1990) developed the three-dimensional commitment model adding a third dimension,



namely normative commitment. The key dimensions of the Allen and Meyer (1990) model are characterised as three components, namely (1) affective commitment, (2) continuance commitment and (3) normative commitment.

**Affective commitment** refers to the perception and desire the employee has to remain within the organisation due to job satisfaction and work experience. This dimension measures the employees' emotional attachment to and involvement in the organisation, creating a feeling of comfort as well as their identification with the organisation. Employees with a high level of affective commitment are inclined to be more committed to their organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

**Continuous commitment** is defined as the degree to which the employees feel committed to their organisations, which is associated with the perceived costs, both economic and social, of leaving (Meyer & Allen, 1997,).

**Normative commitment** in turn measures the employees' feelings of responsibility or obligation to remain with the organisation, based on the in-built norms of mutual benefit and the attachment to the organisation goals (Meyer & Allen, 1997: Singh & Gupta, 2015).

Meyer and Allen (2004) summarise their organisational commitment model as illustrated in Figure 3.8 below:

**Figure 3.8**

*The Three-component Model of Organisational Commitment.*



Source: Meyer & Allen, 1997, p. 12

According to Meyer and Allen (1997), organisational commitment is a psychological condition that (1) differentiates the association from the organisation, and (2) has repercussions for the choice to continue membership thereof. In their models of organisational commitment, Meyer and Allen (1997) and Jaros (2007) indicate that the model is experienced by the employee as three simultaneous, different mentalities that are

related, yet distinct, from each another. Additionally, Van Dyk (2011) enhances the aforementioned models and summarises affective commitment as “want to” stay with company, continuance commitment as “need to” stay with company and normative commitment as “should stay” with company.

The multidimensional framework refers to components of commitment and not types of commitment and the employee–employer relationship reveals variable degrees of all three levels of commitment, namely affective, continuance and normative commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). It should be pointed out that Meyer and Allen (2004) state that there is a lack of consensus regarding the definition of commitment, which results in their listing the construct as multidimensional.

The three-component model of Meyer and Allen (1997) is the most dominant model for studies of organisational commitment (Jaros, 2007) and used widely by researchers to predict employee outcomes such as turnover, absenteeism, retention, job performance and behaviour (Meyer et al., 2002).

Affective and normative commitment are highly interrelated. Morin et al. (2011) indicate that the model’s weakness is that it does not consider that participants originate from different subpopulations in which the relations between the variables may differ quantitatively. Meyer and Morin (2016) argue that a study of organisational commitment is inadequate, as the complex interactions cannot be measured due to the combinations of the forms of commitment that were too complex.

The similarities and difference of the aforementioned commitment models are summarised in Table 3.3 below:

**Table 3.3**

*A Summary of the Conceptualisation of the Commitment Models*

<b>The multi-dimensional models</b>	<b>Definition</b>	<b>Main facets of the model</b>	<b>Explanation of the sub-variable</b>
O’Reilly, Chatman (1986)	O’Reilly and Chatman (1989) define organisational commitment as the employees’ psychological connection to the organisation.	Compliance	Compliance refers to the calculative attachment based on rewards

Table 3.3: A Summary of the Conceptualisation of the Commitment Models (cont'd)

The multi-dimensional models	Definition	Main facets of the model	Explanation of the sub-variable
Morrow (1983)	Morrow (1983) defines organisational commitment as the dedication and loyalty an employee has towards his/her organisation.	Internalisation	Internalisation refers to the integration of self-identity into the organisation's values (the affective element of commitment) The normative element of commitment refers in-built norms of mutual benefit and the attachment to the organisation goals
		Identification	Identification refers to adhering consciously to the organisation's values
		Affective commitment and continuance commitment	Affective and continuance organisational commitment are related to the attitude towards the organisation.
		Job involvement	Job involvement is defined as the degree to which the employee's work performance is affected by their self-esteem.
		Career commitment	Career commitment is defined as the attitude of the employees toward their profession.
Meyer and Allen (1997)	Meyer and Allen (1997) defined organisational commitment as a three-dimensional concept.	Protestant work ethic endorsement (PWE)	PWE is the most collective construct to measure the value of work commitment
		Affective commitment	Employees' emotional attachment to and involvement in the organisation
		Normative commitment	Employees' feelings of responsibility or obligation to remain with the organisation
		Continuous commitment	The degree to which the employees feel committed to their organisations

Source: Own compilation

For the purposes of this study, the Meyer and Allen (1997) three-component model of commitment is adopted because it has undergone the most extensive empirical evaluation to date and forms the foundation of the most effective measuring instruments (Allen & Meyer, 2011).

Meyer and Allen (1997) confirm that preceding research studies indicate significant validity and reliability for the affective, continuance and normative organisational commitment

subscales. Furthermore the organisational commitment scale (OCS) is selected for this study because Allen and Meyer's (1990) conceptualisation of commitment argues that commitment binds the employee to the organisation and thus reduces the probability of turnover. The greatest strength of this model is that it views organisational commitment from the employees' perspective and not from the perspective of the organisation.

### **3.4 INTEGRATION: THE THEORETICAL LINK BETWEEN FIT, FLOURISHING AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT**

Talent retention remains the fundamental challenge HR managers face owing to the increasingly competitive need for qualified and skilled talent globally. Limited labour markets, globalisation and economic uncertainty are key issues that have an impact on the workplace and HR practises such as remuneration and rewards, recruitment, training and development, job security and retention (Krishnaswamy & Mostafiz, 2019).

To address this challenge, researchers suggest that focus should fall on PE fit from the outset, because research has established that it is a precursor of employees' intention to leave an organisation (Janse van Rensburg et al., 2017; Wheeler et al., 2007).

The topic of intention to leave is an important element of any organisation and therefore greatly researched as the immediate predecessor of turnover (Halawi, 2014). The concept of intention to leave is theorised by Dhanpat et al. (2018) as the means of keeping employees within the organisation by minimising any plans they may have to quit the organisation.

The intention to leave concept is defined as the employee's plan to leave their current organisation and find another job in the near future (Purani & Sahadev, 2007). When employees experience the intention to leave, they are likely to be separated, disengaged and possibly experience burnout (Bothma & Roodt, 2013), and are likely to experience a lack of fit with their environment, ultimately resulting in intention to leave (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Redelinghuys & Botha, 2016; Wheeler et al., 2007).

Retention is influenced by the employees' sense of fit. Fit describes the employee's perception of fitting into the organisation, and how well the organisation fits into the employees' lives (Janse van Rensburg et al., 2017; Lee et al., 2004; Tanova & Holtom, 2008), as well as improving their intention to stay (Abdalla et al., 2017; Armstrong, 2006; Snyder & Lopez, 2002). In turn, research conducted by Trevisan et al. (2014) indicates that the employees' decision to leave is influenced by their fit perceptions and, according to Stewart and Brown (2019), employees who experience poor fit in their work environment are likely to leave the organisation.

Therefore, when employees recognise that they fit in with their work environment, they experience satisfaction with their jobs (Bretz et al., 1994; Gregory et al., 2010; Stewart & Brown, 2019), a situation which decreases the employee turnover rate (Wheeler et al., 2007). Furthermore, when employees perceive fit in relation to their environment, they are more satisfied with their jobs (Bretz et al., 1994; Gregory et al., 2010; Shibiti, 2019), thus decreasing their susceptibility to the intention to leave or becoming part of actual staff turnover (Wheeler et al., 2007).

Kristof-Brown and Billsberry's (2013) research holds that PE fit is positively connected to the wellbeing variables such as personal growth, learning, competence, engagement, purpose and meaning (Janse van Rensburg et al., 2017), and job satisfaction. In addition, Gabriel et al.'s (2014) study claims that PO fit and PJ fit are positively related to positive affect and job satisfaction. Previous studies indicate that the three dimensions of PE fit have a positive link to the flourishing at work dimensions (Dik et al., 2013; Gabriel et al., 2014; Kristof-Brown & Billsberry, 2013; Van Vianen et al., 2013).

A study conducted on academics by Janse van Rensburg et al. (2017) shows that employees who feel that they fit in the workplace experience both positive affect and higher social wellbeing. Janse van Rensburg et al. (2017) established that individuals flourish when they perceive that they fit well in their work environment. Similar findings on employees' experiences are found in previous studies conducted by Dik et al. (2013), Gabriel et al. (2014), Johnson et al. (2013) and Van Vianen et al. (2013).

Similarly, Janse van Rensburg et al. (2017) state that flourishing at work is related to PE fit and, consecutively, that PE fit predicts the intentions of employees wanting to leave the company. The findings of a study conducted by Valentine et al. (2002) indicate that organisational commitment is positively related to PO fit, that PE fit has a big effect on flourishing and that a lack of flourishing affects the inclination of employees to leave organisations. Positive behaviours and career outcomes support flourishing at work and appear to play a bigger role in defining PE fit (Janse van Rensburg et al., 2017).

The concept of fit is linked to the results of organisational commitment in a study done by Kristof-Brown et al. (2005) which intercedes the positive relationship between PO fit and affective organisational commitment. This study shows that PO fit is directly influenced by affective organisational commitment. In addition, Kristof-Brown et al. (2005) and Chhabra (2015) indicates that PJ fit is directly related to affective organisational commitment and the findings of their study points out those employees who identify a match between their skills and abilities are more likely to be more committed to their organisation.

Evidence of past research work conducted by Kristof-Brown et al. (2005) indicates a positive and consistent link between affective organisational commitment and PJ fit. Cennamo and Gardner (2008) confirm that where employees experience poor fit, reduced organisational commitment is shown, as well as increased intentions to leave the organisation.

Additional researchers also indicate that PJ fit is positively linked to organisational commitment (Biswas & Bhatnagar, 2013; Cable & De Rue, 2002; Kim et al., 2013). In addition, Vogel and Feldman (2009) propose that PE fit is a predictor of organisational commitment. By increasing PE fit in the workplace, higher organisational commitment is achieved. Therefore, employees who perceive themselves as fitting into the work environment are more committed to the organisation (Ahmad et al., 2011). On the other hand, the results of a study by Scott et al. (2015) suggest that a decline in PO fit reduces employees' sense of commitment.

Parsa et al. (2009) indicate as true the fact that if employees do not fit in with the organisation's environment, they will ultimately leave the organisation for a more suitable fit. Studies reveal that the existence of fit produces greater wellbeing and performance (De Cooman et al., 2019; Hoffman & Woehr, 2006; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005) and such employees are more committed to the organisation and not particularly concerned about a career change (Behery, 2009). Su et al. (2015) state that employees who perceive a fit between their personal goals and the organisation's goals are more motivated to display positive behaviours and career outcomes.

Flourishing at work predicts a large percentage of variance in employees' intention to leave, which proposes that those who do not experience flourishing may leave the organisation (Janse van Rensburg et al., 2017). This statement is supported by findings indicating that the fact that some employees have low intentions to leave can be explained by their experiencing flourishing at work (Diedericks & Rothmann, 2014; Janse van Rensburg et al., 2017; Swart & Rothmann, 2012).

Rothmann (2013) identifies various precursors to flourishing in the work environment, such as (1) supporting and trusting relationships with leaders and managers; (2) fit for purpose; (3) sound relationships between co-workers; (4) the accessibility to physical, emotional and intellectual resources to perform the job; (5) stimulating and exciting roles and responsibilities; (6) clearly defined goals; (7) clear defining of roles; (8) fair remuneration; (9) job security, and (10) career development opportunities. According to Youssef and Luthans (2012), employees who experience flourishing are characterised by growth and optimal functioning. Flourishing employees feel and perform well, experience pleasant feelings frequently, are more successful and add value to their external world (Keyes, 2007) and are less likely to resign from their jobs (Rothmann, 2013). Diedericks and Rothmann (2014) are

well known for their statement that flourishing individuals display higher levels of organisational commitment and a decreased intention to leave in comparison to employees who are not flourishing.

When theoretically linking flourishing to organisational commitment, employees who experience flourishing compared to those who do not indicate higher levels of organisational commitment (Diedericks & Rothmann, 2014). In addition, flourishing leaders also have an impact on the motivation, commitment, loyalty and productivity of employees in the organisation (Worrall & Cooper, 2014). Petrie (2014) indicates that leaders who experience flourishing are more likely to share communication and information in the work environment, as well as to allow employees to participate in the decision-making processes.

The concept of organisational commitment is becoming increasingly significant, playing a vital role in HR management retention practices and policies. Many studies have identified the negative relationship between turnover and organisational commitment and a strong relationship between organisational commitment and employee retention (João, 2010; Meyer et al., 2006). The study of Diedericks and Rothmann (2014) offer a set of outcomes critical to organisational success, namely organisational commitment and the employees' intention to leave.

Organisational commitment is the key factor in the relationship between the organisation and the employee, creating a desire to remain with the organisation (Alrowwad et al., 2019). A stable and productive workforce may be a consequence of organisational commitment (Morrow, 1993; Qureshi et al., 2019) and highly committed employees tend to remain with their current organisation because they are satisfied and are most likely to undertake demanding work activities (Eliyana et al., 2019; Redelinguys et al., 2019).

Harman et al. (2007) and Mitchell et al. (2017) draw attention to employee turnover and focus on attitudes or components of turnover, including organisational commitment. Furthermore, Hytter (2007) establishes that employees' loyalty, trust, commitment and connection to the organisation have a direct influence on employee retention. Researchers argue that once a correlation exists between the organisation's goals, norms and values and the employees' personal goals, employees show commitment and will continue their employment with the organisation (Su et al., 2015; Van Vianen et al., 2013). Studies by Döckel et al. (2006), Kim and Ryu (2017) and Talukder (2019) have found that the most relevant factors influencing organisational commitment are remuneration and benefits, supervisor's support, job satisfaction and work-life balance. Researchers also indicated that organisational commitment practices improve employee performance and productivity, and that the employees' current status, on-the-job training, cohesion, non-monetary benefits, support and mentorship programmes play a significant role in promoting/enhancing

organisational commitment (Alrowwad et al., 2019; Nyamu, 2013). Hence, an organisation can benefit from offering a caring and supportive working environment which, in turn, results in employees revealing a commitment to achieve the organisational goals (João, 2010).

Consequently, Rhoades et al. (2001) and Di Pietro et al. (2019) believe that positive work conditions increase affective commitment, resulting in reduced employee turnover. According to Satardien et al. (2019), organisational commitment forms a connection between an individual and the organisation and reduces the probability of turnover. Hence, organisations need to implement efforts to develop their employees' organisational commitment to make them feel valued. Individuals who are affectively and normatively committed are more likely to remain with the organisation and contribute to its success (Al-Jabari & Ghazzawi, 2019). For an organisation to sustain specific knowledge for its competitive advantage, the affective commitment of employees is necessary to reduce voluntary turnover. On the other hand, low affective organisational commitment leads to a high turnover according to Meyer et al. (2018). Lee et al (2019) indicate that when employees have normative and affective commitment, they experience a better fit in the organisation. Therefore, employees who are committed to their jobs are less likely to leave their organisation. Döckel's (2003) study confirms that retention is closely connected to organisational commitment and has a significant impact on the development of organisational commitment among employees.

Thatcher et al. (2002) arrive at a similar conclusion, noting that organisational commitment is the primary indicator for turnover intention. Both affective and continuance commitment are vital in retaining key staff. If employees' experiences are sound in the organisation and their basic needs are met, they develop a stronger affective attachment to the organisation. If employees recognise the cost of leaving and how their competencies or skills developed during their employment, their persistence commitment may develop (Paré & Tremblay, 2007). The most significant component of organisational commitment, namely employees' normative commitment to the organisation, predicts their intention to stay. By enhancing normative commitment, the organisation can reduce employee turnover (Uraon, 2018).

Organisational commitment is an attitudinal factor through which the individual forms a psychological attachment to the organisation (Dey et al., 2014). The link between the three dimensions of commitment, namely affective, continuous, normative affirms that commitment is a psychological condition characterising employees' relationship with the organisation and affects their decision to stay or terminate their employment with the organisation (Al-Jabari & Ghazzawi, 2019). Therefore, organisational commitment reveals the responsive attitude employees have towards the organisation and the decision to leave or remain with the organisation (Ferreira, 2012; Meyer & Allen, 1997). On the other hand, a lack of



organisational commitment results in the employees leaving their organisation (Khalid & Ishaq, 2015), while a high level of organisational commitment reduces turnover intention (Kang et al., 2015).

In their study of 419 hotel workers in New Zealand, Brien et al. (2015) found that communication has a significant impact on the commitment of employees. Therefore, the employee turnover rate can be reduced if managers implement strategies to increase communication in the organisation (Joung et al., 2015; Lapointe & Vandenberghe, 2017). Robinson et al.'s (2014) study of 327 Australian hotel frontline employees concludes that the basic rewards offered to employees, for instance recognition, independence and appreciation, prompt organisational commitment for hospitality employees. Leaders who focus on organisational happiness encourage higher organisational commitment resulting in improved retention rates (Awang et al., 2015). In another study, Punjaisri et al. (2008) report that employees of a hotel chain who were supported by co-workers felt part of the organisation, increasing commitment and increased intention to stay. The study by Punjaisri et al. (2008) draws attention to a hotel chain reporting that employees who feel comfortable and supported by their colleagues feel part of the organisation, thus increasing their commitment and intention to stay with the organisation. A study by Kang et al. (2015) and Yao et al. (2019) explored the relationship of organisational commitment and turnover in the hospitality industry and the results indicate that a higher level of organisational commitment reduces turnover intention.

In a more recent study, Nazir et al. (2016) discuss the importance of organisational commitment in an international leading economy, namely China, proposing that management should select various initiatives for encouraging employee commitment, for example support from supervisors, more attractive benefits, allowing employees to have more autonomy and participation in decision-making.

Additionally, when opportunities for employees' career growth is lacking in their current organisation, organisational commitments are less visible (Jain & Sullivan, 2019; Lee et al., 2019; Weng et al., 2010). HR practitioners who support career development could create commitment and prevent the departure of valued employees (Ito & Brotheridge, 2005). Also, Weng et al. (2010) note that when employees lack personal career growth opportunities, their organisational commitment is also less evident.

Döckel et al. (2006), Chib (2019) and Ferreira (2012) conclude that employees' organisational commitment is related to retention factors that aim to retain good employees. Diedericks and Rothmann (2014) and Ferreira (2012) moreover comment that organisations failing to retain committed employees experience the consequences of deteriorating resources for future competitive capabilities. Losing talent has detrimental consequences

and organisations should strive to retain a committed workforce (Al Mamun & Hasan, 2017; Neiningger et al., 2010).

It is evident from the literature that organisational commitment directly influences retention. Although literature was found on organisational commitment in the hospitality industry, the hospitality industry in the Indian Ocean might differ significantly as the latter has unique challenges. Furthermore, no research was found with regard to either fit or flourishing in the hospitality industry. While links were found between fit and organisational commitment, fit and flourishing and flourishing and organisational commitment, no single integrated study was found linking the variables of fit, flourishing and organisational commitment, especially in the hospitality industry. Therefore the current study aims to close that research gap by studying fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in the hospitality industry.

### **3.5 VARIABLES INFLUENCING FIT, FLOURISHING AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT**

Demographic information collected during this study incorporates age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate). In the section below, the variables that may influence fit, flourishing and organisational commitment are discussed.

#### **3.5.1 Age**

##### **Fit**

Cennamo and Gardner (2008) report that the Baby Boomer generation (born between 1946 and 1964 and older than 55 years) shows higher PO fit compared to Generation X (born between 1965 and 1980) and Generation Y (born between 1980 and 1994). Feldman and Vogel's (2009) review establishes that changes in the employees' environmental characteristics have led to greater discrepancies between individuals' needs and organisations' resources and they conclude that age is generally negatively related to PO and PJ fit. In addition, Feldman and Vogel (2009) state that PO and PJ fit decreases as individuals mature because older employees perceive their remaining time in the company as limited and often remain in jobs with poor PJ fit until their retirement. Feldman and Vogel (2009) also suggest that PJ fit becomes less as people age because increasing numbers of older employees retire from the company.

Bednarska's (2017) study, based on a group of 981 tourism employees in 15 localities in Poland, found that PG fit is a strong predictor of work attitudes for Millennials (born between 1981 and 1996). Bednarska's (2017) paper contributes to the ongoing debate on generational diversity in the workplace and its implication for HR management. Specifically, in the service industry, it adds a generational perspective of the influence of PE fit on work-related attitudes.

It is thus evident that age does have an influence on fit.

## **Flourishing**

A study by Westerhof and Keyes (2010) of adults between the ages of 18 and 87 years found that older adults experience less psychological wellbeing but more emotional wellbeing than younger adults. Older individuals are described as having “complete” mental health, due to differences in life circumstances. Westerhof and Keyes (2010) conclude that older adults do not experience flourishing more than younger adults, regardless of the fact that these younger adults experience fewer problems with mental illness. Conflictingly, Huppert and So's (2009) study of people in Europe indicates that flourishing declines with age. These authors also indicate that people aged 65+ show the highest rates of flourishing, and middle-aged people show the lowest rates.

In conclusion, various studies indicate that flourishing levels differ with age; however contradicting results indicated that all ages experience flourishing and therefore age does not influence flourishing.

## **Organisational commitment**

Mathieu and Zajac (1990) state that commitment increases with age. Also, Mohammed and Eleswed (2013) comment that the most committed employees are older than 50 years (Generation X) and the least committed employees are younger (ranging from 21 to 30 years old) from the Millennial generation. Mohammed and Eleswed (2013) also state that older people are more committed to their organisations due to being less inclined to search for a new job, compared to younger employees who frequently search for and move to new jobs. In contrast, a study by Chan and Qiu (2011) found that age does not have any influence on organisational commitment. However, a study by Al-Aameri (2000) conducted with nurses indicated that organisational commitment is significantly correlated with age, thus implying that among the study sample, the older nurses are more committed in their workplace activities compared to younger nurses.

Although contradicting results have been found, the majority of studies have found that age does influence organisational commitment positively with organisational commitment increasing as age increases.

### **3.5.2 Gender**

#### **Fit**

An early study conducted by Lovelace and Rosen (1996) indicated that woman perceive they fit less well in their work environment due to having diverse out-of-work interests,

different work–family balance and a different definition of what career success means. A more recent study by Williamson and Perumal (2018) indicates that out of 40 employees who regarded themselves as a non-fit within the organisation, 23 employees (58%) of this group regarded gender as a significant factor influencing fit within the workplace.

Cognard-Black (2008) states that female employees in the workplace face various challenges, for example resentment and opposition, which result in their experiencing difficulty in both PG and PO fit. A study conducted by Anwar (2012), with junior, middle and senior level management in public or private organisations in Karachi, found that compared to their male counterparts, women managers experience higher PE fit and significantly greater PJ fit. However, this study further revealed that no significant gender differences were found for PO fit. By contrast, a study conducted by Scott et al. (2015) found that compared to men, female employees experience lower levels of PO fit.

In summary, some studies have shown that gender plays a role in fit, both positively and negatively, and hence the literature indicates contradicting result.

### **Flourishing**

The study by Huppert and So (2009) administered in 23 countries in a European Social Survey, with a total sample of 43 000 adults (aged 16+), indicated that gender differences have an insignificant impact on flourishing. However, the StatsSA census of June 2016 found that women, who occupied 34% of managerial positions in the local government, experienced stronger flourishing than their male counterparts (Visagie & Diedericks, 2018). Diener et al. (2010) found that no significant differences existed between the flourishing results of women compared to males, therefore no evidence was found of gender difference on the flourishing scale. Conversely, Howell and Buro's (2014) research revealed a gender difference because women scored higher than men on the flourishing scale. In agreement with this finding, Tong and Wang (2017) also established that gender indeed has an influence on flourishing.

It is evident in various studies that differences exist between flourishing and gender. However, contradictory results were also found related to male and female flourishing in the workplace.

### **Organisational commitment**

Early studies found that women were more committed in the workplace than their male colleagues (Cramer, 1996; Loscocco, 1990; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982; Singh et al., 2004). However, many researchers questioned this link and could not validate

the presence of sufficient evidence to support the existence of a relationship between gender and organisational commitment (Becker et al., 2009; Billingsley & Cross, 1992).

A more recent research finding in a study by Visagie and Diedericks (2018) provides clear gender differences and claims that gender disparity negatively influences female organisational commitment. The women who participated in this study also indicated that the exclusion of organisational culture was an obstacle to their progression. In the StatsSA census of June 2016, it was revealed that women occupy 34% of managerial positions in the local government experience a high level of organisational commitment (Visagie & Diedericks, 2018). Visagie and Diedericks (2018) further suggest that gender disparity negatively influences female organisational commitment, especially affective commitment, and contributes towards increasing gender equity in the workplace.

In addition, a study by Sloan (2017) assessed gender differences in commitment and highlighted the importance of demographic characteristics, indicating that gender is a significant predictor of affective commitment in employees. Sloan (2017) states that researchers have conceded mixed findings concerning gender differences in organisational commitment; however, in general research has shown that women experience higher levels of organisational commitment than men. In particular, Sloan's (2017) study on gender differences in affective commitment indicated that women are likely to have 1.32 times higher levels of affective commitment compared to males.

The demographic characteristic of the gender of employees has been an active research topic in the literature on antecedents of organisational commitment. The evidence to date records that female employees have significantly higher levels of organisational commitment than their male counterparts (Gasengayire & Ngatuni, 2019). This study (Gasengayire & Ngatunii, 2019) states that gender negatively affects overall continuance commitment, as well as organisational and normative commitment.

It can be concluded that gender inequity cultivates negative affective commitment among female employees in the workplace.

### **3.5.3 Nationality**

#### **Fit**

Employees from different nations have different norms and values which influence their traits and behaviours in their foreign workplace. However, their personal culture fit helps them as expatriates to adjust to new cultures (Nawab et al., 2011; Salilew, 2019).

Lovelace and Rosen (1996) explored whether or not the experiences of white, African-American and Hispanic managers are similar concerning the perception of fit. They

proposed that a minority of the white, African-American and Hispanic managers perceived that they fitted in less well within their organisation, as opposed to managers of other nationalities, due to their differences in culture or nationality. The study of Williamson and Perumal (2018) cites that the largest number of their participants (30 out of 40) indicated that their sense of misfit was a result of their racial group. However, the views Elfenbein and O'Reilly (2007) expressed in an earlier study contradict this finding and Jackson and Chung (2008) also suggest that an employee's fit in the organisation is not a result of people being dissimilar or of the same nationality or culture. In addition, Talbot and Billsberry's (2010) research indicates that fit or non-fit results from people being different in terms of their nationality.

In conclusion, contradicting results were found regarding fit in relation to nationality or culture, as no clear differences exist between fit and nationality.

### **Flourishing**

Findings on how cultural dimensions influence employees' wellbeing in the workplace are discussed in an early study by Hofstede (1998) and later by Travis (2010). These researchers note that subcultures and their subsequent diversity within societies also exist in the workplace environment. Both authors agree that individuals' culture influences their flourishing, particularly with respect to their wellbeing.

A study by Holck and Andersen (2018) conducted with a diverse company employing more than 118 nationalities in the cleaning and catering industry reveals an increase in cultural interaction and social unity, which improves an individual's wellbeing at work. Scott (2015) states that most subcultures in a nation have common traits, making them more compatible in the work environment and resulting in employees experiencing increased social wellbeing. In addition, Tov and Nai (2018) state that the existence of various subcultures in a nation results in people experiencing different levels of wellbeing. The correlation between nationality and wellbeing reveals that a significant relationship exists between these two factors. Employees working in a diverse workplace influenced by different languages, religions, family systems, and traditions, experience higher levels of flourishing, thus indicating a positive state of flourishing in the workplace (Ghosh, 2019).

In conclusion, it is evident that employees who work in a diverse environment experience higher flourishing.

### **Organisational commitment**

A one-way analysis of this variance (ANOVA) was conducted in a study by Cherian et al. (2018) with nurses in the medical environment, which determined the relationship between

nationality and organisational commitment. The findings illustrate a significant difference and the level of commitment of the employees differs according to their nationality. For example, Arab nurses are more committed compared to other nationalities (Cherian et al., 2018). Al-Aameri (2000) also found a difference in commitment between Arab and European employees. The European employees were found to be less committed than other nationalities; however, this research did not indicate any difference in commitment between European employees (Al-Aameri, 2000). In countries, such as India, Peru and Spain, a study with 329 employees from different business organisations and across diverse cultures found that culture has no influence on employees' affective commitment (Agarwala et al., 2014). In addition, a study of Yaghi and Aljaidi (2014) examined the relationship between employees' nationality and their organisational commitment and the analyses of the findings indicated that employees' nationality is significantly correlated with the level of their commitment.

In summary, most studies indicate that the nationality of employees does have an influence or impact on employees' organisational commitment.

#### **3.5.4 Marital status**

##### **Fit**

Prior research investigating whether people show fit based on their marital status is very limited, however one study on this correlation conducted in earlier years by Beattie (1991) proposed that marital status is occasionally used as an indicator to determine the likelihood of employees' being committed to and fit into the organisation. No further results from research on this correlation were discovered. No conclusion can thus be drawn on whether marital status influences the fit an employee perceives within his or her organisation.

##### **Flourishing**

The study of Huppert and So (2009) confirmed that in over 23 regions in Europe, married people are more likely to experience flourishing compared to those who are not married. In turn, Hori et al (2019) found that married employees are more likely to have flourishing and VanderWeele (2017) states that marriage is an important pathway to flourishing. However, the results of Momtaz et al.'s (2016) research involving a logistic regression analysis reveal that neither being single nor married has any considerable impact on flourishing.

In conclusion, employees who are married positively experience flourishing in the workplace.

##### **Organisational commitment**

Chan and Qiu (2011) state that single employees are more committed to the organisation than married employees and, in addition, indicate that single employees experience greater

job satisfaction, which has a substantial positive correlation with organisational commitment. A study among nurses in an Arab hospital which examined the association between marital status and commitment, determined that widowed employees differ from married and divorced employees and that married nurses show more commitment than widowed employees (Al-Aameri, 2000). In three other countries, namely India, Peru and Spain, a study with 329 employees across cultures from different types of businesses revealed no differences relating to marital status with regard to organisational commitment (Agarwala et al., 2014). The results of a survey on a sample of 336 frontline bank employees in Jordan indicated that organisational commitment shows no significant statistical difference in all three organisational commitment dimensions relating to employees' marital status (Albdour & Altarawneh, 2014). In addition, statistical results from a study of 132 married and 44 unmarried teachers in Bangalore showed that there was no difference in terms of marital status for affective, organisational, normative and continuous commitment (Clarence & George, 2018).

In summary, studies indicate contradictory results in relation to marital status and organisational commitment and therefore no differences can be postulated.

### **3.5.5 Employment status**

#### **Fit**

In a study relating to fit between expatriates in an international environment, researchers Nawab et al. (2011) found that fit between international cultures is critical for the achievement of expatriates' adjustment to their foreign work environment. Statistics relating to expatriates terminating their contracts early and returning to their own countries indicates a poor fit between the employee and the organisation. Research findings relating fit to employment status (expatriate and local employees) could not be found.

#### **Flourishing**

Expatriates entering foreign countries experience a deficiency in interpersonal relationships and social networks which results in low psychological flourishing, and often causes illness and lack of wellbeing (Kuo & Tsai, 1986; Wang, 2002).

Van Renen (2015) uses the Flourishing-at-Work Scale (FAWS) in her study with a purposive sample consisting of 156 expatriates residing in Germany. The results of this study indicate a positive correlation between the cross-cultural adjustments of the expatriate and their flourishing and consequent wellbeing.



Ghosh (2019) discovered that a knowledge gap exists relating to the understanding of the flourishing interventions of employees working in a multicultural environment and reported a lack of comprehensive related studies.

Therefore, in conclusion, insufficient results are available from studies to indicate that a correlation exists between employment status (i.e. local or expatriate) and flourishing.

### **Organisational commitment**

In the UAE, millions of expatriates are employed as a result of manpower deficits (Shaw et al., 2003). To address the concerns of the level of the productivity, a study was conducted in two commercial banks by Shaw et al. (2003) to examine the relationship between employees' organisational commitment and their employment status (local versus expatriates). The results revealed that expatriates (foreign employees) comprise over 80% of the total workforce in the UAE. The findings of the study which included locals and expatriates show that commitment is strongly and positively evident among local employees, but not among expatriate employees.

In Saudi Arabia, Al-Meer (1989) conducted a study with 239 full-time employees which examined the levels of organisational commitment of expatriate employees versus local Saudi nationals. The author's results revealed that Saudi nationals (local employees) and Western expatriates showed similar levels of commitment; however, Asian expatriates conveyed a higher level of organisational commitment. This study therefore confirms that an employee's nationality is a strong forecaster of their continuance commitment (Abdulla & Shaw, 1999; Balfour & Wechsler, 1991; WeiBo et al., 2010). A study with 450 local and expatriate employees from eight different organisations in Nigeria indicated that nationality has a negative relationship with affective organisational commitment (Amah & Oyetunde, 2019).

In conclusion, studies indicate contradictory results related to nationality and organisational commitment and therefore no concrete supposition can be postulated.

### **3.6 EVALUATION: PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS FOR RETENTION PRACTICES**

Retention can be described as the initiative management takes to retain employees (Cascio, 2003). Management faces challenges with retaining a talented workforce (Singh, 2019); however, employee turnover expands beyond the cost of employing new staff. Retention also has an impact on knowledge, skills and the reputation of the organisation (Heathfield, 2020; McFeely & Wigert, 2019). Furthermore, a high workforce turnover increases the workload of existing employees, causing burnout and, subsequently, even greater turnover (Stroth, 2010).

High employee turnover remains one of the most concerning and ongoing concerns for the service industry, particular the hotel industry. Academics and human resource management emphasise the importance of researching employee retention extensively (Narkhede, 2014). As discussed in Chapter 2, the high employee turnover rates of the hotel industry are problematic, as the hospitality industry is one of the most dynamic industries in the world and the success of this industry depends largely on the recruitment and retention of their employees. A high turnover percentage affects the growth and sustainability of the hospitality industry and thus the retention of skilled and satisfied employees is critical. Retaining hospitality employees ultimately reduces the costs related to the recruiting and training of new employees (Holston-Okae, 2018) It is important that leaders in the hospitality industry gain management techniques which will assist in retaining the most valuable, well-trained employees, effectively helping the industry to compete in the hospitality market with ease (Brown et al., 2015).

To minimise the impact of employee turnover it is suggested that organisations ensure that employees are a good fit with the company, with the aim of reducing the negative impact of losing talented employees. It is further suggested that HR practices implement strategies for retaining high performing employees (Yu-Chen, 2015).

Internal practices in companies that influence employee turnover are a lack of training and development, mismanagement of time, inexperienced managers and managers not preparing employees for their role, creating anxiety and disappointment amongst employees, resulting in high turnover (Shaikh & Zahid, 2017). Experienced and skilled employees also leave the organisation as a result of poor support, lack of supervision and conflict with the supervisor. Organisations should aim to provide a conducive work environment for employees to reduce the intention to leave, and subsequently minimise turnover. This will save the cost of recruiting and training replacement employees (Muhammad et al., 2014).

Uraon (2018) states that organisations should understand and implement the following HRD strategies and practices: HR planning, recruitment, training and development, performance appraisal, recognition and reward programmes and career planning, as well as recognise the impact of the HR functions on organisational commitment and the intention of employees to stay.

It is not sufficient to appoint employees with the skills to perform the work; employees should be appointed who will remain for a long period in the organisation and who have a good fit in the workplace. Therefore, employers need to recruit and appoint employees who fit in their teams, as well as contribute to the workplace environment (Mankiewicz, 2020).

A company's management and HR practitioners should also measure employees' flourishing at work to minimise their intentions to leave the company because poor flourishing has proven to have a negative impact on employee retention (Janse van Rensburg et al., 2017). An employee's workplace flourishing (WF) can be summarised as the employee's perception of functioning and feeling well in the workplace (Rautenbach, 2015). Organisations should therefore implement wellbeing strategies, for example strategies for organisational development and change management. These strategies should be continuously updated to ensure balance between the employee and the workplace, as this creates a favourable and flourishing work environment where talent retention occurs (Redelinghuys et al., 2019).

Owing to the increase in the competitive nature of organisations, employees' organisational commitment plays a critical role in retaining talented employees. Employees who experience organisational commitment are more connected to the organisation, experience workplace fit and understand the goals of the organisation better (Wainwright, 2019). HR practices, for instance job previews and information provided during the recruitment stage to applicants, result in being aware of the work environment and the remuneration and benefits. The selection process should also determine the most suitable and committed individual for the organisation. Various tools and method such as psychometric testing should be used to ensure committed individuals are appointed. Performance appraisal practices and compensation programmes in addition create high organisational commitment. Implementing these HR practices enhances employee commitment which lowers employee turnover (Nehmeh, 2009).

In addition, Ramlall (2014) identified critical factors for retention such as the work environment, job satisfaction, growth and development. According to Kerr-Phillips and Thomas (2009), South African companies are facing a crisis relating to the retention of highly talented employees, resulting in the loss of intellectual employees, which has a negative impact on both the social and economic growth of the country (Cosack et al., 2010; Uitzinger et al., 2018).

From the literature review, it is also possible to identify the key challenges for employee retention, including individual characteristics, workplace structures, a healthy and safe working environment, relationships with colleagues and supervisors, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, remuneration, career expectations/opportunities and job enrichment (Cascio, 2003).

The loss of talented employees is harmful to an organisation; therefore, organisations need to attempt to prevent talent loss by developing and ensuring a committed workforce (Weng et al., 2010). Employees' organisational commitment is associated with their belief that the identified retention factors are motivated by the organisation's aspirations to retain good

employees and to be fair in their treatment of employees (Döckel et al., 2006). When employees lack career opportunities in their current organisation, organisational commitment is less noticeable (Weng et al., 2010). Keeping employees committed to the organisation is a top priority for many contemporary organisations (Neininger et al., 2010). In times of crisis and job cuts especially, committing top performers to the organisation becomes a challenge. Numerous research findings provide evidence that the one of the benefits of ensuring committed employees is preventing the loss of talent (Meyer & Maltin, 2010; Morrow, 1993). The organisational commitment of employees is associated with retention factors and acts as a motivation to be fair in the treatment of employees and, thus, retain good employees (Döckel et al., 2006).

Ramlall (2014) identifies the following factors which increase commitment and, in turn, retention, namely, ensuring a conducive work environment that allows individual growth, satisfying the needs of employees, increasing employees' responsibilities and creating a fair and equal workplace. Organisations which fail to accomplish this state will have reduced resources for the building a talented workforce (Neininger et al., 2010; Rappaport, Bancroft & Okum, 2003). Employers should consider and undertake many options to build commitment as a means of motivating and retaining valued employees, instead of losing employees who take up an opportunity for employment in other organisations (Aguenza & Som, 2012; Dobre, 2013). Recently, authors have also indicated that adding value to employees results in committed employees who are more determined, more productive and less likely to leave their job (Wainwright, 2019).

In the new world of work technology is evolving rapidly, the majority employees in organisation consists of the millennium generation, higher expectations for personal development and engagements exist, and companies are continuously improving strategies and their brands (Stubbings, 2019). Therefore, in today's work environment, business leaders and companies need to recognise the changing priorities of candidates and implement new retention practices aligned to the challenges human resources face (Metting & Barre, 2016).

Other possible solutions would be to include improved rewards programmes, such as extended leave, flexible work hours, recognition practices, coaching, on-the-job training and mentoring (Redelinguys & Botha, 2016). The variable PE fit has a large influence on flourishing and, in turn, a lack of flourishing has a considerable influence on the inclination of an employee to leave the company. Therefore, HR practitioners should consider interventions for increasing fit, which, in turn, will increase flourishing, which will assist in reducing employees' intention to leave (Janse van Rensburg et al., 2017).

Research also indicates that the training and development of employees improves their retention (Fletcher et al., 2018; Ivana, 2020). In an article, Rogers (2020) states that the most obvious solution to increasing employee retention is to create effective training and development programmes, such as on-the-job training, providing regular feedback, coaching and mentoring and creating a learning environment in the organisation. A well-developed training programme reinforces the skills level in the organisation and allows the employees to grow in their position, making employees feel their job is important and reinforcing the value of the employee. The company also benefits from the training and development of the employee as their productivity and skills levels increase which in turn increases employee retention (Freifield, 2013).

Organisations who provide their employees with learning and development opportunities as well as allowing career growth has a positive impact on employee retention (Jones, 2019). Career development programmes in the organisation may promote a positive effect on employees' commitment towards the organisation (Coetzee, 2008; Ferreira et al., 2010; Koen et al., 2010; Maddi, 2002; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mitchell & Lee, 2001; Savickas, 2012). This situation presents HR practitioners with an opportunity to advocate loyalty, engagement, career resilience and career development, all of which build commitment and contribute to the retention of valued employees (Waclawska, 2018).

Talent attraction and retention is a key challenge that HR managers face internationally (Koketso & Rust, 2012; Ott & Snejjina, 2018). Identifying retention challenges could serve as a resource to indicate the organisation's support and, in turn, increase employee commitment and encourage employees to remain attached to the organisation (Döckel et al., 2006).

Therefore, this research attempts to determine the relationship between the three constructs, fit, flourishing and organisational commitment, in order to make recommendations for good retention practices for organisations, specifically for the hospitality industry in the Indian Ocean.

### **3.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

Chapter 3 conceptualised the constructs of fit, flourish and organisational commitment using a comparative examination of literature and research relating to these three constructs. The research literature shows that theoretical models do not clarify the relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in one single and integrated study. The variables were conceptualised and explained by means of theoretical models in the literature. In addition, the different variables influencing the variables of fit, flourishing and organisational

commitment were discussed. The chapter concluded with the implications that fit, flourishing and organisational commitment have on retention.

In summary, Janse van Rensburg et al. (2017) highlight that it is necessary to study employees' fit and flourishing in an organisation to optimise retention. Although the reviewed literature does reveal the existence of relationships between the variables, integrated studies, specifically in the hospitality industry, were not found. It is, thus, important to extend the current research by exploring the relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in the hospitality industry.

Herewith the literature research aims 3, 4, and 5 were achieved:

- **Research aim 3:** To identify whether a theoretical relationship exists between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment and to explain this relationship.
  - **Sub-aim 3.1:** To conceptualise the theoretical relationship between fit and flourishing.
  - **Sub-aim 3.2:** To conceptualise the theoretical relationship between fit and organisational commitment.
  - **Sub-aim 3.3:** To conceptualise the theoretical relationship between flourishing and organisational commitment.
- **Research aim 4:** To conceptualise the influence of demographic variables: age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate) on the theoretical relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment.
- **Research aim 5:** To identify the theoretical implications for organisational retention practices in the hospitality industry.

## **CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHOD**

### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter describes the statistical strategies used to test the empirical research hypotheses for the purpose of identifying the relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment.

This chapter outlines the research methodology used in the study and describes the empirical research, gives an overview of the population, as well as discussing the steps taken to describe the sample, the questionnaire, and the data collection. In addition, the measuring instruments are described, justifying the choice of each instrument, and the data gathering and processing are discussed. The chapter also explains the ethical considerations. The research hypotheses of the study will be specified and the chapter will conclude with a chapter summary.

Mouton (2001) lists and outlines the following steps, which comprised the empirical research phase:

- Step 1: Determination and description of the sample
- Step 2: Choosing and motivating the measuring instrument
- Step 3: Administration of the measuring instrument
- Step 4: Scoring of the measuring instrument
- Step 5: Formulation of research hypotheses
- Step 6: Statistical processing of data
- Step 7: Reporting and interpreting the results
- Step 8: Integration of the research findings
- Step 9: Formulation of conclusions, limitations and recommendations

From the above steps, numbers 1 to 6 are addressed in this chapter and steps 7 to 9 are addressed in Chapters 5 and 6.

### **4.2 RESEARCH APPROACH**

Mouton (2011) describes research models as the framework for conducting the research and consist of a literature study and an empirical study. In addition, Creswell (2013) defines the research approach as the plans, steps and procedures for the research over a period of time, including the assumptions, the data collection methods, the analysis and the interpretation. Furthermore, Gopaldas (2016) and Mohajan (2018) state that research is a process involving the collection of scientific data and analysis techniques using numerous objective methods and procedures. Welman et al. (2007, 2011) state that research

methodology, on the other hand, refers to the explanation and consideration of the logic of the research methods and techniques.

A quantitative research approach is defined by Struwig and Stead (2004) as conclusive research incorporating a large representative sample and a structured data collection procedure. Leedy and Ormrod (2014) explain that quantitative analysis comprises sampling as well as constructing a comparison of the different demographic employees. Adding to this, Pickard (2013) explains that quantitative research commences with a theoretical framework established from the literature review, from which a hypothesis emerges and the variable is identified. Pickard (2013) explains that after determining the aforementioned, it will be possible for the researcher to select the most suitable research method and the sample and to design the relevant data collection instruments.

For this research study, the research approach selected was based on the research problems and the target industry of the study. Considering the different research methods and the two prominent approaches described by Creswell (2013), namely the quantitative and qualitative approaches, applied research comprising a quantitative research approach was selected. As suggested in research from Creswell (2013) the quantitative approach tests objective theories by investigating the relationship between the selected variables. Validated instruments are used to measure the variables providing numbered data and data is analysed by means of statistical procedures. Quantitative methods focus more on reliability, ensuring a high level of measurement precision and statistical power (Welman et al., 2007). Quantitative approaches work with large samples and a measuring instrument (the questionnaire) that ensures objectivity, anonymity, easy administration and completion in a relatively short period of time (Patton, 2015).

According to Shaughnessy et al. (2012), this type of design is the most popular and allows for multiple samples to be drawn from a population at one point in time. In turn, Salkind (2010) describes that a cross-sectional method allows the researcher to examine various groups of individuals during a single point in time. This approach was beneficial to the current study due to its cost-effectiveness and time-saving nature.

The following procedures in the research study were followed:

- Approval was obtained from the research ethics committee of the academic institution and written permission was requested from and granted by the management of the hotel group to conduct the research and to have access to the sample group's email addresses.



- A covering letter that was included with the questionnaire explained to participants that by completing and submitting the questionnaire, they agreed to allow the researcher to utilise the results for research only.
- The participants were informed of the purpose of the study, the confidentiality and that their identity would remain anonymous.
- Detailed instructions for completing the online survey were provided to the participants.
- A link via “LimeSurvey” was emailed to all selected participants through the Group HR and Group IT Manager for completion.
- Demographic questions were included requesting the participants to indicate their age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate).
- The research instruments used for collecting data encompasses three scales chosen based on suitability, validity, reliability and cost-effectiveness. The scales, namely the Work Role Fit Scale (WRFS) developed by May et al. (2004), the Flourishing-at-Work Scale (FAWS) by Rautenbach (2015) and the Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS) developed by Meyer and Allen (1997), were applied to the research with regard to fit, flourishing and organisational commitment and distributed to all the respondents in the sample.
- The participants submitted the completed questionnaires on LimeSurvey and the data was analysed by a professional statistician.

### **4.3 DETERMINATION AND DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE**

A sample is a small subset chosen from a larger population. As it is usually not possible to study an entire population (Allen, 2017) a sample represents the population and is a manageable size for observation (Taherdoost, 2016). Saunders et al. (2019) state that a sample consists of individuals drawn from within a statistical population. In turn, Salkind (2018) describes a population as a fundamental component of research design and refers to the population as the total collection of entities a researcher seeks to draw an inference from. A population is a group of individuals who possess specific characteristics and from which a sample is drawn to determine parameters or characteristics. From a population, researchers select a smaller group called a sample group. De Vos et al. (2011) and Leedy and Ormrod (2014) state that the objectives of quantitative research are to develop generalisation of the larger population as well as confirm and create relationships from the available sample data.

Once a number of elements cannot be identified or are unknown, a non-probability sampling design is used (Kumar, 2019). An example of a non-probability sampling design is convenience sampling, which allows the researcher to collect initial data easily (Kumar, 2019; McCombes, 2020). Convenience sampling includes the selection of the potential respondents who are easy to access, being part of a group or due to geographical closeness (Kumar, 2019). With convenience sampling, participants are selected on grounds of their availability, readiness, and inclination to respond (Etikan & Babatope, 2019). It is not always possible to study the entire population of a study, and a sample is selected instead. Therefore, in this study the sample consisted of a subgroup selected from the population.

In this study, a non-probability convenience sampling method was used to select a convenience sample comprising participants who had access to an email account. The sample comprised hospitality employees spread across the Indian Ocean (Maldives, Seychelles, Mauritius, and Madagascar) who were selected from the entire population consisting of 3167 employees, of which 880 employees had email accounts. The sample was drawn from one large hospitality group with nine hotels on seven different islands. The findings were generalised to the entire population in the hospitality industry and a total of 389 (n = 389) employees completed and submitted the questionnaire, an achievement of a 44.20% response rate.

The profile of the sample is described according to the following socio-demographic variables: age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate). These categories (age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate)) of socio-demographic variable were included based on an investigation of the literature regarding the variables of relevance (fit, flourishing and organisational commitment).

#### 4.3.1 Distribution of age in the sample

In this section, the age distribution of the sample is provided.

The age distribution of the participants in the sample (n = 389) is indicated in Table 4.1 below:

**Table 4.1**  
*Age Distribution in the Sample (n = 389)*

Age	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
25 years and younger	28	7.2	7.2	7.2
26–40 years	223	<b>57.3</b>	57.3	64.5
41–55 years	128	32.9	32.9	97.4

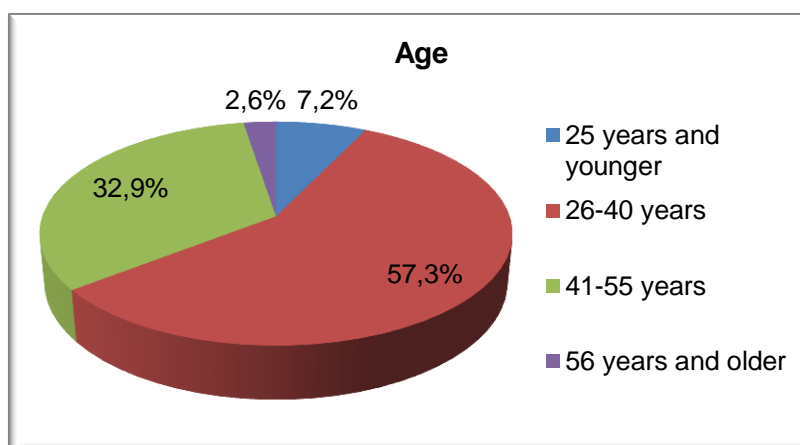
56 and older	10	2.6	2.6	100.0
Total	389	100.0	100.0	

The ages of the participants were grouped into categories, ranging between 25 years and younger (the Millennial generation) to 56 years and older (the Baby Boomer generation). Participants aged 26 to 40 years (Generation Y) made up 56.3% of the sample; those between 41 to 55 years (Generation X) comprised 32.9%. Participants aged 25 years and younger (the Millennial generation) encompassed 7.2% of the sample and the group of 56 years and older (the Baby Boomer generation) made up 2.6% of the total sample (n = 389).

The age groups are illustrated in Figure 4.1 below:

**Figure 4.1**

*Sample Distribution by Age (n = 389)*



#### 4.3.2 Distribution of gender groups in the sample

In this section, the gender distribution of the sample is provided.

The gender distribution of the participants in the sample (n = 389) is indicated in Table 4.2 below:

**Table 4.2**

*Gender Distribution in the Sample (n = 389)*

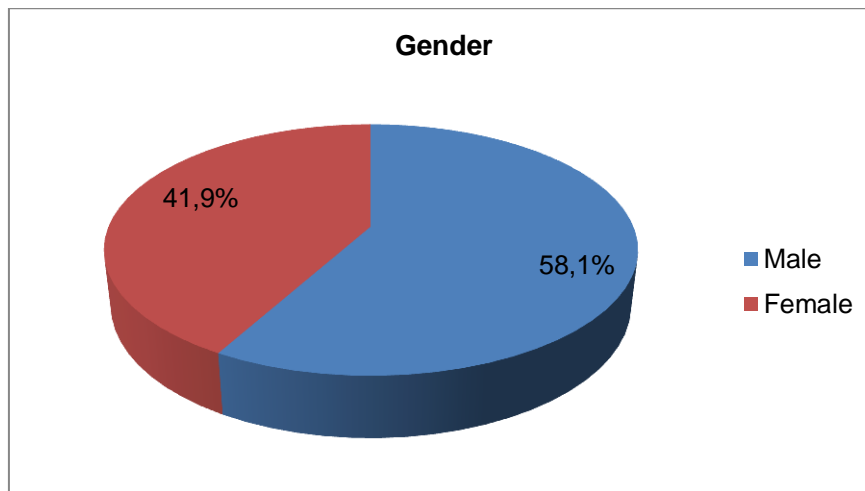
Gender	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Male	226	58.1	58.1	58.1
Female	163	41.9	41.9	100.0
Total	389	100.0	100.0	

As indicated in Table 4.2, the gender distribution showed that male participants comprised 58.1% of the sample and females comprised 41.9% (n = 389). It is important to note that males comprise the majority of the respondents.

This data is illustrated in Figure 4.2 below.

**Figure 4.2**

*Sample Distribution by Gender (n = 389)*



### 4.3.3 Distribution of nationality groups in the sample

In this section, the nationality distribution of the sample is provided.

The nationality distribution of the participants in the sample (n = 389) is indicated in Table 4.3 below:

**Table 4.3**

*Nationality Distribution in the Sample (n = 389)*

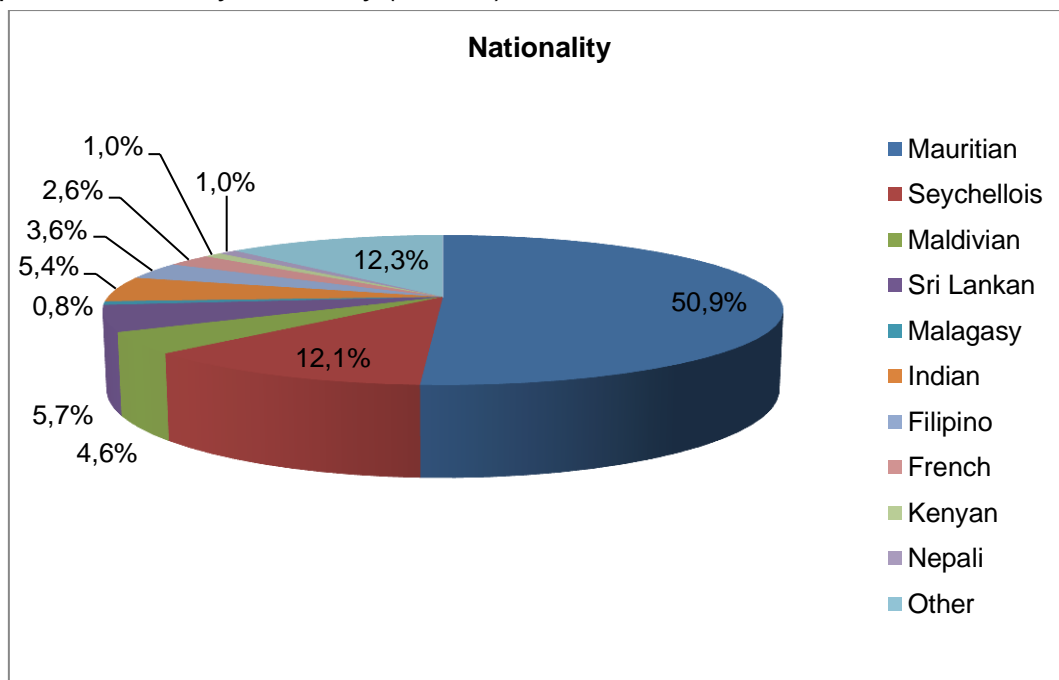
Nationality	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Mauritian	198	50.9	50.9	50.9
Seychellois	47	12.1	12.1	63.0
Maldivian	18	4.6	4.6	67.6
Sri Lankan	22	5.7	5.7	73.3
Malagasy	3	.8	.8	74.0
Indian	21	5.4	5.4	79.4
Filipino	14	3.6	3.6	83.0
French	10	2.6	2.6	85.6
Kenyan	4	1.0	1.0	86.6
Nepali	4	1.0	1.0	87.7
Other	48	12.3	12.3	100.0
Total	389	100.0	100.0	

As indicated in Table 4.3, the distribution of nationalities in the sample indicated that Mauritians made up the majority of the sample at 50.9%, and the Seychellois comprised 12.1% of the sample. The Maldivians comprised 4.6%, Sri-Lankans comprised 5.7%, Malagasy comprised 0.8%, Indians comprised 5.4%, Filipinos comprised 3.6%, French comprised 2.6%, Kenyans comprised 1.0%, Nepalis comprised 1.0% and other nationalities made up 12.3% of the sample (n = 389).

This is also illustrated in Figure 4.3 below.

**Figure 4.3**

*Sample Distribution by Nationality (n = 389)*



#### 4.3.4 Distribution of marital status in the sample

In this section, the marital status distribution of the sample is provided.

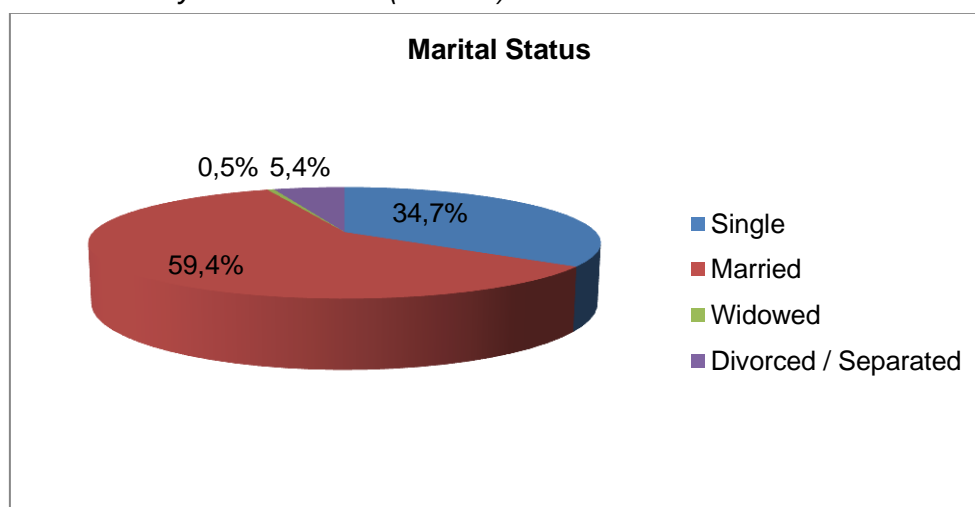
The marital status distribution of the participants in the sample (n = 389) is indicated in Table 4.4 below:

**Table 4.4***Marital Status Distribution in the Sample (n = 389)*

Marital status	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Single	135	34.7	34.7	34.7
Married	231	59.4	59.4	94.1
Widowed	2	.50	.50	94.6
Divorced/separated	21	5.4	5.4	100.0
Total	389	100.0	100.0	

As indicated in Table 4.4, the marital status distribution shows that 34.7% of the sample was single, 59.4% was married, 0.5% was widowed and 5.4% was divorced/separated.

This is also illustrated in Figure 4.4 below.

**Figure 4.4***Sample Distribution by Marital Status (n = 389)*

#### 4.3.5 Distribution of employment status groups in the sample

In this section, the employment status distribution of the sample is provided.

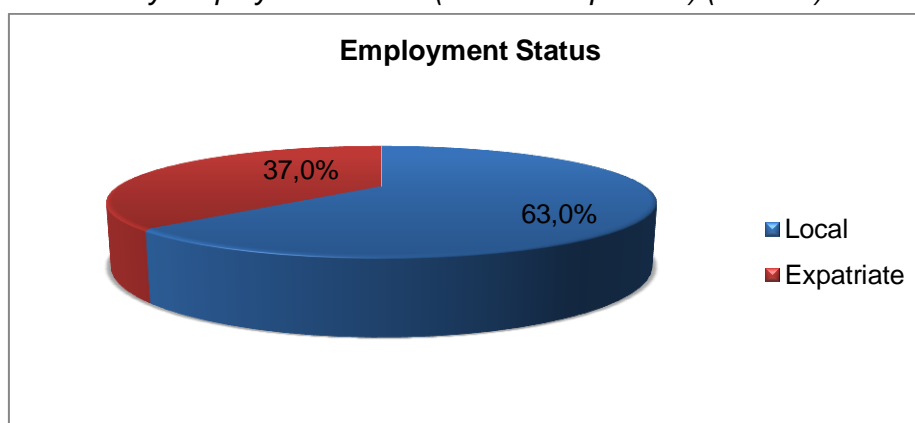
The employment status (local or expatriate) distribution of the participants in the sample (n = 389) is indicated in Table 4.5 below:

**Table 4.5***Employment Status Distribution in the Sample (n = 389)*

Employment status	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Local	245	63.0	63.0	63.0
Expatriate	144	37.0	37.0	100.0
Total	389	100.0	100.0	

As indicated in Table 4.5, the employment status distribution (local and expatriate) shows that of the total sample (n = 389), 63.0% consisted of local and 37.0% of expatriates.

This is also illustrated in Figure 4.5 below.

**Figure 4.5***Sample Distribution by Employment Status (Local or Expatriate) (n = 389)*

#### 4.3.6 Summary of socio-demographic profile of the sample

In summary, Table 4.6 below shows the demographic profile of the sample, indicating that the participants were predominantly between the ages of 26 and 40 years (Generation Y). More males than female employees participated in the study and more Mauritians responded in comparison to other nationalities. Most participants are married and, from the sample, more local staff responded than expatriates.

**Table 4.6***Summary of Highest Frequency Distribution: Demographic Profile of the Sample*

Demographic profile		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent
Age	26–40 years	223	57.3	57.3
Gender	Male	226	58.1	58.1
Nationality	Mauritian	198	50.9	50.9
Marital status	Married	231	59.4	59.4
Employment status	Local	245	63.0	63.0

## **4.4 CHOOSING AND MOTIVATING THE MEASURING INSTRUMENT**

A selection of measuring instruments, as well as a demographic questionnaire, was used. The following three measuring instruments were chosen due to their relevance to this study, namely, fit was measured by means of (1) the Work Role Fit Scale (WRFS) developed by May et al. (2004), flourishing was measured by means of (2) the Flourishing-at-Work Scale (FAWS), developed by Rautenbach (2015) and organisational commitment was measured using (3) the Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS) developed by Meyer and Allen (1997).

### **4.4.1 The demographic questionnaire**

The demographic questionnaire was used to acquire personal information from the sample, namely, age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate).

### **4.4.2 The Work Role Fit Scale (WRFS)**

This section covers the development, rationale, scale description, administration, interpretation, validity, reliability and motivation regarding the use of the Work Role Fit Scale (WRFS).

#### **Development of the Work Role Fit Scale (WRFS)**

The WRFS was developed by May et al. (2004) to collect data concerning participants' subjective experiences of the fit between their self-concept and their work roles. The WRFS is a self-report instrument developed over several years to measure work–role fit. It does so with reference to four components of fit, namely, person-job fit, personal fit, person–environment fit and person–organisation fit, measuring individuals' perceived fit with their jobs and their self-concept (Kristof-Brown & Billsberry, 2013; Su et al., 2015). The WRFS was used in this study to determine if the individual's work–role fit matches the work environment conditions. The WRFS was administered because the scale has been confirmed by many researchers as being reliable (Olivier & Rothman, 2007; Rothman & Welsh, 2013; Van Zyl et al., 2010).

#### **Rationale of the Work Role Fit Scale (WRFS)**

The WRFS was developed to measure the perceived fit between individuals' jobs and self-concept in a valid and reliable manner. It has been successfully used by psychologists, psychiatrists, counsellors and human resource practitioners as a tool to identify the fit of the individual in the work role. The outcomes of the research measuring fit of individuals assisted human resource practitioners to focus on best practices and to improve or ensure employees fit in their work role.



## **Description of the scales of the Work Role Fit Scale (WRFS)**

The questions used, for example, "my job 'fits' and "how I see myself" are rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). The respondents completed the instrument which consisted of three items constructing the WRFS fit scale from May et al. (2004).

The following questions were included, namely:

- "My job fits how I see myself."
- "The work I do on this job helps me satisfy who I am."
- "My job fits how I see myself in the future."

## **Motivation for using the Work Role Fit Scale (WRFS)**

The WRFS was selected as a result of its appropriateness for this research study, as this scale seems to be incapable of being influenced by repetition, or aspects influencing the internal consistency, validity and reliability of the research. May et al. (2004) note that the WRFS has been proven to offer significant understanding of employees' perceptions of their fit in the workplace. May et al. (2004) measured the consistency of the WRFS as a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .92 and Rothmann and Welsh (2013) reported a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .88.

## **Validity and reliability of the Work Role Fit Scale (WRFS)**

Olivier and Rothmann (2007) confirmed the reliability of the WRFS in a petrochemical company ( $\alpha = .90$ ), while Rothmann and Welsh (2013) found evidence for the construct validity of the WRFS in a study of employees in different organisations in Namibia. In addition, Rothmann and Welsh (2013) reported an alpha coefficient of .88 for the WRFS and May et al. (2004) established the internal consistency with the WRFS when conducting their research in a large insurance company ( $\alpha = .92$ ). Greguras and Diefendorff's (2009) study, which applied the three perceived fit scales, also found the reliability to be between .82 and .88.

### **4.4.3 The Flourishing-at-Work Scale (FAWS)**

This section outlines the development, rationale, scale description, administration, interpretation, validity, reliability and motivation of the FAWS.

## **Development of the Flourishing-at-Work Scale (FAWS)**

Diener et al. (2010) created the FAWS to measure psychological functioning, such as subjective wellbeing and flourishing in the workplace. According to earlier humanistic psychological theories, the Flourishing Scale measured universal human psychological needs, combined with other theories of wellbeing (Diener et al., 2010).

## **Rationale of the Flourishing-at-Work Scale (FAWS)**

The purpose of the FAWS is to assess three dimensions of flourishing in the workplace and the organisational context. Accordingly, the respondents answered 21 questions related to their experience in the work context (Rautenbach, 2015). The employees' flourishing measured in this study consists of (1) emotional wellbeing, (2) psychological wellbeing and (3) social wellbeing, which is supported by Janse van Rensburg (2016).

## **Description of the scales of the Flourishing-at-Work Scale (FAWS)**

The FAWS was initially introduced as a psychological flourishing measuring scale with a 12-item list (Diener et al., 2010) and was later adapted to a 21-item list, combining the dimensions of wellbeing critical for positive functioning within the workplace (Rautenbach, 2015).

Flourishing measured by the FAWS in this study contained items namely:

- emotional wellbeing – positive effect, for example “How often did you feel grateful?”; negative effect, for example “How often did you feel bored?” and job satisfaction, for example “How often did you feel real enjoyment of your work?”
- psychological wellbeing – independence, relatedness, competence, learning, engagement, meaning and purpose, for example “How often did you feel you can be yourself at your job?” and “How often did you feel that you sense what makes your job worthwhile?”
- social wellbeing – work and organisational context, for example “How often did you feel you had something important to contribute to your organisation?”

The FAWS consists of 21 items which were selected to represent and animate the construct of flourishing from each of the three mentioned dimensions of wellbeing at work, namely, emotional, psychological and social wellbeing.

### **Motivation for using the Flourishing-at-Work Scale (FAWS)**

The FAWS is a quick and easily administrable instrument that has been proven to be valid and reliable. The study by Mendonça et al. (2014) indicates a Cronbach alpha of .88 for this scale and Di Fabio et al. (2017) determined an alpha coefficient range from .78 to .83.

This scale was chosen owing to its appropriateness to the current research study which supported an understanding of the construct of flourishing. The 21-item FAWS has been confirmed for its validity and reliability by several researchers of the concept of flourishing (Diener et al., 2010; Hone et al., 2014; Khodarahimi, 2013; Silva & Caetano, 2013).

### **Validity and reliability of the Flourishing-at-Work Scale (FAWS)**

A study by Hone et al. (2014), which analysed the reliability of the scale measuring flourishing, found its internal consistency and replications of diagnosis of flourishing to be good, indicating a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .83. Diener et al. (2010) found the scale to have an average correlation across all four measures of .82. Roos's (2016) study tested for the reliability of scores for emotional flourishing at work as .81, social flourishing at work as .94 and psychological flourishing at work as .97. Confirmatory factor analysis done by Rautenbach (2015) indicates that the FAWS reliability ranged from .74 to .94.

#### **4.4.4 The Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS)**

This section covers the development, rationale, scale description, administration, interpretation, validity, reliability and motivation relating to the OCS.

#### **Development of the Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS)**

The OCS was originally developed by and through the works of Meyer and Allen (1997) and is known as the classic scale used in the field of organisational commitment.

#### **Rationale for the Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS)**

The OCS was designed to measure organisational commitment as a three-dimensional construct based on the observation of the similarities and differences that exists in the concept of organisational commitment.

This scale was developed to measure organisational commitment as a psychological state consisting of three distinct commitment components of individuals at work, namely, affective, continuance and normative commitment scales comprising of 23 items, which were taken from the OCS developed by Meyer and Allen (1997).

## **Description of the scales of the Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS)**

The OCS is a self-reporting measure of employees' perceptions of the concept of organisational commitment and comprise three dimensions, namely, affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. The items include statements such as: "I worry about the loss of investment I have made in this organisation" (continuance), "I am very happy being a member of this organisation" (affective), and "I feel that I owe this organisation quite a bit because of what it has done for me" (normative).

Organisational commitment was measured using a Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The scale of the three dimensions comprised eight questions for the subsection on affective commitment, nine questions for the subsection on continuance commitment and six questions for the subsection on normative commitment such as: "I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer, even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organisation now, I would feel guilty if I left my organisation now, this organisation deserves my loyalty, I would not leave my organisation right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it, and I owe a great deal to my organisation".

The average scores of the three dimensions of organisational commitment were analysed to determine the overall commitment responses of each respondent.

## **Motivation for using the Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS)**

The OCS was used for this research study because it permits the measurement of the three dimensions of organisational commitment (affective, continuous and normative) instead of only one dimension, namely the affective scale which was used by Meyer et al. (2006). The psychometric properties of the OCS provide a valid and reliable measure of the dynamics of employee commitment.

## **Validity and reliability of the Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS)**

Meyer and Allen (1997) confirm that preceding research studies indicated significant evidence for the validity and reliability of the affective, continuance and normative organisational commitment subscales. Meyer and Allen (1997) determined that the internal reliability consistencies vary between .85 for affective commitment, .79 for continuance commitment and .73 for normative commitment. Several other studies (Jia & Jia, 2009; Silva et al., 2017) confirmed the validity of the OCS instrument, reporting Cronbach's alphas of between .74 to .92. This validity was based on the reality that the three subscales were linked, as predicted in the proposed antecedent variables and this confirmed that the OCS was a valid scale to measure organisational commitment.

## **4.5 ADMINISTRATION OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENTS**

The administration, interpretation, validity and reliability of the three quantitative instruments, namely: (1) the WRFS developed by May et al. (2004), (2) the FAWS developed by Rautenbach (2015) and (3) the OCS developed by Meyer and Allen (1997) will be explained in this section.

### **4.5.1 Work Role Fit Scale (WRFS)**

#### **Administration of the Work Role Fit Scale (WRFS)**

The entire questionnaire was distributed via email to the sample of employees using the LimeSurvey program. The questions pertaining to fit took approximately two to three minutes to complete. The instructions were indicated on the questionnaire and the response sheet, and were scored utilising a software program. The WRFS was scored by totalling the number of items.

#### **Interpretation of the Work Role Fit Scale (WRFS)**

The WRFS scale measured and replicated the perceptions, opinions and feelings of the respondents in the fit dimension and served as a useful diagnostic technique which determined the level of the respondent's fit in the organisation. High scores identified in the data analysis indicated perceptions of a more positive level of fit (Van Zyl et al., 2010). The analyses developed assessed which dimensions employees perceived to be true and which were not. This served as a useful diagnostic technique for determining the levels of the employee's workplace fit. The higher the score, the more positive the level of the employee's perceived fit in the workplace.

### **4.5.2 The Flourishing-at-Work Scale (FAWS)**

#### **Administration of the Flourishing-at-Work Scale (FAWS)**

The FAWS is a self-rated questionnaire that was administered in electronic format (LimeSurvey program) to individual employees and took 10 to 15 minutes to complete, including the questions in the subsection on flourishing. No supervision was necessary as the questionnaire was self-explanatory. The three (3) dimensions of flourishing were measured independently and each subscale required the respondent to rate all the items using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

The ratings were defined as follows:

1 = Strongly disagree

2 = Somewhat disagree

- 3 = Somewhat agree
- 4 = Agree
- 5 = Strongly agree

Scores were compiled by adding respondents' scores from each item on the scale together to form one score of flourishing (ranging from 8 to 56). The FAWS was administered according to the rating and scoring instructions provided by the researcher.

### **Interpretation of the Flourishing-at-Work Scale (FAWS)**

The subscales, namely, emotional, psychological and social wellbeing, were measured recording the perceptions, attitudes, opinions and feelings of the respondents for each of these subscales separately. The analysis was conducted to determine which dimensions were true and which not true according to the employees' responses; the higher the rating, the higher the level of flourishing in the workplace.

In summary, the studies by Diener et al. (2010), Hone et al. (2014), Khodarahimi (2013), as well as Silva and Caetano (2013) confirm the validity and reliability of the eight-item flourishing scale across different populations.

### **4.5.3 The Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS)**

#### **Administration of the Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS)**

The self-administered questionnaire was self-explanatory and no supervision during completion was necessary as it was administered to individual employees in an electronic version. The total questionnaire took approximately 10 to 15 minutes to complete, including the questions in the subsection on organisational commitment.

Respondents were requested to score each of the 23 items using the five-point Likert-type scale and to rate their responses on each subscale or dimension (affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment) ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

The ratings were defined as follows:

- 1 = Strongly disagree
- 2 = Somewhat disagree
- 3 = Somewhat agree
- 4 = Agree
- 5 = Strongly agree

## **Interpretation of the Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS)**

The responses to the statements in each of the subscales or dimensions reflected the respondents' preferences, perceptions and feelings relating to a specific aspect which was measured separately. The items were structured using a statement format and respondents rated the statements based on their perception of organisational commitment. The scores were calculated across all 23 items related to the affective, continuance and normative commitment subscales and a total score was obtained by adding the scores for each subscale or dimension. The total was then divided by the number of items in the scale. The high scores reflected that the statement was very true of the respondent and the subscale scores indicated within each of the five-Likert scale components the respondent's experience relating to organisational commitment. The higher the number, the truer that item was to the respondent. Subscales or dimensions with the highest scores were regarded as the employee's most dominant attribute regarding organisational commitment.

### **4.5.4 Limitations of the measuring instrument**

Researchers face significant challenges with measurement instruments, such as the adequate measurement of variables, concepts and constructs (Perron & Gillespie, 2015). It is critical for researchers to list the limitations of the measuring instrument, for example the translations of the questions into other languages. In this study, the instrument was administered in English, assuming that the questionnaire was understood by all participants. The instrument could have been translated into the languages of the different target population. If the participants were not fluent in English, a deficiency in the instrument should be acknowledged.

In addition, participants may be biased, basing on their views on their cultural perspective, religion or background, which could affect the research validity as well as lead to inaccurate results.

## **4.6 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS IN THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE PSYCHOMETRIC BATTERY**

Welman et al. (2007) state that the ethical rights of participants refers to the right the participants have to privacy, confidentiality, secrecy and voluntary participation. Welman et al. (2011) suggest that ethical considerations also entail keeping the company's information confidential and anonymous. All information from the respondents as well as from the company was used solely to fulfil the research study requirements. Ethical considerations were critical in the research process and involved inclinations that influenced human behaviour, complying with a code of principles, conducting a set of rules, adhering to professional obligations, conducting moral practices, using information suitably, complying

with legal and social regulations, establishing guidelines and rules which define the researcher's conduct, and defining the responsibilities of the researchers. (Akaranga, & Makau, 2016; Babbie, 2010; Bless, et al., 2007; De Vos et al, 2011; Kumar, 2019; Monette et al., 2005; Walliman, 2006). Saunders et al. (2019) describe research ethics as the appropriateness of the researcher's behaviour relating to the rights of the respondents or the rights of the parties affected by the research project.

The researcher obtained ethical clearance from the University Research Ethics Committee (ethical clearance certificate reference number: 2019\_HRM\_006, dated 08 July 2019). The researcher adhered to the moral principles of ethics as outlined in the UNISA research Ethics Policy.

The following steps were followed:

- researching within recognised parameters
- obtaining approval from the academic institution and hospitality group where data was collected
- using classical and recent resources when concepts were analysed and described
- complying with the ethical guidelines provided by the academic institution
- consulting experts in the field of research to ensure a scientific research process
- explicitly referencing and quoting all sources and ensuring that plagiarism was avoided and checked for using Turnitin
- participation in the study was entirely voluntary and respondents gave their consent when submitting their responses via LimeSurvey online
- participation remained anonymous, as no respondents' names were mentioned in the study
- the researcher undertook to remain objective, honest and maintained a high level of integrity
- no financial incentives were offered to encourage participation
- the results of the research were shared with the company and participants were invited to request the results of the study by contacting the researcher using the contact details provided
- information provided by the participants was treated with complete confidentiality and their identity remained completely anonymous
- the process and findings were recorded in the thesis format, providing opportunities to obtain accurate and honest information
- no misleading reporting or falsification of data or findings took place



- opportunities for gaining accurate information were provided and the research process and findings were documented in a thesis format
- all original data was saved by the researcher and will be kept for five years after completion of the study.

#### 4.7 SCORING OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENT

The responses to all the completed questionnaires were captured on an electronic Microsoft Excel spreadsheet and the data was analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) by an independent statistician. Using an electronic platform for the recording of the data eliminated the element of human error in the data capturing process, in that way improving the accuracy of the data (Salkind, 2018).

#### 4.8 FORMULATION OF RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

A hypothesis is an assumption that is not proved and predicts a relationship between two or more variables, as well as indicates a probable solution to a research problem (Shukla, 2018). The research hypotheses in this research study were formulated to achieve the objectives of the study (see section 1.3 in Chapter 1), in particular the investigation of the relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in the hospitality industry in the Indian Ocean.

The following hypotheses were formulated and aimed to achieve the empirical objective of the study as seen in Table 4.7

**Table 4.7**  
*Research Hypotheses*

Research aims	Research hypothesis	Statistical procedure
<b>Research aim 1:</b> To investigate the direction and magnitude of the statistical inter-correlations between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in a sample of participants permanently employed in the hospitality industry.	<b>H<sub>1</sub></b> – There is a statistically significant positive relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment.	Bivariate correlation analysis
<b>Research aim 2:</b> To empirically investigate whether the demographic variables (age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local and expatriate)), and the independent variables of fit and flourishing positively and significantly predict organisational commitment.	<b>H<sub>2</sub></b> – The demographic variables (age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status), and the dependent variables fit and flourishing positively and significantly predict organisational commitment.	Multiple regression analysis

Table 4.7: Research Hypothese (cont'd)

Research aims	Research hypothesis	Statistical procedure
<b>Research aim 3:</b> To empirically investigate whether differences exist in the fit, flourishing and organisational commitment of employees in the hospitality industry in terms of the demographic variables of age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate), as revealed in the sample of respondents.	<b>H<sub>3</sub></b> – Differences exist between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in terms of the demographic variables of age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate)	Test for significant mean differences – ANOVA Kruskal-Wallis test Mann-Whitney U test

#### 4.9 STATISTICAL PROCESSING OF DATA

Apuke (2017) reports that a quantitative study deals with a phenomenon or issue by quantifying and analysing variables with the aim of achieving results. This is done by collecting data in a numerical format. Apuke (2017) further states that quantitative research involves the measuring and analysing of numerical data using statistical techniques to determine the truth of the generalisations of the theory. Allen (2017) states that the objectives of quantitative research are to generate knowledge and create understanding of the social world. Quantitative research observes occurrences or phenomena affecting individuals with the aim of learning more of a particular sample population. Quantitative research relies on data that is measured and used to develop generalisations to the larger population and also examines questions concerning the sample population.

Sample values (parameters) for the population could not be yielded from a non-probability convenience sample and thus the researcher developed statistical methods to ensure, determine and warrant the conclusions drawn. The most frequently practised methods of statistical inferences are: (1) null hypothesis testing and (2) estimation making use of confidence intervals.

This research study made use of the null hypothesis testing method to verify the formulated hypotheses by means of the following four stages:

##### **Stage 1: Preliminary statistical analysis**

The preliminary stage in statistical analysis includes the following processes: common method bias, measurement model validity, internal consistency reliabilities and the confirmatory factor analysis.

### Step 1: Testing for common method bias

Common method bias describes the measurement errors of the respondents directed at providing positive responses (Chang et al., 2010; Shehryar, 2016). If the common method effect is not carefully considered in empirical research, the consequence could be incorrect interpretations, which could result in biased estimates of the relationships between constructs and affect the hypothesis testing negatively (Miguel & Jiang, 2019).

### Step 2: Assessing construct validity and the reliability of the measurement scale

The measurement of model validity denotes the degree to which an instrument measures what it is expected to measure using empirical and theoretical evidence (Kubai, 2019). Internal consistency refers to the reliability of the instrument and the measure of consistency between items, as well as the correlation of each item in a scale with each other, confirming the same outcome results every time in that a test measures the same thing more than once. The internal consistency reliability also measures the consistency within the questions and the instrument (Kubai, 2019; Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2002). The internal consistency and reliability of the measuring instruments is achieved by using Rasch analysis, which determines the relationship between the person's ability and item difficulty for each unidimensional dimension separately. In turn, Cronbach's alpha is the most widely used method for calculating internal reliability consistency (Hair et al., 2016).

In the preliminary stage of statistical analysis, the process of confirmatory factor analysis is commonly used in social research by researchers to test a hypothetical model of a system proposed by the researcher (Sarmiento & Costa, 2019).

## **Stage 2: Descriptive statistics**

The descriptive statistics stage includes the following processes: means, standard deviations, kurtosis and skewness, frequency data and test for assumptions.

### Step 1: Means and standard deviations, kurtosis, skewness and frequency data

Allen (2017) states that descriptive statistics describe the characteristics of a single variable. Kenton (2019) explains descriptive statistics as coefficients that summarise and organise a data set representing a sample or the entire population. These statistics are broken down into measures of variability (standard deviation, variance, kurtosis and skewness), as well as central tendency (such as the mean, median and mode). The means, or the averages, are calculated by adding all the numbers in the data set and thereafter dividing the total by the number of numbers within the set. Descriptive statistics provide short summaries of the sample and measures of the data. Their purpose is to understand and assist with descriptions of the features of the data. When all the numbers in the data set are calculated

and divided by the number of numbers in the set, the mean (average) is derived. On the other hand, the mode refers to the value of the data set appearing most frequently, while the median is the figure found at the centre of the data set (Kenton, 2019).

Skewness describes the symmetry of the distribution of data on either each side of a central point, while kurtosis describes whether the data are flat or peaked in relation to the normal distribution. Skewness and kurtosis values ranging between the -1 and +1 are recommended for conducting parametric tests (Howell, 2013; McLeod, 2019c). In addition, Tong (2019) states that the objective of research in most circumstances is to create valid statistical inferences derived from a sample of data from the population. Since random samples from the larger population do not deliver precise values which are applicable to the entire population, statistical methods and probability models of data are utilised to determine the inferences (Tong, 2019).

The means and standard deviations for all the dimensions of fit, flourishing and organisational commitment were determined in the empirical study. In addition, skewness and kurtosis were also used. The frequency rate of the data (means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis) was determined for the total sample to apply the relevant statistical procedures. The data was measured by means of the WRFS (May et al., 2004), the FAWS (Rautenbach, 2015), and the OCS (Meyer & Allen, 1997) instruments. For this study, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to determine the reliability of these instruments.

## Step 2: Test for assumptions

The assumptions of statistical tests are used to draw reliable conclusions and interpretations for the research. Analysis of variances determines certain characteristics about the data and assumptions were made (Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012). The statistical procedures used in this research included bivariate correlations, multiple linear regression analysis and non-parametric tests for significant mean differences (Kruskal-Wallis test and Mann-Whitney U test).

## Stage 3: Bivariate correlation analysis

Bivariate statistics deal with the relationship between variables, examining how two or more variables relate to or influence each other (Allen, 2017). There are two different types of bivariate statistics, namely bivariate correlation and the t-test. The most commonly used bivariate statistic is the bivariate correlation, which is a number between -1 and +1 indicating the strength of the relationship between the variables. The bivariate correlation analysis stage incorporates the following two processes: Pearson product-moment and Spearman correlation coefficients (Allen, 2017).

The Pearson product moment correlation coefficients were used to postulate the relationship between the variables of fit, flourishing and organisational commitment. Wherever the distributions of scores were irregular, the level of statistical significance was set at  $p \leq .05$ . Steyn (2001) criticises the singular use of statistical significance testing and recommends that effect sizes should be determined when establishing the importance of a statistically significant relationship. Correlation is a measure that is characterised as a relationship between independent and dependant variables in relation to the size of the effect, as well as the strength of the relationship between the variables, either in a positive or a negative correlation or an inverse relationship (Schober et al., 2018).

Roos (2016) regards correlation as a bivariate analysis where the strengths of the relationship between variables are measured and the relationship between the variables is described. Correlation was used to allow the researcher to understand the existence of a positive or negative relationship. Correlations between variables were measured using different coefficients. The two most prevalent coefficients used were Pearson's correlation ( $r$ ), which measures the extent of the relationship between directly related variables, and Spearman's rank correlation ( $r_s$ ) which was used ( $r$ ) as a non-parametric test ( $\rho$ ) to measure the degree of association between two variables (Roos, 2016).

A  $p$ -value is a measure of the significance of results acquired through the statistical significance tests and provides the probability of the value found and obtained in the postulation such that the null hypothesis is authentic. A small  $p$ -value ( $p < .05$ ) was regarded as adequate evidence for the result to be of statistical significance (McLeod, 2019a).

Cohen's standards were used to assess the correlation coefficient which determined the strength of the relationship between the variables. Practical significance was obtained by using the standardised difference between the means of two populations. This measure is called the effect size. Guidelines for the interpretation of the effect size are provided by Cohen (1992, as cited in Field, 2013). According to Field (2013), values of approximately .10 indicate a small effect, approximately  $r \geq .30$  indicate a medium effect and approximately  $r \geq .50$  indicate a large effect.

#### **Stage 4: Inferential (multivariate) statistical analysis**

Inferential statistics, also called multivariate statistical analysis, include the following processes: stepwise regression analysis, moderated-mediation regression analysis, structural equation modelling and the test for significant mean differences.

Inferential (multivariate) statistics examine the relationship between two or more variables and refer to the statistical procedures used to reach conclusions about associations between

variables. They differ from descriptive statistics in that they are explicitly designed to test hypotheses. Numerous statistical procedures fall in this category, most of which are supported by modern statistical software such as SPSS and SAS (Allen, 2017).

Sample values (parameters) of the population cannot be yielded from a non-probability convenience sample in this study, therefore statistical methods were developed to determine the inferences. The most common statistical inference methods used were (1) estimation using confidence intervals and (2) null hypothesis testing (Ferreira, 2012).

In this study, the inferential statistics were concerned with inferences about the data and were used to examine whether differences existed between the demographic variables and the variables of fit, flourishing and organisational commitment. This study used null hypothesis testing with the purpose of verifying the formulated hypotheses. The inferential (multivariate) statistical analyses were carried out in this study and included the one-way ANOVA on rank, the Kruskal-Wallis test and the independent samples Mann-Whitney U test. The level of statistical significance was fixed at  $p \leq .05$ . The inferential (multivariate) statistics entailed the following steps:

- (a) Multiple linear regression analysis, which assesses whether the construct variables significantly predict retention.
- (b) Test for significant mean differences which entail the measurement of the probability of the null hypothesis being true. The statistical analysis method used in the study to test for significance incorporated the ANOVA. The study also determined whether differences exist between demographic variables of fit, flourishing and organisational commitment.

The statistical analyses that were covered in this chapter are illustrated in Figure 4.6 below:

**Figure 4.6**  
*Statistical Data Analysis Process*

Stage 1: Preliminary statistical analysis	Stage 2: Descriptive statistics	Stage 3: Bivariate correlation analysis	Stage 4: Inferential (multivariate) statistics
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•common method bias</li> <li>•measurement model validity</li> <li>•internal consistency reliabilities</li> <li>•confirmatory factor analysis</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•means</li> <li>•standard deviations</li> <li>•kurtosis and skewness</li> <li>•frequency data</li> <li>•test for assumptions</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•Bivariate correlation</li> <li>•Spearman correlation coefficients</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•the T-test</li> <li>•the ANOVAs</li> <li>•multiple regression analysis</li> </ul>

Source: Own compilation

#### 4.10 LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE

The concept of significance level originated from the discipline of statistical inference, which entails the use of probability models of data observation for collection processes. Statistical inferences focus on null hypothesis testing and statistical significance and include the following: estimation of the parameters (e.g. the population mean), hypothesis test results (e.g.  $p$ -values) and posterior probabilities (Tong, 2019). One of the first applications of statistical inference methods found in all research areas is statistical hypothesis testing (Emmert-Streib & Dehmer, 2019). To produce valid statistical inference the study design and analysis plan should be specified prior to the data collection stage. In this setting, it was assumed that the data might have been described by some stochastic model, which meant that a random variation was associated with the variables being measured (Tong, 2019). The goal of statistical significance is to provide statistical support for hypotheses to differentiate between variances and is intended as a tool to indicate if results warrant further study (Lakens, 2013; Wasserstein et al., 2019).

The significance level is further described as the measure of the probability of the null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ) compared to the alternative hypothesis ( $H_a$ ). The significance level is specified as the probability of being 5% incorrect, 95% correct, indicated using the Greek letter alpha and stated as decimals of 1.0 (Tenny & Abdelgawas, 2019).

The level of statistical significance (also known as alpha, or  $\alpha$ ) is articulated as a  $p$ -value (probability value) of between null (0) and 1. When a test of significance reveals a  $p$ -value

smaller than .05, the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is accepted. In turn, a  $p$ -value higher than .05 is not statistically significant, which means the null hypothesis is retained and the alternative hypothesis is rejected (Andrade, 2019; Beers, 2020; McLeod, 2019a). When the  $p$ -value is set at .05 (5%), the confidence level would be 95% (the inverse of the  $p$ -value). The confidence level indicates the surety that if the study were repeated with another sample, the same averages would be achieved (Brinks, 2019). However, the statistical significance does not prove that the hypothesis is correct (implying a 100% certainty), because the  $p$ -value is based on a probability only (McLeod, 2019a).

Researchers predefine an alpha of .05, implying that the null hypothesis is less than 5% before the null hypothesis is rejected. The alpha (confidence level) should be specified before collection of the data (Tenny & Abdelgawas, 2019). Statistical significant indicates that after rigorous testing, a degree of confidence in the results is achieved and the hypothesis of the study is worth studying further (Brinks, 2019).

Declaring statistical significance is the cornerstone of empirical research and the significance level is selected before collecting data. Thereafter the null hypothesis and the alternative hypothesis would be formulated (McLeod, 2019a).

Two types of errors can be created by the researcher, namely type I and type II. A type I error occurs when the null hypothesis is incorrectly rejected by the researcher. The incorrect rejection of the data, having a  $p$ -value less than the commonly used significance level of .05, results in the acceptance of the alternative hypothesis (Andrade, 2019; Beers, 2020; McLeod, 2019a). A type II error, also defined as beta ( $\beta$ ), relates to the power of the statistical test and occurs when the researcher fails to reject the null hypothesis which is in reality false, stating incorrectly that there is no significant effect (McLeod, 2019b). A type II error transpires when the researcher agrees to a null hypothesis by stating that a relationship exists, when in fact there is no relationship between the variables (Hair et al., 2016; Hogg & Tanis, 2010). The risk of making a type II error can be decreased by ensuring that the sample size is large enough (McLeod, 2019b).

Table 4.8 indicates the different levels of statistical significance:

**Table 4.8**  
*Different Levels of Statistical Significance*

PROBABILITY	LEVEL	SIGNIFICANCE
$p$	.10	Less significant
$p$	.01 to .05	Significant
$p$	.001 to .01	Very significant
$p$	.001	Extremely significant

Source: Own compilation



Field (2013) and Hair et al. (2006) state that statistical significance occurs when the test discloses that the  $p$ -value is lower than the selected significance level and the null hypothesis is rejected.

#### 4.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter 4 focused on the empirical investigation undertaken in the study. The chapter commenced by outlining the empirical research phases, followed by a description of the sample and a discussion of the psychometric batteries. The chapter continued with the description of the data collection and data processing. The chapter concluded with a discussion of the formulation of the research hypotheses, ethical considerations, level of significance and a description of the statistical processing of the data.

In Chapter 5 the following aims of the research are addressed:

- **Research aim 1:** To investigate the direction and magnitude of the statistical inter-correlations between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in a sample of participants permanently employed in the hospitality industry.
- **Research aim 2:** To empirically investigate whether the demographic variables (age gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate)), fit and flourishing positively and significantly predict organisational commitment.
- **Research aim 3:** To empirically investigate whether differences exist in the fit, flourishing and organisational commitment of employees in the hospitality industry in terms of the demographic variables of age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate), as revealed in the sample of respondents.

## CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH RESULTS

The purpose of this chapter is to provide information on the results of the various statistical analyses that were conducted in the study. In this chapter, the statistical results of the empirical study are reported by means of descriptive statistics, correlations and inferential statistics. The chapter uses tables and figures to present the statistical results. The empirical results are integrated and interpreted in the discussion section of this chapter.

In this chapter, the statistical results relating to the following research aims are reported:

- **Research aim 1:** To investigate the direction and magnitude of the statistical inter-correlations between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in a sample of participants permanently employed in the hospitality industry.
- **Research aim 2:** To empirically investigate whether the demographic variables (age gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate)) and the independent variables of fit and flourishing positively and significantly predict organisational commitment.
- **Research aim 3:** To empirically investigate whether differences exist in the fit, flourishing and organisational commitment of employees in the hospitality industry in terms of the demographic variables of age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate), as revealed in the sample of respondents.

### 6.1 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive statistics refer to a summary of the given data representing the entire population or just a sample of the population presented in an organised form. In addition, descriptive statistics describe the relationship between the variables. Two different measures, namely, measures of central tendency (the mean, median and mode) and measures of variability (standard deviation, minimum and maximum variables, variances, kurtosis and the skewness) are used for the descriptive statistics (Kaur et al., 2018; Kenton, 2019) and were calculated in this study before the inferential statistical comparisons were made.

In the research, the descriptive statistics were described, organised and summarised by means of tables, graphical methods and numerical listings. In addition, the descriptive statistics were used to identify any emergent or potential problem areas which would enable human resource practitioners to manage the assessment of populations more effectively and be aware of behavioural patterns (Frey, 2018).

This section assesses the internal consistency or reliability of the three measurement instruments, namely the Work Role Fit Scale (WRFS) developed by May et al. (2004), the

Flourishing-at-Work Scale (FAWS) by Rautenbach (2015) and the Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS) developed by Meyer and Allen (1997). Thereafter, a discussion will follow of the means (M), standard deviations (SD), skewness and kurtosis computed for each scale.

### **6.1.1 Reporting of internal consistency reliability**

In research, internal consistency refers to a measure based on the correlations between different items on the same subscale or test, measuring whether items which are supposed to measure the same construct, produce similar results. Internal consistency reliability refers to the consistent delivery of results for the measurement instruments for each research study conducted (Prince, 2018).

One of the most common types of reliability testing is internal consistency, also called homogeneity, which evaluates the extent to which items are consistent with each other and is applied to measure different features of the same concept. The internal consistency or homogeneity of a multi-item scale with interval-level data is usually measured by calculating the Cronbach's alpha coefficient ( $\alpha$ ) ranging from  $\alpha \geq .90$  (an excellent internal consistency) to  $\leq .50$  (an unacceptable internal consistency) (El Hajjar, 2018; Grove & Ciper, 2019; Grove & Gray, 2019; Prince, 2018).

The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the three measuring instruments are reported in the sections that follow.

#### **Reporting on scale reliability: Work Role Fit Scale (WRFS)**

The Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used in this study to determine the reliability of the instrument, namely the WRFS.

Table 5.1 indicates the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the three items referring to perceived work–role fit in the WRFS (May et al., 2004). The Cronbach's alpha coefficient scores varied from .88 (high) to .91 (high) for the total sample ( $n = 389$ ). The total WRFS obtained an overall Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .93, which may be regarded as sufficient for the purpose of the study.

**Table 5.1***Internal Consistency Reliability – Work–Role Fit (WRF)*

Construct	Cronbach's alpha	Number of items
"My job fits how I see myself"	.89	1
"The work I do on this job helps me satisfy who I am"	.88	1
"My job fits how I see myself in the future"	.91	1
Overall scale	.93	3

**Reporting of scale reliability: the Flourishing-at-Work Scale (FAWS)**

The Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used in this study to determine the reliability of the instrument, the FAWS (Rautenbach, 2015).

Table 5.2 provides the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for each of the three dimensions of wellbeing at work, namely emotional, psychological and social wellbeing in the work context Rautenbach (2015). The Cronbach's alpha coefficient results varied from .87 (high) to .91 (high) for the total sample (n = 389), leading to an overall Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .95 for the FAWS, which indicated the instrument was adequate for the purpose of the study.

**Table 5.2***Internal Consistency Reliability – Flourishing-at-Work Scale (FAWS)*

Subscale	Cronbach's alpha	Number of items
Emotional wellbeing	.87	7
Psychological wellbeing	.91	9
Social wellbeing	.90	5
Overall scale	.95	21

**Reporting of scale reliability: Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS)**

The Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used in this study to determine the reliability of the instrument, the OCS, (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Table 5.3 provides the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for each of the three dimensions, namely, affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). The Cronbach's alpha coefficient scores varied between .67 (medium) and .83 (high) for the total sample (n = 389). Thus none of the subscales had to be deleted in order to increase the reliability.

The total Cronbach's alpha coefficient for organisational commitment was .84 (high) which may be regarded as adequate for the purpose of the study.

**Table 5.3**

*Internal Consistency Reliability – Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS)*

Subscale	Cronbach's alpha	Number of items
Affective commitment	.80	8
Continuance commitment	.67	9
Normative commitment	.83	6
Overall scale	.84	23

### 6.1.2 Reporting of means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis

After the analysis of the internal consistency reliability of the three scales, namely the WRFS (May et al., 2004), the FAWS (Rautenbach, 2015) and the OCS (Meyer & Allen, 1997), a descriptive analysis was conducted. This was done to investigate the distribution of the scores. Means (M), standard deviations (SD), skewness and kurtosis for this study are explained as follows:

The means (M), standard deviations (SD), skewness and kurtosis were calculated for each scale and reported in the following sections under each scale.

#### **Work Role Fit Scale (WRFS)**

The mean (M) for the entire scale was 3.91 and the standard deviation (SD) .92. The skewness for the scale is .88, which falls within the -1 and 1 normality range. Hair et al. (2017) indicate a general guideline for skewness as a number greater than +1 and lower than -1 with the lower number indicating a sustainable skewed distribution of the coefficients. The skewness values showed that the scores for the scale were negatively skewed (bounded to the right).

The kurtosis values for the scale is .69, falling within the -3 and +3 normality range. According to Hair et al. (2017), kurtosis of less than -1 indicates a distribution that is too flat and a score between -3 and +3 is considered to be normal (Brown, 2016).

Table 5.4 summarises the means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis of the WRFS as developed by May et al. (2004).

**Table 5.4***Means, Standard Deviations, Skewness and Kurtosis –Work Role Fit Scale (WRFS)*

Construct	Mean	Standard deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Overall WRFS	3.91	.92	-.88	.69

Notes: N = 389

**Flourishing-at-Work Scale (FAWS)**

The means for the three subscales of the FAWS ranged between 3.78 and 4.05. As indicated in Table 5.5, the highest mean score was  $M = 4.05$  for Psychological Wellbeing. The highest standard deviation was  $SD = .83$  for the Social Wellbeing subscale. The lowest mean was obtained for the Emotional Wellbeing subscale ( $M = 3.78$ ) and the lowest standard deviation was for the Psychological Wellbeing subscale ( $SD = .676$ ).

Skewness for the three subscales ranged from  $-.54$  to  $-.85$ , falling within the  $-1$  and  $1$  normality range. Hair et al. (2017) indicate a general guideline for skewness as a number greater than  $+1$  and lower than  $-1$ . This indicates a sustainable skewed distribution of the coefficients. The skewness values show that the scores for all three questions were negatively skewed (bounded to the right).

The kurtosis values for the three subscales ranged from  $-.04$  to  $.85$ , falling within the  $-1$  and  $1$  normality range and according to Hair et al. (2017) a kurtosis of less than  $-1$  indicates a distribution that is too flat and a score between  $-3$  and  $+3$  is considered normal (Brown, 2016).

Table 5.5 summarises the means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis of each of the questions of the FAWS as developed by Rautenbach (2015).

**Table 5.5***Means, Standard deviations, Skewness and Kurtosis – Flourishing-at-Work Scale (FAWS)*

Construct	Mean	Standard deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Emotional Wellbeing	3.78	.77	-.54	-.04
Psychological Wellbeing	4.05	.68	-.85	.85
Social Wellbeing	3.79	.84	-.79	.67
Overall FAWS	3.89	.68	-.69	.38

Notes: N = 389

## Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS)

The means for the three sub scales of the OCS ranged between 2.97 and 3.74. As indicated in Table 5.6, the highest mean score was  $M = 3.67$  for Affective Commitment and the highest standard deviation was  $SD = .82$  for the Normative Commitment subscale. The lowest mean was obtained for the Continuance Commitment subscale ( $M = 3.03$ ) and the lowest standard deviation was for the Continuance Commitment subscale ( $SD = .626$ ).

Skewness for the three sub scales ranged from  $-.33$  to  $-.69$ , falling within the  $-1$  and  $1$  normality range. Hair et al. (2017) indicate a general guideline for skewness as a number greater than  $+1$  and lower than  $-1$  with the lower value indicating of a sustainably skewed distribution of the coefficients. In this study the skewness values show that the scores for all three subscales were all negatively skewed (bounded to the right).

The kurtosis values for the three subscales ranged between  $.12$  and  $1.01$ , falling within the  $-3$  and  $+3$  normality range. Hair et al. (2017) recommend that kurtosis of less than  $-1$  indicates a distribution that is too flat and a score between  $-3$  and  $+3$  is considered as normality (Brown, 2016).

Hair et al. (2017) state that once skewness and kurtosis scores are 0, the pattern of responses is considered to be a normal distribution.

Table 5.6 summarises the means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis of each of the three subscales of the OCS as well as the overall scale.

**Table 5.6**

*Means, Standard Deviations, Skewness and Kurtosis – Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS)*

Construct	Mean	Standard deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Affective commitment	3.67	.72	-.69	1.01
Continuance commitment	3.03	.63	-.33	.24
Normative commitment	3.48	.82	-.42	.12
Overall OCS	3.37	.55	-.80	1.22

Notes:  $N = 389$

### 6.1.3 Summary

In summary, the WRFS reported the highest mean (3.91) compared to the FAWS (4.05) and the OCS (3.67). In terms of the FAWS, the highest mean was reported for Psychological

Wellbeing (4.05) and the lowest mean (3.78) for Emotional Wellbeing. In terms of the OCS, the highest mean was reported for Affective Commitment (3.67).

## **6.2 CORRELATION ANALYSIS**

This section reports on the correlations between demographic variables and the three scales, namely the WRFS, the FAWS and the OCS. Correlations were performed using SAS software version 9.4 (2013), to assess the empirical interrelationship between the demographic variables of fit, flourishing and organisational commitment. They were also used to assess whether the results provided significant evidence in support of research hypothesis 1 ( $H_{a1}$ ).

**H<sub>1</sub>:** There is a statistically significant positive relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment.

With the purpose of investigating the relationship between the variables in this study, the descriptive statistics had to be converted into correlational (explanatory) statistics to determine whether the results provided sufficient evidence supporting the research hypothesis  $H_1$ : There is a statistically significant positive relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment.

In this study, the Spearman correlation was used to calculate the direction and the strength of the relationship between the variables of fit, flourishing and organisational commitment. For the purpose of the study, Spearman product moment correlations were interpreted according to the guidelines provided by Cohen (1992):  $r \geq .10$  (small practical effect);  $r \geq .30$  (medium practical effect); and  $r \geq .50$  (large practical effect).

### **6.2.1 Correlations between demographic variables, work–role fit and organisational commitment**

Spearman correlations and SAS software version 9.4 (2013) were used to determine the relationship between the variables.

Table 5.7 below provides a summary of the correlations between the demographic variables, work–role fit and organisational commitment. A number of significant relationships were observed between the variables.



**Table 5.7**

*Bivariate Correlations between the Demographic Variables, Work-Role Fit and Organisational Commitment*

Spearman's rho	Age	Gender	Nationality	Marital status	Employment status	Work role fit	Organisational commitment	Affective commitment	Continuance commitment	Normative commitment
Age	1.00									
Gender	-.22**	1.00								
Nationality	-.00	-.10	1.00							
Marital status	.38**	-.11*	-.13*	1.00						
Employment status	.04	-.21**	.71**	-.06	1.00					
Work role fit	.03	-.11*	.11*	-.05	.12*	1.00				
Organisational commitment	.07	-.07	-.05	.03	-.02	.48**	1.00			
Affective commitment	.10	-.08	-.03	.06	.10	.51**	.75**	1.00		
Continuance commitment	-.01	.04	-.11*	-.01	-.21**	.18**	.65**	.14**	1.00	
Normative commitment	.11*	-.14**	.03	.06	.10*	.46**	.82**	.61**	.32**	1.00

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

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

A number of significant and positive relationships were found between the demographic variables, work–role fit and organisational commitment.

Work–role fit showed significant positive relationships with all three subscales of organisational commitment as follows:

- Affective commitment ( $r = .51$ ; large practical effect,  $p \leq .001$ )
- Continuance commitment ( $r = .18$ ; small practical effect,  $p \leq .001$ )
- Normative commitment ( $r = .46$ ; medium practical effect,  $p \leq .001$ )
- Overall organisational commitment ( $r = .48$ ; medium practical effect  $p \leq .001$ )

Work role-fit showed significant relationships with the following demographic variables

- Gender and work- role fit ( $r = -.11$ ; small practical effect,  $p \leq .005$ )
- Nationality and work- role fit ( $r = .11$ ; small practical effect,  $p \leq .001$ )
- Employment status and work-role fit ( $r = .12$ ; small practical effect,  $p \leq .001$ )

Affective commitment show significant relationships with the following:

- Age and affective commitment ( $r = .10$ ; small practical effect,  $p \leq .001$ )
- Employment status and affective commitment ( $r = .10$ ; small practical effect,  $p \leq .001$ )

Continuance organisational commitment showed significant relationships with the following demographic variables:

- Nationality and continuance organisational commitment ( $r = -.11$ ; small practical effect,  $p \leq .005$ )
- Employment status and continuance organisational commitment ( $r = -.21$ ; small practical effect,  $p \leq .001$ )

Normative organisational commitment showed significant relationships with the following demographic variables:

- Age and normative commitment ( $r = .11$ ; small practical effect,  $p \leq .005$ )
- Gender and normative commitment ( $r = -.14$ ; small practical effect,  $p \leq .001$ )
- Employment status and normative commitment ( $r = .10$ ; small practical effect,  $p \leq .005$ )

Regarding the relationship between the fit and organisational commitment variables, Table 5.7 indicates that the associations were all positive and significant, ranging between  $.18 \leq r \leq .51$  (small to medium practical effect;  $.05 \leq p \leq .001$ ). It was predicted that multicollinearity would not present a problem, as the Spearman coefficients displayed in Table 5.7 showed a small to medium practical effect, which was considerably below the level of concern for multicollinearity ( $r = .90$ ) (Hair et al., 2016).

### **6.2.2 Correlations between demographic variables, work–role fit and flourishing at work**

This section reported on the bivariate correlations between the demographic variables, work role fit and flourishing at work. As shown in Table 5.8, significantly positive relationships were observed between all the variables.

**Table 5.8**

*Bivariate Correlations between Demographic Variables, Work-Role Fit and Flourishing-at-Work*

Spearman's rho	Age	Gender	Nationality	Marital status	Employment status	Work role fit	Flourishing	Emotional wellbeing	Psychological wellbeing	Social wellbeing
Age	1.00									
Gender	-.22**	1.00								
Nationality	-.00	-.10	1.00							
Marital status	.38**	-.11*	-.13*	1.00						
Employment status	.04	-.21**	.71**	-.06	1.00					
Work role fit	.03	-.11*	.11*	-.05	.12*	1.00				
Flourishing	.11*	-.14**	.08	.03	.16**	.67**	1.00			
Emotional wellbeing	.08	-.07	.08	.03	.14**	.55**	.90**	1.00		
Psychological wellbeing	.08	-.16**	.10	-.01	.13**	.69**	.92**	.71**	1.00	
Social wellbeing	.14**	-.18**	.04	.07	.16**	.61**	.89**	.70**	.80**	1.00

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

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

Several significant relationships were found between the demographic variables, work–role fit and flourishing at work.

Work–role fit showed a significant positive relationship with all three subscales of flourishing at work as follows:

- Emotional wellbeing ( $r = .55$ ; large practical effect,  $p \leq .001$ )
- Psychological wellbeing ( $r = .69$ ; large practical effect,  $p \leq .001$ )
- Social wellbeing ( $r = .61$ ; large practical effect,  $p \leq .001$ )
- The overall flourishing at work ( $r = .67$ ; large practical effect,  $p \leq .001$ )

Overall flourishing showed significant relationships with the following demographic variables:

- Age and flourishing ( $r = .11$ ; small practical effect,  $p \leq .001$ )
- Gender and flourishing ( $r = -.14$ ; small practical effect,  $p \leq .001$ )
- Employment status and flourishing ( $r = .16$ ; small practical effect,  $p \leq .001$ )

Emotional wellbeing showed significant relationships with the following demographic variables:

- Employment status and emotional wellbeing ( $r = .14$ ; small practical effect,  $p \leq .001$ )

Psychological wellbeing showed significant relationships with the following demographic variables:

- Gender and psychological wellbeing ( $r = -.16$ ; small practical effect,  $p \leq .001$ )
- Nationality and psychological wellbeing ( $r = .10$ ; small practical effect,  $p \leq .001$ )
- Employment status and psychological wellbeing ( $r = .13$ ; small practical effect,  $p \leq .001$ )

Social wellbeing showed significant relationships with the following demographic variables:

- Age and social wellbeing ( $r = .14$ ; small practical effect,  $p \leq .001$ )
- Gender and social wellbeing ( $r = -.18$ ; small practical effect,  $p \leq .001$ )
- Employment status and social wellbeing ( $r = .16$ ; small practical effect,  $p \leq .001$ )

Regarding the relationship between the work–role fit and the flourishing at work variables, the relationships were all positive and significant as shown in Table 5.8, ranging between  $.55 \leq r \leq .69$  (large practical effect;  $.05 \leq p \leq .001$ ). A very significant relationship was found between fit and flourishing. It was predicted that multicollinearity would not present a problem, as the Spearman coefficients displayed in Table 5.8 showed medium practical effects, which was considerably below the level of concern for multicollinearity ( $r = .90$ ) (Hair et al., 2016).

### **6.2.3 Correlations between the Demographic Variables, Flourishing at Work and Organisational Commitment**

This section reported on the bivariate correlations between the demographic variables and the flourishing at work and organisational commitment variables. As shown in Table 5.9, a number of significantly positive relationships were observed between these variables.

This section reports on the bivariate correlations between the demographic variables, and the flourishing-at-work and the organisational commitment variables. This significant positive relationship is shown in Table 5.9.

**Table 5.9**

*Bivariate Correlations between Demographic Variables, Flourishing-at-Work and Organisational Commitment*

Spearman's rho	Age	Gender	Nationality	Marital status	Employment status	Organisational commitment	Affective commitment	Continuance commitment	Normative commitment	Flourishing	Emotional wellbeing	Psychological wellbeing	Social wellbeing
Age	1.00												
Gender	-.22**	1.00											
Nationality	-.00	-.10	1.00										
Marital status	.38**	-.11*	-.13*	1.00									
Employment status	.04	-.21**	.71**	-.06	1.00								
Organisational commitment	.07	-.07	-.05	.03	-.02	1.00							
Affective commitment	.10	-.08	-.03	.06	.10	.75**	1.00						
Continuance commitment	-.01	.04	-.11*	-.01	-.21**	.65**	.14**	1.00					
Normative commitment	.11*	-.14**	.03	.06	.10*	.82**	.61**	.32**	1.00				
Flourishing	.11*	-.14**	.08	.03	.16**	.64**	.74**	.15**	.61**	1.00			
Emotional wellbeing	.08	-.07	.08	.03	.14**	.53**	.66**	.09	.52**	.90**	1.00		
Psychological wellbeing	.08	-.16**	.10	-.01	.13**	.56**	.63**	.14**	.55**	.92**	.71**	1.00	
Social wellbeing	.14**	-.18**	.04	.07	.16**	.66**	.73**	.21**	.62**	.89**	.70**	.80**	1.00

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

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

Several significant relationships were found between the demographic variables and the flourishing at work and the organisational commitment variables.

Overall flourishing at work showed significant positive relationships with all three subscales of organisational commitment as follows:

Emotional Wellbeing revealed positive relationships with

- Affective commitment ( $r = .66$ ; large practical effect,  $p \leq .001$ )
- Continuance commitment ( $r = .09$ ; small practical effect,  $p \leq .001$ )
- Normative commitment ( $r = .52$ ; large practical effect,  $p \leq .001$ )
- The overall organisational commitment ( $r = .53$ ; large practical  $p \leq .001$ )

Psychological wellbeing revealed positive relationships with:

- Affective commitment ( $r = .63$ ; large practical effect,  $p \leq .001$ )
- Continuance commitment ( $r = .14$ ; small practical effect,  $p \leq .001$ )

- Normative commitment ( $r = .55$ ; large practical effect,  $p \leq .001$ )
- The overall organisational commitment ( $r = .56$ ; large practical  $p \leq .001$ )

Social wellbeing revealed positive relationships with

- Affective commitment ( $r = .73$ ; large practical effect,  $p \leq .001$ )
- Continuance commitment ( $r = .21$ ; small practical effect,  $p \leq .001$ )
- Normative commitment ( $r = .62$ ; large practical effect,  $p \leq .001$ )
- The overall organisational commitment ( $r = .66$ ; large practical  $p \leq .001$ )

Regarding the relationship between the flourishing-at-work and the organisational commitment variables, all the relationships were positive and significant as shown in Table 5.9, ranging between  $.09 \leq r \leq .73$  (large practical effect;  $.05 \leq p \leq .001$ ). A very significant relationship was found between flourishing and organisational commitment. It was predicted that multicollinearity would not present a problem, as the Spearman coefficients displayed in Table 5.9 showed medium practical effects, which was considerably below the level of concern for multicollinearity ( $r = .90$ ) (Hair et al., 2016).

The results of the bivariate correlation analyses provided supportive evidence for the research hypothesis H<sub>1</sub>: There is a statistically significant positive relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment. Therefore, hypothesis one is accepted.

## 6.3 INFERENCE STATISTICS

In the following section, the steps of the hierarchical regression analysis and test for mean differences are stated.

### 6.3.1 Multiple linear regression analysis

This section is relevant to research aim 2, namely: to empirically investigate whether the demographic variables (age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate)), and the independent variables of fit and flourishing positively and significantly predict organisational commitment.

**H<sub>2</sub>:** The demographic variables (age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate)), and the independent variables of fit and flourishing positively and significantly predict organisational commitment.

An appropriate analysis method was conducted in this study, namely the enter method (also called forced entry) where all the independent variables are entered into the equation at the same time. This analysis method is appropriate as it deals with a small set of independent variables and forces all the independent variable into the model (Morse, 2019; Ranganathan

et al., 2017). The demographic variables, age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate), were entered in the model as control variables. The overall fit and the overall flourishing constructs were modelled as the independent variables, and the organisational commitment construct as the dependent variable. The results are summarised in Tables 5.10 and 5.11.

The results in Table 5.10 show that the regression model was significant:  $F = 19.35$ ;  $p = .000$ ;  $R^2 = .315$  for work–role fit in relation to organisational commitment and contributed the most towards explaining the variance. Table 5.10 shows that work–role fit ( $\beta = .30$ ;  $p \leq .000$ ), and the demographic variables marital status = single ( $\beta = -.16$ ;  $p \leq .05$ ), followed by marital status = divorced/separated ( $\beta = -.27$ ;  $p \leq .02$ ), acted as significant predictors of organisational commitment.

**Table 5.10**

*Results of the Multiple Linear Regression Analysis: Demographic Variables, Work–Role Fit and Organisational Commitment*

Model variables	Unstandardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients			R	R Square R <sup>2</sup>	F	Collinearity statistics	
	Beta	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.				Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	2.31	.11		20.64	.00	.56	.32	19.35		
Work–role fit	.30	.03	.51	11.89	.00				.97	1.03
Age = 25 years and younger	.09	.11	.04	.81	.42				.73	1.37
Age = 26–40 years	-.07	.05	-.07	-1.41	.16				.78	1.28
Age = 56 years and older	-.03	.15	-.01	-.21	.83				.94	1.06
Gender = Female	.02	.05	.02	.40	.69				.82	1.22
Marital status = Single	-.16	.06	-.14	-2.82	.01				.76	1.31
Marital status = Widowed	-.50	.33	-.07	-1.55	.12				.99	1.01
Marital status = Divorced / Separated	-.27	.11	-.11	-2.45	.02				.87	1.15
Employment status = Expatriate	-.08	.05	-.07	-1.59	.11				.94	1.07

a. Dependent variable: Organisational Commitment

b. Variables excluded: Age = 41–55 years, Gender = Male, Marital Status = Married, Employment Status = Local

c. Notes: N = 389

\* Predictors: (Constant), Employment Status = Expatriate, Age=26–40 years, Marital Status = Widowed, Marital Status = Divorced/Separated, Work–role Fit, Age = 56 years and older, Marital Status = Single, Gender = Female, Age = 25 years and younger

In Table 5.11 the results indicated that the regression model was significant:  $F = 45.87$ ;  $p = .000$ ;  $R^2 = .572$  for flourishing in relation to organisational commitment and contributed the most towards explaining the variance. Table 5.11 further indicated that the subscales of flourishing, namely social wellbeing ( $\beta = .43$ ;  $p \leq .000$ ), and the demographic variables marital status = divorced/separated ( $\beta = -.20$ ;  $p \leq .03$ ), followed by employment status = expatriate ( $\beta = -.14$ ;  $p \leq .001$ ), acted as significant predictors of organisational commitment.

**Table 5.11**

*Results of the Multiple Linear Regression Analysis: Demographic Variables, Flourishing (Subscales) and Organisational Commitment*

Model variables	Unstandardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients			Collinearity statistics				
	Beta	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	R	R Square R <sup>2</sup>	F	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	1.52	.12		12.50	.00	.76*	.57	45.87		
Emotional wellbeing	.05	.04	.07	1.37	.17				.42	2.40
Psychological wellbeing	.027	.05	.03	.52	.60				.28	3.53
Social wellbeing	.43	.04	.66	10.45	.00				.28	3.54
Age = 25 years and younger	.12	.08	.06	1.46	.15				.73	1.4
Age = 26–40 years	-.05	.04	-.05	-1.19	.23				.78	1.29
Age = 56 years and older	-.18	.12	-.05	-1.54	.13				.93	1.07
Gender = Female	.05	.04	.05	1.28	.20				.80	1.24
Marital status = Single	-.07	.05	-.06	-1.46	.15				.74	1.35
Marital status = Widowed	-.38	.26	-.05	-1.48	.14				.98	1.02
Marital status = Divorced / Separated	-.20	.09	-.08	-2.24	.03				.87	1.15
Employment status = Expatriate	-.14	.04	-.12	-3.46	.00				.92	1.09

a. Dependent variable: Organisational Commitment

b. Variables excluded: Age = 41–55 years, Gender = Male, Marital Status = Married, Employment Status = Local

\* Predictors: (Constant), Employment Status = Expatriate, Age = 26–40 years, Marital Status = Widowed, Marital Status = Divorced/Separated, Emotional Wellbeing, Age = 56 years and older, Marital Status = Single, Gender = Female, Age = 25 years and younger, Psychological Wellbeing, Social Wellbeing

The collinearity statistics in Tables 5.10 and Table 5.11 indicate that the tolerance values were all close to 1 and the variance inflation factor (VIF) less than 2.5, which indicates little or no multicollinearity concerns.



The results provided supportive evidence for research hypothesis H<sub>2</sub>: The demographic variables (age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate)), and the independent variables of fit and flourishing, positively and significantly predict organisational commitment.

In conclusion, as displayed in Tables 5.10 and 5.11, the results revealed that fit, flourishing (social wellbeing) and the demographic variables (single and divorced/separated) significantly predict organisational commitment. In addition, the results reveal that expatriates and divorced/separated were the only significant demographic variables that positively and significantly predict organisational commitment.

The results of the multiple linear regressions (MLR) provided supporting evidence for research hypothesis H<sub>2</sub>: The demographic variables (age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate)), and the independent variables of fit and flourishing, positively and significantly predict organisational commitment.

### **6.3.2 Tests for significant mean differences**

This section is relevant to research aim 3, namely: To empirically investigate whether differences exist in the fit, flourishing and organisational commitment of employees in the hospitality industry in terms of the demographic variables of age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate), as revealed in the sample of respondents.

Aimed at detecting the statistical differences of the significant mean, the Mann-Whitney U test and the Kruskal Wallis test were conducted to investigate research hypothesis H<sub>3</sub>, namely, that differences exist between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in terms of the demographic variables age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate). A probability value ( $p$ ) of less than or equal to .05 was considered, with the purpose of determining the statistically significant differences.

#### **Test for significance mean differences with regard to age**

The Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted with the purpose of determining whether fit, flourishing and organisational commitment demonstrate significant differences according to age group at the significance level of .05. The results in Table 5.12 reveal an  $H(3) = .76$ ,  $p = .86$  between fit and age;  $H(3) = 5.62$ ,  $p = .13$  between flourishing and age, and  $H(3) = 4.23$ ,  $p = .24$  between organisational commitment and age. The results demonstrated no significant differences between age and the overall variables of fit, flourishing and organisational commitment. However, a significant difference was observed according to the age groups

and social wellbeing,  $H(3) = 8.85$ ,  $p = .03$ , age and continuance commitment,  $H(3) = 10.59$ ,  $p = .01$ , where the probability value ( $p$ ) was less than .05.

Considering the mean ranks of the 56 years and older group (the Baby Boomer generation), greater fit ( $M = 218.90$ ), flourishing ( $M = 253.35$ ) (emotional, psychological and social wellbeing) and effective commitment ( $M = 228.25$ ) were found. The age group 41–55 years ( $M = 210.80$ ) (Generation X) in turn indicated a high level of normative commitment and 25 years and younger ( $M = 254.05$ ) (the Millennial generation) indicated a high continuance commitment level.

In Table 5.12 the results for the Kruskal-Wallis test scores relating to age are displayed.

**Table 5.12**  
*Kruskal-Wallis Test Scores for Age (n = 389)*

Variable	Age	N	Mean rank	Kruskal-Wallis H	df	Asymp. sig. (p)
Work role fit	25 years and younger	28	198.04	.76	3	.86
	26–40 years	223	191.87			
	41–55 years	128	197.91			
	56 years and older	10	218.90			
Flourishing	25 years and younger	28	183.29	5.62	3	.13
	26–40 years	223	186.94			
	41–55 years	128	207.04			
	56 years and older	10	253.35			
Emotional wellbeing	25 years and younger	28	189.63	4.55	3	.21
	26–40 years	223	188.21			
	41–55 years	128	203.21			
	56 years and older	10	256.30			
Psychological wellbeing	25 years and younger	28	193.95	3.49	3	.32
	26–40 years	223	186.84			
	41–55 years	128	206.88			
	56 years and older	10	227.90			
Social wellbeing	25 years and younger	28	157.20	8.85	3	.03
	26–40 years	223	189.44			
	41–55 years	128	207.88			
	56 years and older	10	260.05			
Organisational commitment	25 years and younger	28	208.04	4.23	3	.24
	26–40 years	223	184.89			
	41–55 years	128	208.69			
	56 years and older	10	208.85			

Table 5.12: Kruskal-Wallis test scores for age (n = 389) (cont'd)

Variable	Age	N	Mean rank	Kruskal-Wallis H	df	Asymp. sig. (p)
Affective commitment	25 years and younger	28	165.55	4.02	3	.26
	26–40 years	223	191.50			
	41–55 years	128	204.94			
	56 years and older	10	228.25			
Continuance commitment	25 years and younger	28	254.05	10.59	3	.01
	26–40 years	223	183.58			
	41–55 years	128	202.21			
	56 years and older	10	192.00			
Normative commitment	25 years and younger	28	174.93	4.48	3	.21
	26–40 years	223	187.86			
	41–55 years	128	210.80			
	56 years and older	10	208.20			

a. Kruskal Wallis test

b. Grouping variable: Age

c. Multiple comparisons are not performed because the overall test does not show significant differences across samples.

The results of the Kruskal-Wallis Test (Table 5.12) indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between different age groups in relations to fit, social wellbeing and continuance commitment.

### Test for significance mean differences with regard to gender

The Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to identify whether fit, flourishing and organisational commitment demonstrated significant differences according to gender groups. The level of statistical significance was set at  $p \leq .05$ .

The Mann-Whitney U test (for non-parametric data) in Table 5.13 detected no significant differences between gender groups in terms of emotional wellbeing, affective commitment and continuance commitment. Statistically significant differences were discovered for flourishing ( $p = .01$ ), psychological wellbeing ( $p = .00$ ), social wellbeing ( $p = .00$ ) and normative commitment ( $p = .01$ ). Regarding the mean ranks it can be stated that the fit, flourishing and organisational commitment of males is higher than that of females.

No significant difference was detected between males and females in terms of fit, emotional wellbeing, affective commitment and continuance commitment.

Table 5.13 displays the results for the Mann-Whitney U test related to gender.

**Table 5.13***Independent Mann-Whitney U Test Scores for Gender (n = 389)*

Variable	Gender	N	Mean rank	Mann-Whitney U	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Work Role Fit	Male	226	204.82	16199.50	-2.07	.04
	Female	163	181.38			
Flourishing	Male	226	208.34	15405.00	-2.76	.07
	Female	163	176.51			
Emotional wellbeing	Male	226	201.17	17024.00	-1.28	.20
	Female	163	186.44			
Psychological wellbeing	Male	226	209.93	15045.00	-3.10	.00
	Female	163	174.30			
Social wellbeing	Male	226	211.73	14638.00	-3.48	.00
	Female	163	171.80			
Organisational commitment	Male	226	201.49	16951.50	-1.34	.18
	Female	163	186.00			
Affective commitment	Male	226	202.38	16752.00	-1.53	.13
	Female	163	184.77			
Continuance commitment	Male	226	191.67	17666.00	-.69	.49
	Female	163	199.62			
Normative commitment	Male	226	208.20	15436.500	-2.73	.01
	Female	163	176.70			

a. Mann-Whitney U test

b. Grouping variable: Gender

The results of the Mann-Whitney U test (Table 5.13) indicate that there were statistically significant differences between the gender groups in relating to fit, psychological and social wellbeing and normative commitment.

### Test for significance mean differences with regard to employment status

The Mann-Whitney U test was conducted with the aim of determining whether significant differences according to employment status were present. As displayed in Table 5.14, fit ( $M = 185.13$ ;  $Z = -2.30$ ), flourishing ( $M = 181.62$ ;  $Z = -3.06$ ), emotional wellbeing ( $M = 183.23$ ;  $Z = -2.70$ ), psychological wellbeing ( $M = 183.74$ ;  $Z = -2.59$ ), social wellbeing ( $M = 181.01$ ;  $Z = -3.22$ ), continuance commitment ( $M = 212.69$ ;  $Z = -4.06$ ) and normative commitment ( $M = 186.19$ ;  $Z = -2.02$ ) indicate a statistically significant difference at the significant level of  $p \leq .05$ . No significant differences were found between employment status (local and expatriate) in terms of affective commitment ( $p = .06$ ). Considering the mean rank, the expatriate employees indicated higher levels of fit, emotional wellbeing, psychological wellbeing, social wellbeing, affective commitment, and normative commitment compared to the local employees. The mean rank for local employees indicated higher levels of continuance commitment.

Table 5.14 displays the results of the Mann-Whitney U test related to employment status.

**Table 5.14**

*Independent Mann-Whitney U Test Scores for Employment Status (n = 389)*

Variable	Employment status	N	Mean rank	Mann-Whitney U	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Work role fit	Local	245	185.13	15222.00	-2.30	.02
	Expatriate	144	211.79			
Flourishing	Local	245	181.62	14361.50	-3.06	.00
	Expatriate	144	217.77			
Emotional wellbeing	Local	245	183.23	14755.50	-2.70	.01
	Expatriate	144	215.03			
Psychological wellbeing	Local	245	183.74	14882.50	-2.59	.01
	Expatriate	144	214.15			
Social wellbeing	Local	245	181.01	14212.00	-3.22	.00
	Expatriate	144	218.81			
Organisational commitment	Local	245	196.43	17290.00	-.33	.74
	Expatriate	144	192.57			
Affective commitment	Local	245	186.64	15591.50	-1.92	.06
	Expatriate	144	209.23			
Continuance commitment	Local	245	212.69	13305.50	-4.06	.00
	Expatriate	144	164.90			
Normative commitment	Local	245	186.19	15481.50	-2.02	.04
	Expatriate	144	209.99			

a. Mann -Whitney U test

b. Grouping variable: Employment status

The results of the Mann-Whitney U test (Table 5.14) indicate that there was a statistically significant difference between different employment status (the local and expatriate) regarding fit, emotional wellbeing, psychological wellbeing, social wellbeing, continuance commitment and normative commitment variables, but not affective commitment.

#### **Test for significance mean differences with regard to marital status**

The Kruskal-Wallis H test was conducted to determine whether fit, flourishing and organisational commitment demonstrated a significant difference according to marital status at a significant level of .05. As seen in Table 5.15, the results revealed an  $H(2) = 6.62$ ,  $p = .04$  between marital status and fit; an  $H(2) = 12.97$ ,  $p = .00$  between marital status and social wellbeing and an  $H(2) = 13.11$ ,  $p = .00$  between marital status and affective commitment. However, no significant differences were indicated between marital status and emotional wellbeing, and continuance commitment. Considering the mean rank, it was established that married respondents' revealed overall greater fit, flourishing and organisational commitment than single, divorced and separated respondents.

Table 5.15 displays the results for the Kruskal-Wallis test related to marital status.

**Table 5.15**

*Kruskal-Wallis Test Scores for Marital Status (n = 389)*

Variable	Marital status	N	Mean rank	Kruskal-Wallis H	df	Asymp. sig. (p)
Work role fit	Single	135	196.48	6.62	2	.04
	Married	231	199.81			
	Not married (divorced/separated)	23	138.00			
Flourishing	Single	135	183.79	7.68	2	.02
	Married	231	206.24			
	Not married (divorced/separated)	23	147.98			
Emotional wellbeing	Single	135	186.89	3.69	2	.16
	Married	231	202.90			
	Not married (divorced/separated)	23	163.26			
Psychological wellbeing	Single	135	191.10	4.39	2	.11
	Married	231	201.58			
	Not married (divorced/separated)	23	151.76			
Social wellbeing	Single	135	177.36	12.97	2	.00
	Married	231	210.56			
	Not married (divorced/separated)	23	142.28			
Organisational commitment	Single	135	183.08	12.02	2	.00
	Married	231	208.26			
	Not married (divorced/separated)	23	131.76			
Affective commitment	Single	135	178.47	13.11	2	.00
	Married	231	210.31			
	Not married (divorced/separated)	23	138.22			
Continuance commitment	Single	135	191.92	4.75	2	.09
	Married	231	201.40			
	Not married (divorced/separated)	23	148.78			
Normative commitment	Single	135	179.30	10.71	2	.01
	Married	231	209.07			
	Not married (divorced/separated)	23	145.78			

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: Marital Status

In Table 5.15, the results of Kruskal-Wallis test scores indicate that there a statistically significant difference exists between marital status, and fit, emotional wellbeing,

psychological wellbeing, social wellbeing, affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment.

### Test for significance mean differences with regard to nationality

The Kruskal-Wallis H test, which was conducted to determine fit, flourishing and organisational commitment, demonstrated a significant difference according to nationality at a significant level of .05. As seen in Table 5.16, the results revealed an  $H(10) = .39.51$ ,  $p = .000$  between fit and nationality; an  $H(10) = 34.88$ ,  $p = .000$  between flourishing and nationality; and an  $H(10) = .28.94$ ,  $p = .001$  between organisational commitment and nationality.

With regard to the mean rank, it was established that respondents of the nationality Filipino have greater fit ( $M = 295.18$ ), social wellbeing ( $M = 316.75$ ), psychological wellbeing ( $M = 287.07$ ), and normative commitment ( $M = 269.71$ ). The highest score was indicated for affective commitment ( $M = 263.13$ ) and continuance commitment ( $M = 263.13$ ) by the nationality, Nepali, and emotional wellbeing ( $M = 260.00$ ) by the nationality, Indian.

Table 5.16 presents the results for the Kruskal-Wallis Test related to nationality.

**Table 5.16**

*Kruskal-Wallis Test Scores for Nationality (n = 389)*

Variable	Nationality	N	Mean rank	Kruskal-Wallis H	df	Asymp. sig. (p)
Work role fit	Mauritian	198	177.12	39.51	10	.00
	Seychellois	47	217.96			
	Maldivian	18	233.03			
	Sri Lankan	22	238.84			
	Malagasy	3	173.67			
	Indian	21	259.76			
	Filipino	14	295.18			
	French	10	199.15			
	Kenyan	4	155.63			
	Nepali	4	239.50			
	Other	48	154.40			
Flourishing	Mauritian	198	184.12	34.88	10	.00
	Seychellois	47	188.77			
	Maldivian	18	199.22			
	Sri Lankan	22	247.75			
	Malagasy	3	88.67			
	Indian	21	262.26			
	Filipino	14	286.82			
	French	10	219.75			
	Kenyan	4	87.00			
	Nepali	4	266.50			
	Other	48	168.55			

Table 5.16: Kruskal-Wallis Test Scores for Nationality (n = 389) (cont'd)

Variable	Nationality	N	Mean rank	Kruskal-Wallis H	df	Asymp. sig. (p)
Emotional wellbeing	Mauritian	198	184.41	31.80	10	.00
	Seychellois	47	198.39			
	Maldivian	18	193.22			
	Sri Lankan	22	246.27			
	Malagasy	3	50.83			
	Indian	21	260.00			
	Filipino	14	254.29			
	French	10	224.30			
	Kenyan	4	49.63			
	Nepali	4	248.75			
	Other	48	177.34			
Psychological wellbeing	Mauritian	198	180.90	29.79	10	.00
	Seychellois	47	200.23			
	Maldivian	18	219.72			
	Sri Lankan	22	240.02			
	Malagasy	3	109.67			
	Indian	21	249.21			
	Filipino	14	287.07			
	French	10	219.55			
	Kenyan	4	126.63			
	Nepali	4	258.25			
	Other	48	168.22			
Social wellbeing	Mauritian	198	190.17	39.22	10	.00
	Seychellois	47	165.57			
	Maldivian	18	189.36			
	Sri Lankan	22	249.36			
	Malagasy	3	163.00			
	Indian	21	248.67			
	Filipino	14	316.75			
	French	10	208.80			
	Kenyan	4	126.75			
	Nepali	4	278.13			
	Other	48	159.83			
Organisational commitment	Mauritian	198	195.92	28.94	10	.00
	Seychellois	47	192.09			
	Maldivian	18	203.75			
	Sri Lankan	22	240.00			
	Malagasy	3	200.67			
	Indian	21	246.07			
	Filipino	14	255.11			
	French	10	161.45			
	Kenyan	4	107.13			
	Nepali	4	263.13			
	Other	48	138.57			



Table 5.16: Kruskal-Wallis Test Scores for Nationality (n = 389) (cont'd)

Variable	Nationality	N	Mean rank	Kruskal-Wallis H	df	Asymp. sig. (p)
Affective commitment	Mauritian	198	195.92	35.42	10	.00
	Seychellois	47	192.09			
	Maldivian	18	203.75			
	Sri Lankan	22	240.00			
	Malagasy	3	200.67			
	Indian	21	246.07			
	Filipino	14	255.11			
	French	10	161.45			
	Kenyan	4	107.13			
	Nepali	4	263.13			
Other	48	138.57				
Continuance commitment	Mauritian	198	195.92	18.00	10	.06
	Seychellois	47	192.09			
	Maldivian	18	203.75			
	Sri Lankan	22	240.00			
	Malagasy	3	200.67			
	Indian	21	246.07			
	Filipino	14	255.11			
	French	10	161.45			
	Kenyan	4	107.13			
	Nepali	4	263.13			
Other	48	138.57				
Normative commitment	Mauritian	198	188.91	24.61	10	.01
	Seychellois	47	185.97			
	Maldivian	18	205.86			
	Sri Lankan	22	242.61			
	Malagasy	3	198.67			
	Indian	21	250.55			
	Filipino	14	269.71			
	French	10	186.90			
	Kenyan	4	70.13			
	Nepali	4	219.38			
Other	48	166.79				

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: Nationality

The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test (Table 5.16) indicate a statistically significant difference between the demographic nationalities, fit, emotional wellbeing, psychological wellbeing, social wellbeing, affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test and the Mann-Whitney U test therefore delivered sufficient supportive evidence for the research hypothesis H<sub>3</sub>: Differences exist between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in terms of the demographic variables of age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate).

## 6.4 SYNTHESIS, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION

In this section the demographic profile of the sample is discussed, and the results are discussed in terms of the tested research hypotheses.

### 6.4.1 Demographic profile of the sample

The demographic characteristics of the sample revealed that the respondents were predominantly between the ages of 26 and 40 (the Generation X), were male, of Mauritian nationality, married and local employees.

Table 5.17 presents the results of the highest frequency distribution of the demographic profile of the sample.

**Table 5.17**

*Summary of Highest Frequency Distribution: Demographic Profile of the Sample*

Demographic profile		Frequency	Percent
Age	26–40 years	223	57.3
Gender	Male	226	58.1
Nationality	Mauritian	198	50.9
Marital status	Married	231	59.4
Employment status	Local	245	63.0

### 6.4.2 Sample profile: fit, flourishing and organisational commitment

In this section, the interpretation of the means was discussed. Table 5.18 indicates the highest and the lowest means for the three measuring instruments.

**Table 5.18**

*Summary for Means of Measuring Instruments*

*Overall scale/subscale	Highest mean	Lowest mean
WRFS	3.91	
FAWS	4.05	3.78
Psychological wellbeing	4.05	
Emotional wellbeing		3.78
OCS	3.67	3.03
Affective Commitment	3.67	
Continuance Commitment		3.03

\*WRFS – Work Role Fit Scale; FAWS – Flourishing-at-Work Scale; OCS – Organisational Commitment Scale

A high mean for Work–Role Fit suggests that employees recognise their role in the workplace and their self-concept and therefore fit in with their work environment and experience satisfaction with their job. This finding is supported by Stewart and Brown (2019) and Shibiti (2019) who state that employees who are satisfied with their environment recognise that they fit. This finding is supported by a recent study by De Cooman et al. (2019) which found that the existence of fit produces greater wellbeing.

The highest mean for Flourishing-at-work is for the construct of psychological wellbeing, which suggests that employees display high levels of wellbeing and mental health and are filled with positive emotions relating to a sense of satisfaction. Such employees experience meaning, relatedness, purpose, autonomy, learning and positive relations with others, which is supported by the definition of psychological wellbeing by Janse van Rensburg et al. (2017). These findings are supported by Wissing et al. (2019), Kwong and Hayes (2017) and Trudel-Fitzgerald et al. (2019) who state that psychologically flourishing individuals have a purpose, experience positive engagement with work, are optimistic and have positive feelings and relationships. Rothman (2013) also supports this finding, stating that high flourishing at work relates to when employees function well within the organisational context (psychological wellbeing).

On the other hand, the lowest Flourishing-at-Work mean is for the construct emotional wellbeing, suggesting that employees experience low job satisfaction and low positive emotions. The findings of Schotanus-Dijksstra et al. (2016) indicate that employees who experience high levels of emotional wellbeing experience happiness, life satisfaction and diligence. In contrast, Bergsma et al. (2011) state that individuals with low flourishing levels experience low resilience to vulnerabilities and changes. In addition, Huppert and So's (2013) findings are consistent in that they found that employees with low levels of flourishing become stagnant and feel empty.

The highest mean for Organisational Commitment is for the construct of affective commitment, implying that employees display high levels of emotional attachment and connection with the organisation, receive support, feel their goals and needs are met, as well as identify with the organisation. In other words, employees experience that their basic needs are met, and show a powerful affective attachment to the organisation. This has been confirmed among hospitality employees by Castro-Castal et al. (2019) as well as Grego-Planer (2019). The findings of Grego-Planer (2020) also confirm the results of this study, indicating that individuals with a high level of affective commitment are inclined to be more loyal and trustworthy and have a sense of obligation to remain in the organisation. The findings therefore can be interpreted with confidence.

The highest and lowest mean for affective and continuance commitment respectively confirmed that when employees' basic needs are met, they feel a need to stay with the organisation and are more involved with the organisation and that if they were to leave the organisation they would lose too much. This finding is confirmed by the study of Luna-Arocas and Lara (2020) which corroborates the responses in this study.

Overall, the findings for organisational commitment indicate that the respondents experience positive and high levels of commitment to the employer, indicating that employees are psychologically devoted, loyal, show positive workplace behaviours and contribute to the organisation's goals. These findings are confirmed by studies conducted by Benjamin and David (2012), Grego-Planer (2019), Farahani et al. (2011) and Xi and Zeng (2019). In addition Alrowwad et al. (2019) confirm that organisational commitment remains a key factor in the relationship between the employee and the organisation and creates a desire to remain with the organisation. Researchers Zabel (2012) and Mercurio (2015) also found that a path existed from continuance commitment to affective commitment.

#### **6.4.3 Research aim 1**

- To investigate the direction and magnitude of the statistical inter-correlations between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in a sample of participants permanently employed in the hospitality industry.

The results provided supportive evidence for the research hypothesis H<sub>1</sub>: There is a statistically significant positive relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment.

#### **Interpretation of correlations between Work–role Fit and Organisational Commitment**

Work–role fit suggests a strong, positive relationship with affective commitment and normative commitment. These findings are in line with the conclusions of Jehanzeb (2020), Bahat (2020), Margaretha and Wicaksana (2020), and Chhabra (2015), who found significant and positive relations between fit and affective organisational commitment. The findings of Lee et al. (2019) are in line with the results of this study, which indicate that employees who have normative commitment and affective commitment experience a better fit. Employees who fit in the workplace are more committed to the organisation (Ahmad et al., 2011) which improves the intention to remain with the organisation (Abdalla et al., 2017).

The results further indicate a weaker, positive association between fit and continuance commitment. However, overall, the results revealed that fit is positively related to affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment, which indicates that employees identify with, are more involved in and more compatible with the organisation,

which increases retention. No negative correlation results were found between fit and organisational commitment. Studies by Valentine et al. (2002), Mete et al. (2016), Margaretha and Wicaksana (2020), and Udin (2020) also found that organisational commitment is positively related to fit.

The findings in the correlation between fit and organisational commitment suggest that respondents with high levels of fit experience high affective commitment, implying that employees are more attached, loyal and involved in the organisation and are more likely to remain (Al-Jabari & Ghazzawi, 2019; Kooij & Boon, 2018; WeiBo et al., 2010).

### **Interpretation of correlations between Work–role Fit and Flourishing-at-Work**

A strong, positive association exists between fit, emotional wellbeing, psychological wellbeing and social wellbeing. These results suggest that the respondents function well within the organisation (psychological wellbeing), they feel good (emotional wellbeing) and feel that they fit in (social wellbeing). The results further indicate that employees fit in with their work environment and are satisfied with their jobs. These findings are in line with the conclusions of Noble and McGrath (2015), Rothman (2013) and Stewart and Brown (2019), who found that fit in the work environment indicates satisfaction with the job. Moreover the results suggest that employees experience personal growth, engagement, job satisfaction, purpose, meaning in the workplace and feel and function well. These findings are in line with the significant results of Janse van Rensburg et al. (2017) who found that fit predicts flourishing at work and has a large influence on flourishing.

All three flourishing variables (emotional, psychological and social wellbeing) correlate positively and significantly with the variable fit. This finding can be endorsed by the fact that the employees perceived that they fit, feel and function well in the organisation. The positive results also indicate that employees fit well with their group and experience social wellbeing. This concurs with the findings of studies by Dik et al. (2013), Gabriel et al. (2014), Kristof-Brown et al. (2015) and Van Vianen et al. (2013). No negative correlation results were found between the independent variables, fit and flourishing.

Flourishing is a significant predictor of intention to leave. However, the results indicate positive flourishing scores, suggesting that employees were not thinking of leaving the organisation. This is supported by the findings of Diedericks and Rothmann (2014), Stewart and Brown (2019) and Swart and Rothmann (2012), who found that employees who experience high fit and flourishing in the work environment are inclined to remain and are less likely to leave the organisation. The hospitality industry is a very dynamic with high turnover rates and an ongoing talent war, as indicated by Brhane and Zewdie (2018) and Mamahit et al. (2019). Given that new hotels and resorts are opening every year and

employees leave for better opportunities and growth, the results of this study nevertheless indicated that employees are experiencing job satisfaction (emotional wellbeing), purpose, development, engagement (psychological wellbeing) and positive appraisals and involvement (social wellbeing) as well attachment to the organisations (fit).

### **Interpretation of correlations between Flourishing-at-Work and Organisational Commitment**

A strong, positive association between flourishing, affective commitment and normative commitment was revealed, while a positive, yet weaker correlation was found between flourishing and continuance commitment. Conversely, the correlation between continuance commitment and the three subscales of flourishing (emotional, psychological and social wellbeing), although positive, is weaker. The results reveal that when the values of continuance commitment decrease, flourishing values in turn decrease. No negative correlation results were found between flourishing (the independent variable) and organisational commitment (the dependent variable).

These results suggest that the respondents function well within the organisation, they feel good and fit in well, displaying positive feelings and functioning effectively in the organisation. These findings are in line with the conclusions of Janse van Rensburg et al. (2017), Nobel et al. (2015) and Rothman (2013) who define flourishing at work as a situation where employees experience positive psychological wellbeing, emotional wellbeing and social wellbeing. The very high and positive significant results seen between flourishing and affective commitment indicate that employees experience effective and positive work environments and conditions. Consequently, these findings are confirmed by the studies of Rhoades et al. (2001) and Di Pietro et al. (2019). Predictions can further be made that employees feel attached and involved in the organisation.

The positive correlation between organisational commitment and flourishing in this study implies that employees with high levels of flourishing at work show high organisational commitment towards the organisation. The positive coefficients indicate that if the value of flourishing (independent variable) increases, the mean of organisational commitment (dependable variable) also increases.

Despite new hotels and resorts opening rapidly in the Indian Ocean and employees leaving for better opportunities, challenges and growth, the results of this study indicate that employees are flourishing and are highly committed, which reduces the probability of high turnover in the organisation.

#### **6.4.4 Research aim 2**

- To empirically investigate whether the demographic variables (age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate), and the independent variables of fit and flourishing positively and significantly predict organisational commitment.

The results provide supportive evidence for research hypothesis H<sub>2</sub>: The demographic variables (age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate)), and the independent variables of fit and flourishing positively and significantly predict organisational commitment.

#### **Interpretation of multiple linear regression analysis (demographic variables, fit, flourishing and organisational commitment)**

The study revealed that work–role fit acted as a positive and significant predictor of organisational commitment. Therefore, the findings of this study accentuate that an attachment to the organisation as well as a match between the personal values, plans and career goals of employees and of the organisation exists. The respondents perceive their jobs as professions and are willing to go beyond what is expected of them. These positive emotional experiences are fundamental to fit and are represented as high levels of attachment, which shows increased and improved organisational commitment on the part of the respondents. Chhabra (2015) indicates that fit is directly related to organisational commitment; where a match is identified between the abilities and skills of the employees, they are more likely to be committed to the organisation.

The results indicate that fit positively and significantly predicts organisational commitment. These findings are in line with Mensele and Coetzee (2014), Khaola and Sebotsa (2015), and Margaretha and Wicaksana (2020) who revealed a positive and significant relationship between personal fit and organisational commitment. It can be stated that in cases where the organisational commitment level increases, the level of employees' fit likewise increases. The studies by Mete et al. (2016), Abdurachman and Siswati (2017) and Meyer et al. (2018) all revealed that high fit leads to a greater degree of organisational commitment and vice versa, supporting the finding of this study. In addition, the results are supported by the empirical studies of Nikkah-Farkhani et al. (2017), Jin et al. (2018) and Siyal et al. (2020).

Further, the results reveal that marital status, namely, single and divorced/separated employees, experience high levels of attachment, are highly satisfied with their jobs, believe in the organisation's values and goals, and feel that they have an opportunity to express their skills and strengths. The findings indicate a positive and highly significant relationship

between fit and organisational commitment and marital status. These results therefore imply that employees who are not married experience greater fit and organisational commitment.

Flourishing is a multidimensional construct which requires a combination of high levels of social, psychological and emotional wellbeing, consisting of an arrangement of positive levels of feeling and functioning well (Bono et al., 2012; Hori et al., 2019; Janse van Rensburg et al., 2017; Knoesen and Naudé, 2018; VanderWeele, 2017). The findings in the study draw attention to the positive and significant relationship between the subscale of social wellbeing and organisational commitment. The respondents therefore experienced fitting in well within the organisation, integrating socially and experiencing personal growth, unity and acceptance and being involved in the organisation. Therefore, it can be concluded that employees feel that they function effectively in the organisation and that life at work is going well. This finding is in agreement with the study of Diedericks et al. (2014), indicating that individuals who experience flourishing display higher levels of organisational commitment and decreased turnover intention.

No significant relationship was found between emotional wellbeing and psychological wellbeing and organisational commitment.

In terms of the demographic variables in relation to flourishing and organisational commitment, the results reveal that only marital status divorced/separated and employment status expatriates positively and significantly predict organisational commitment, thus contradicting the findings of Momtaz et al. (2016) and Clarence and George (2018) that marital status does not have an effect on either flourishing or organisational commitment. In contrast to this study relating to the positive significance of expatriates and flourishing and organisational commitment, the findings of Shaw et al. (2003) revealed that local employees experience greater organisational commitment compared to expatriates. In addition, Ghosh (2019) found that there is to date insufficient information on and a lack of studies related to the flourishing of expatriates.

However, positive yet no significant predictions were found between flourishing, organisational commitment and age and gender. This finding is supported by the findings of Chan and Qui (2011) and Diener et al. (2010) who found that no significant relationship exists between age and gender, flourishing and organisational commitment. Contrary to the study of Sloan (2017), researchers have conceded mixed findings concerning gender differences in organisational commitment.

In summary, high levels of fit and organisational commitment are associated with retention as identified by Stewart and Brown (2019), Kristof-Brown et al. (2005) and Redelinghuys and Botha (2016). Al-Jabari and Ghazzawi (2019) indicates that organisational commitment



refers to the involvement of the employees in the organisation and the strength of an individual's identification with the organisation. Flourishing, which predicts a large percentage of variance in intention to leave, suggests that employees who do not flourish consider leaving the organisation. This result is supported by the finding of Diedericks and Rothmann. (2014), Janse van Rensburg et al. (2017) and Swart and Rothmann, (2012) who indicate that a low intention to leave is a result of a high flourishing level at work.

In view of these findings, it appears reasonable to assume that employees who experience high fit and who flourish within the workplace show higher levels of organisational commitment.

#### **6.4.5 Research aim 3**

- To empirically investigate whether differences exist in the fit, flourishing and organisational commitment of employees in the hospitality industry in terms of the demographic variables of age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate), as revealed in the sample of respondents.

The results provided supportive evidence for research hypothesis H<sub>3</sub>, namely, that differences do exist in fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in terms of the demographic variables: age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate).

#### **Interpretation of test for mean rank differences (fit, flourishing and organisational commitment and demographic variables)**

The results revealed that older employees aged between 41–56 years and older (Baby Boomers and Generation X) revealed greater fit, flourishing and organisational commitment than younger employees. However, the age group 25 years and younger (the Millennial generation) tends to have high values of continuance commitment which implies that this age group feels committed based on the monetary compensation and benefits.

In terms of gender groups, males showed high values compared to females which implies that males experience greater fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in the organisation. In terms of marital status, it was revealed that married employees experience overall greater fit, flourishing and organisational commitment compared to single, divorced and separated respondents.

Hospitality organisations should aim to have a workforce that is involved, loyal and satisfied and should create opportunities and develop strategies for retention regardless of the age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status of the employee.

The results reveal that nationalities, specifically Filipino, Nepali and Indian nationalities, show higher levels of organisational commitment, flourishing and fit in the organisation. This could imply that East Asian expatriates are more committed to the organisation which indicates that these nationalities have a high attachment to the organisation and would be more inclined to remain with the organisation. According to the mean rank for employment status, it can be interpreted that expatriate employees have higher levels of fit, flourishing and organisational commitment compared to the local employees.

The findings related to gender are supported by Jiang (2017) who found that fit is stronger among males than females. In addition, Vetter et al. (2018) found that male and married respondents had higher flourishing scores compared to female and unmarried counterparts. A study conducted by Al-Yami et al. (2018), with more than 50 different nationalities, indicated a significant difference in organisational commitment scores between local and expatriate staff. The study showed that the level of organisational commitment was higher for expatriates. The results indicate that married expatriate males show higher levels of fit, flourishing and organisational commitment.

## 6.5 SUMMARY OF DECISIONS REGARDING THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

Table 5.19 presents an overview of the research hypotheses formulated for the purposes of this research, the statistical procedures performed to test the research hypothesis and the final decisions reached.

**Table 5.19**

*Summary of Decisions Regarding the Research Hypothesis*

Aim	Research hypothesis	Supportive evidence
1	<b>H<sub>1</sub></b> : There is a statistically significant positive relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment.	Yes
2	<b>H<sub>2</sub></b> : The demographic variables (age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status), and the independent variables of fit and flourishing, positively and significantly predict organisational commitment.	Yes (partial)
3	<b>H<sub>3</sub></b> : Differences exist between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in terms of the demographic variables of age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate).	Yes (partial)

## 6.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter discussed the descriptive, correlational and inferential statistics relevant to the study with the intention of integrating the findings of the empirical research study with the findings of the literature review. Chapter 5 therefore addressed the following research aims established for this study:

- **Research aim 1:** To investigate the direction and magnitude of the statistical inter-correlations between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in a sample of participants permanently employed in the hospitality industry.
- **Research aim 2:** To empirically investigate whether the demographic variables (age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate)), and the independent variables of fit and flourishing positively and significantly predict organisational commitment.
- **Research aim 3:** To empirically investigate whether differences exist in the fit, flourishing and organisational commitment of employees in the hospitality industry in terms of the demographic variables of age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate), as revealed in the sample of respondents.

Hence, the empirical research aims of the study were achieved. The next chapter, chapter 6, will conclude the empirical study by addressing the following research aim:

- **Research aim 4:** To formulate conclusions and recommendations for the development of retention strategies for employees in the hospitality industry, as well as for possible future research in the field of Human Resource Management.

## **CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

Chapter 6 discusses the conclusions, limitations and recommendations of this research study. It also addresses research aim 4, namely, to formulate conclusions and recommendations for the development of retention strategies for employees in the hospitality industry. In addition, suggestions for future research in the field of Human Resource Management are made. The chapter concludes with a summary.

### **7.1 CONCLUSION**

This section focuses on the formulation of conclusions regarding the literature review and the empirical study in line with the research aims outlined in Chapter 1 (section 1.3).

#### **7.1.1 Conclusion relating to the literature review**

The primary aim of this research was to determine whether a relationship exists between fit, flourishing (independent variables) and organisational commitment (dependent variable). The second aim investigated whether the demographic variables (age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status), fit and flourishing positively and significantly predict organisational commitment. The third aim was to investigate whether differences exist in the fit, flourishing and organisational commitment of employees in the hospitality industry in terms of the demographic variables of age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate). These aims were achieved by addressing the specific aims of the research.

In the following section, conclusions are drawn in terms of each of the specific aims listed regarding the relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in the hospitality industry.

#### **Research aim 1: To conceptualise the careers and retention of employees in the hospitality industry**

The first aim, namely to conceptualise the careers and the retention of employees in the hospitality industry, was achieved in Chapter 2.

#### **Conclusions relating to careers in the 21st century in the hospitality industry**

The literature specifies that numerous trends are emerging in 21st century careers in the hospitality industry (Emlyon Business School, 2018). Some of these trends have resulted in changes in the contemporary workplace, with employees being expected to manage their

own careers (Cannon & Shay, 2018; Zafar & Norazuwa, 2012) and to develop their own career plans (Okurame & Fabunmi, 2014; Robbins et al., 2009). In addition, in the new world of work employees are expected to take more responsibility of their own careers which should be more driven by their own values and needs (Sultana & Malik, 2019). In the modern world, the idea of a single, lifelong career is becoming obsolete. It is thus more common for employees to change companies and jobs during their career than in the past and job-hopping is becoming more customary (Bersin, 2017).

In the hospitality industry the new digital innovations of the 21st century are also accompanied by pronounced concerns (Langford et al., 2019). In addition, careers in this industry in the 21st century are more vibrant, comprehensive and diverse, offering more exciting and interesting careers than in the past (Langford et al., 2019; MSc in International Hospitality Management, 2018). With the changes in the fast growing hospitality industry, it becomes critical for organisations to attract and retain the right talent and provide career development opportunities (Bersin, 2017).

The world of work in the 21st century has changed in ways that demand new perspectives in the understanding of careers. An additional new way of working has emerged, where organisations have moved to careers that involve more flexible working practices regarding where and when to work (Wessels et al., 2019). Flexibility, as it applies to alternative work arrangements, makes it possible for employees to work in any location using the technological innovations that have changed the face of careers in the new world of work (Spreitzer et al., 2017).

### **Conclusions relating to retention in the hospitality industry**

In the 21st century, retention has become a major global challenge, creating highly competitive and knowledge-intensive work environments in the workplace (Aguenza & Som, 2018). The preceding literature review has indicated that one of the many challenges organisations face in the hospitality industry is employee retention (Brhane & Zewdie, 2018) and to succeed in a highly competitive market, organisations need to maintain a high employee retention rate (Brhane & Zewdie, 2018). The alarmingly high percentages of turnover in the hospitality industry pose a difficult challenge for organisations (Kiruthiga & Magesh, 2015; Sagaraju, 2018) and talent wars have ensued as a result of the international nature of the hotel industry, where organisations compete for the best-qualified candidates (Torres & Mejia, 2017).

Lee et al. (2018) indicate that retention strategies are critical in contributing to the achievement of the organisation's goals and objectives, as well as to improve organisations' performance. In particular, the literature indicates that retention is crucial in the hospitality

industry to ensure that high potential and loyal employees remain (Mamahit et al., 2019), to reduce the high costs of recruiting and training new employees (Akgunduz & Sanli, 2017), to prevent the loss of millions in revenue and to avoid a decrease in productivity in customer services (Wärnich et al., 2015).

To increase retention in organisations, past research has suggested that various retention practices should be implemented, such as training and development, career opportunities, job enrichment, improved benefits, remuneration and rewards (Aguenza & Som, 2018; Ghosh & Gurunathan, 2015; Lee et al., 2018), improved staff recruitment and selection processes, a positive and supportive work environment (Lee et al., 2018), as well as creating shared values and beliefs (Dechawatanapaisal, 2018).

**Research aim 2: To conceptualise the three constructs of fit, flourishing and organisational commitment and explain them by means of theoretical models in the literature**

The second aim, namely, to conceptualise the three constructs of fit, flourishing and organisational commitment and explain them by means of theoretical models in the literature was achieved in Chapters 3.

In the literature reviews the following conclusions were made in relation to the three constructs:

**Fit**

The literature provides numerous definitions of fit, including the compatibility of the employee's goals with the organisation's goals. Van Zyl et al. (2010) and Holtom and Inderrieden (2006) describe fit as an experience of emotional importance in the workplace and an occurrence when employees' goals are compatible with the organisation's goals. Coetzee (2014) states that the employees' career goals, personal values and plans should "fit" the criteria outlined in their job descriptions in addition to the overall culture of the company. As the theoretical model of May et al. (2004) was used in this study, their (2004) was adopted. May et al. (2004) define work-role fit as the perceived fit between an individual's role in the workplace and their self-concept.

**Flourishing**

The literature indicates many definitions of flourishing, which refer to a flourishing individual having very high levels of personal wellbeing, pleasant emotions, minimum pain, and engagement in interesting activities, motivation and an overall satisfaction with life (Bono et al., 2012; Diener, 2009; Hone et al., 2014; Seligman, 2011). Diener et al.'s (2010) definition

of flourishing refers to individuals with high levels of personal wellbeing who function well within an organisational context, (psychological wellbeing), feel good (emotional wellbeing), and fit in well (social wellbeing). Rautenbach's (2015) theoretical model and definition was adopted for this study. Rautenbach defines flourishing as the employee's state of wellbeing achieved through positive experiences and job-related factors in the workplace. Rautenbach (2015) lists the three dimensions of wellbeing at work as emotional wellbeing, psychological wellbeing and social wellbeing.

### **Organisational commitment**

Literature provides numerous definitions of organisational commitment, all accentuating the individual's attachment to the organisation. Organisational commitment is described as the level of attachment, loyalty, devotion, love, bonding, responsibility and vision that employees contribute to their organisation (Benjamin & David, 2012; Chew & Wong, 2008; Ermiş et al., 2015; Farahani et al., 2011; Qureshi et al., 2011).

Organisational commitment focuses on the employees' commitment to their current organisation (Bahrami et al., 2016). For the purpose of this study, Meyer and Allen's (1997) the three-component model of organisational commitment (affective, continuance and normative) was used. Affective commitment refers to the emotional attachment and bond the employee has with their organisation (Mercurion, 2015), continuance commitment (CC) refers to the employees' fear of what will be lost if they leave the organisation (Oh, 2019) and normative commitment (NC) refers to their feelings of obligation to remain with the organisation (Abdullah, 2011; Jaros, 2017; Wang et al., 2020). Employees tend to develop a more positive perception of and remain with the organisation when they are more committed (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Grego-Planer, 2019; Mensele & Coetzee, 2014).

In summary, the second aim, namely to conceptualise the three constructs of fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in terms of theoretical models in the literature, was achieved in Chapter 3.

### **Research aim 3: To identify whether a theoretical relationship exists between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment and to explain this relationship**

The third aim, namely, to identify whether a theoretical relationship exists between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment and to explain this relationship, was achieved in Chapter 3.

The conclusions drawn in terms of the sub-aims are listed as follows:

**Sub-aim: to conceptualise the theoretical relationship between fit and flourishing**

It was evident from the literature review that a theoretical relationship exists between fit and flourishing. Janse van Rensburg et al. (2017) found that fit predicts flourishing at work and has a significant influence on flourishing. In addition, Rothman (2013), Noble and McGrath (2015) and Stewart and Brown (2019) found that fit in the work environment results in satisfaction with the job, personal growth, and engagement and flourishing. Evidence to support to the relationship between fit and flourishing was also found in the literature (Dik et al., 2013; Gabriel et al., 2014; Janse van Rensburg et al., 2017; Kristof-Brown & Billsberry, 2013; Van Vianen et al., 2013).

**Sub-aim: to conceptualise the theoretical relationship between fit and organisational commitment**

It was evident from the literature that a theoretical relationship exists between fit and organisational commitment, with a strong positive relationship between fit and affective commitment being revealed by the conclusions of Jehanzeb (2020), Bahat (2020), Margaretha and Wicaksana (2020) and Chhabra (2015). In addition, Lee et al. (2019) indicate that employees with high affective and normative commitment experience increased fit in the workplace. The correlation between fit and organisational commitment indicates that employees with high levels of fit experience high levels of commitment (Al-Jabari & Ghazzawi, 2019; Kooij & Boon, 2018; WeiBo et al., 2010). Studies confirm that employees who fit in the organisation feel committed and are more likely to remain with the organisation.

**Sub-aim: to conceptualise the theoretical relationship between flourishing and organisational commitment**

Authors Hone et al. (2014) and Redelinguys et al. (2019) found evidence to show significant associations between flourishing and organisational commitment, which indicates that employees experience positive affect (emotional wellbeing), social acceptance and integration in the workplace (social wellbeing), as well as personal growth and functioning well in the organisation (psychological wellbeing). Employees who experience flourishing have higher levels of organisational commitment, resulting in improved retention rates (Awang et al., 2015). Diedericks and Rothman (2014) provide supportive evidence to show that flourishing (emotional, psychological and social wellbeing) in employees is positively associated with and strongly affected by organisation commitment, which mediates turnover intention.



In summary, the third aim, namely to identify if a theoretical relationship existed between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in terms of explanatory theoretical models, was achieved in Chapter 3.

**Research aim 4: To conceptualise the influence of the demographic variables of age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate), on the theoretical relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment**

The fourth aim, namely to conceptualise the influence of the demographic variables of age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate), on the theoretical relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment was achieved in Chapter 3.

**Age**

The literature indicates that age has an effect on fit, flourishing and organisational commitment. Bednarska (2015) found fit to be a strong predictor of work attitudes for Millennials (born between 1981 and 1996), while Westerhof and Keyes (2010) conclude that older adults do not experience flourishing more than younger adults. In their study, Mohammed and Eleswed (2013) found that the most committed employees were older than 50 years (Generation X). Researchers have also found an effect of age in relation to organisational commitment in that older employees experience higher organisational commitment compared to younger employees (D'Amato & Herzfeldt, 2008; Ferreira et al., 2010).

Therefore, the literature review has shown that a relationship exists between the demographic variable of age and fit, flourishing and organisational commitment.

**Gender**

The literature indicates that gender has a significant effect on fit, flourishing and organisational commitment and is a significant predictor of fit (Williamson & Perumal, 2018), flourishing (Tong & Wang, 2017) and organisational commitment (Sloan, 2017) in the workplace. The findings related to gender are supported by Jiang (2017) and Scott et al. (2015), who found that fit is stronger among males than females. In addition, Vetter et al. (2018) found that male respondents had higher levels of flourishing compared to their female counterparts. Females, on the other hand, experience higher levels of organisational commitment compared to males (Gasengayire & Ngatuni, 2019; Sloan, 2017; Visagie & Diedericks, 2018).

In summary, the literature review confirmed that a relationship exists between the demographic variable of gender and fit, flourishing and organisational commitment.

### **Nationality**

The literature shows that nationality is a predictor of fit (Talbot & Billsberry, 2010), flourishing (Tov & Nai, 2018; Travis, 2010) and organisational commitment (Cherian et al., 2018; Yaghi & Aljaidi, 2014). Employees working in a diverse workplace, influenced by different languages, religions, family systems and traditions, experience higher levels of flourishing in the workplace (Ghosh, 2019). Literature studies have shown a significant difference in the level of commitment of employees according to their nationality (Agarwala et al., 2014; Al-Aameri, 2000; Cherian et al., 2018; Yaghi & Aljaidi, 2014). As a result, it can be stated that relationships do exist between the demographic variable of nationality and fit, flourishing and organisational commitment.

### **Marital status**

Very limited literature exists relating marital status to fit. Only in an earlier study by Beattie (1991) was evidence found that marital status is occasionally used as an indicator to determine the employees' level fit within the organisation. Various literature studies have indicated that marital status has an effect on flourishing and organisational commitment. Vetter et al. (2018) and VanderWeele (2017) found that married respondents had higher levels of flourishing than their unmarried counterparts. However, most studies have found that no differences exist in terms of marital status in relation to organisational commitment (affective, normative and continuous commitment) (Agarwala et al., 2014; Albdour & Altarawneh, 2014; Clarence & George, 2018).

In summary, literature studies have revealed contradicting evidence of the existence of a relationship between the demographic variable of marital status and fit, flourishing and organisational commitment.

### **Employment status**

The literature indicates that employment status has an effect on fit, flourishing and organisational commitment. Nawab et al. (2011) indicate poor fit between the employee and the organisation as relating to employment status. Van Renen (2015) found a positive correlation between the cross-cultural adjustments of the expatriate and their flourishing and, consequently, wellbeing, while Shaw et al. (2003) revealed that local employees experience higher organisational commitment compared to expatriates. In turn, the study conducted by Al-Yami et al. (2018) showed that the level of organisational commitment was higher for expatriates.

In summary, the literature review indicated that a relationship exists between the demographic variable of employment status (both expatriate and local) and fit, flourishing and organisational commitment.

### **Conclusions drawn on fit in relation to the demographic variables**

It was found that employees' fit differs in relation to the various demographic variables; this is supported by the following authors:

- age (Bednarska, 2015; Cennamo & Gardner, 2008; Feldman & Vogel, 2009)
- gender (Anwar, 2012; Cognard-Black, 2008; Lovelace & Rosen, 1996; Williamson & Perumal, 2018; Zagenczyk & Shoss, 2015)
- nationality (Elfenbein & O'Reilly, 2007; Jackson & Chung, 2008; Nawab et al., 2011; Salilew, 2019; Talbot & Billsberry, 2010; Williamson & Perumal, 2018)
- marital status (Beattie, 1991)
- employment status (Nawab et al., 2011)

### **Conclusions drawn on flourishing in relation to the demographic variables**

Employees' flourishing differs in relation to the various demographic variables; this is supported by the following authors:

- age (Huppert & So, 2009; Westerhof & Keyes, 2010)
- gender (Diener et al., 2010; Ghosh, 2019; Howell & Buro, 2014; Huppert & So, 2009; Tong & Wang, 2017)
- nationality (Hofstede, 1998; Holck & Andersen, 2018; Scott, 2015; Tov & Nai, 2018; Travis, 2010)
- marital status (Hori et al., 2019; Huppert & So, 2009; Momtaz et al., 2016; VanderWeele, 2017)
- employment status (Ghosh, 2019; Kuo & Tsai, 1986; Van Renen, 2015; Wang, 2002)

### **Conclusions drawn on organisational commitment in relation to the demographic variables**

Employees' organisational commitment differs in relation to the various demographic variables; this is supported by the following authors:

- age (Al-Aameri, 2000; Chan & Qiu, 2011; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mohammed & Eleswed, 2013)

- gender (Becker et al., 2009; Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Gasengayire & Ngatuni, 2019; Loscocco, 1990; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Sloan, 2017; Visagie & Diedericks, 2018)
- nationality (Agarwala et al., 2014; Al-Aameri, 2000; Cherian et al., 2018; Yaghi & Aljaidi, 2014)
- marital status (Agarwala et al., 2014; Al-Aameri, 2000; Albdour & Altarawneh, 2014; Chan & Qiu, 2011; Clarence & George, 2018)
- employment status (Abdulla & Shaw, 1999; Al-Meer, 1989; Amah & Oyetunde, 2019; Balfour & Wechsler, 1991; Shaw et al., 2003; WeiBo et al., 2010)

In summary, the fourth aim, namely to conceptualise the influence of the demographic variables of age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate) on the theoretical relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment was achieved in Chapter 3.

#### **Research aim 5: To identify the theoretical implications for organisational retention practices in the hospitality industry**

The fifth aim, namely to identify the theoretical implications for organisational retention practices in the hospitality industry, was achieved in Chapter 3.

The literature elaborates on the importance of retention strategies and practices. Numerous studies have shown that organisational retention practices are influenced by the relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment. Brhane and Zewdie (2018) state that organisations face retention challenges in the hospitality industry and managers in the hotel sector face major problems with employee turnover intentions on a daily basis (Ferreira et al., 2017). The literature also highlights that retention strategies and best practices would be solutions to retaining talented employees (Davis, 2018; Kiruthiga & Magesh, 2015; Singh, 2019; Vasquez, 2014).

Various authors have indicated that the variables fit, flourishing and organisational commitment have the following implications for retention:

- low productivity and loss of effectiveness and innovation (Ogony & Majola, 2018)
- lower production levels and customer services (Habib et al., 2018)
- an increase in the workload of existing employees, causing burnout and, subsequently, even greater turnover (Stroth, 2010)

- a loss of highly knowledgeable, skilled and talented employees (Heathfield, 2020; McFeely & Wigert, 2019)
- high costs related to recruiting and training of new employees (Holston-Okae, 2018)
- a negative long-term impact on the sustainability and profitability of the company (Davis, 2018).

Literature emphasises that high retention rates in the hospitality industry can be successfully achieved by providing employees with better remuneration and working conditions. These have an impact in that they contribute to organisations remaining competitive with those in other industries (Wells, 2018). Literature also indicates that retention can be increased by hiring suitable managers who express real concern for their employees, empower them and offer them opportunities for development and growth (Davis, 2018).

The literature also reveals the existence of a relationship between the variables; however in the hospitality industry specifically, no studies could be found regarding the relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment.

In summary, the fifth aim, namely to identify the theoretical implications for organisational retention practices in the hospitality industry, was achieved in Chapter 3.

### **7.1.2 Conclusions relating to the empirical study**

The statistical results provided supportive evidence for the research hypotheses as reported in Chapters 4 and 5. In conclusion, the findings in terms of the research aims relating to the empirical study are presented in the following section:

#### **Research aim 1: To investigate the direction and magnitude of the statistical inter-correlations between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in a sample of participants permanently employed in the hospitality industry**

Research aim 1 was achieved by empirically testing research hypothesis H<sub>1</sub>: There is a statistically significant positive relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment.

#### **To empirically investigate the relationship between work-role fit and organisational commitment**

There was sufficient empirical evidence to indicate a strong relationship between fit and organisational commitment.

According to the empirical results, the following conclusions may be drawn:

Employees who experience high levels of work-role fit showed significant and positive relationships with all three dimensions of organisational commitment. This indicates that an employee who experiences high fit in their work role has high levels of affective commitment, thus indicating that he or she is emotionally attached, has a bond with the organisation and has the desire to remain with the organisation. The positive relationship of fit employees experience with their work roles results in high continuous commitment, which means that employees are concerned about what they would lose if they were to leave the organisation. Lastly, employees with a high fit with their work role have a high level of normative commitment, indicating that they feel highly obligated to stay with the organisation. The results suggest that employees who fit in the workplace are more committed to the organisation, in turn indicating that they intend to remain with the organisation.

### **To empirically investigate the relationship between work-role fit and flourishing at work**

The results found a significant and positive relationship between fit and flourishing.

According to the empirical results, the following conclusions can be drawn:

A significant and positive relationship for work-role fit was found with all the dimensions of flourishing, thus indicating that employees experience very high levels of personal wellbeing, pleasant emotions, engagement in the organisation and overall satisfaction with their lives. In addition, the employees who experience high fit show a high level of emotional wellbeing, meaning employees feel good about themselves and have a positive self-concept. The high fit with their work role also suggests high psychological wellbeing; that is, employees have meaningful purpose, positive relations with others and function well within the organisation. Lastly, employees who experience high fit with their work role show high levels of social wellbeing; that is, employees are socially integrated, have coherence, experience personal growth, fit in and have been accepted in the organisation.

In conclusion the results indicated that employees fit and flourish within their work environment and are satisfied with their jobs, suggesting that employees were not thinking of leaving the organisation.

### **To empirically investigate the relationship between Flourishing-at-Work and Organisational Commitment**

The results found a significant positive relationship between flourishing and organisational commitment.

According to the empirical results, the following conclusions can be drawn:

Flourishing at work was found to have a significant and positive relationship with all the dimensions of organisational commitment. The employees experienced high levels of flourishing and had a high level of affective commitment, meaning employees are involved and are compatible with the organisation. The high levels of flourishing result in high continuous commitment which means that employees are concerned about what they would lose if they were to leave the organisation. The high levels of flourishing also indicate high normative commitment levels, meaning employees feel obligated to stay with the organisation.

In summary, this study has shown that employees are flourishing and are highly committed, which reduces the probability of high turnover in the organisation.

**Research aim 2: To empirically investigate whether the demographic variables (age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status), and the independent variables of fit and flourishing positively and significantly predict organisational commitment**

Research aim 2 was achieved by empirically testing research hypothesis H<sub>2</sub>: The demographic variables (age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status), and the independent variables of fit and flourishing positively and significantly predict organisational commitment.

It appears reasonable to assume that employees who experience high fit and flourishing within the workplace show higher levels of organisational commitment. This indicates that employees who experience high levels of flourishing display higher levels of organisational commitment.

Based on the multiple regression analysis the following conclusions were drawn:

- The demographic variables divorced/separated and single positively and significantly predict organisational commitment, thus the divorced, separated and single employees feel more loyal and more obligated to remain, possibly due to monetary benefits compared to married employees. Therefore, the demographic variable marital status positively predicts organisational commitment.
- The variable fit acts as significant predictor for organisational commitment, revealing that high fit results in employees experiencing high organisational commitment.
- The subscale of the variable flourishing, namely social wellbeing, acts as a significant predictor of organisational commitment; meaning that employees

integrate into the organisation, feel and function well and experience high levels of organisational commitment resulting in decreased turnover intentions.

- A positive yet insignificant relationship was found between the demographic variables age and gender, flourishing and organisational commitment. Therefore, age, gender and flourishing do not predict organisational commitment
- No significant relationship was found between emotional wellbeing and psychological wellbeing, and organisational commitment.

Therefore, it may be concluded that the demographic variables of marital status and employment status predict organisational commitment. In view of these findings, it appears reasonable to assume that employees who experience high fit within the workplace show higher levels of organisational commitment. In addition, it may be concluded from the study that work-role fit acts as a positive and significant predictor of organisational commitment,

In conclusion, the results display partial positive evidence for H<sub>2</sub>: The demographic variables (age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status), fit and flourishing positively and significantly predict organisational commitment.

**Research aim 3: To empirically investigate whether differences exist in the fit, flourishin and organisational commitment of employees in the hospitality industry in terms of the demographic variables of age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate), as revealed in the sample of respondents**

Research aim 3 was achieved by empirically testing research hypothesis H<sub>3</sub>: Differences exists between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in terms of the demographic variables of age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate).

The results display partial supportive evidence for H<sub>3</sub>: Differences do exist between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in terms of the demographic variables of age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate).

In terms of the demographics variables in relation to fit, flourishing and organisational commitment, the following conclusions were drawn: age groups between 41 and 56 years and older (Baby Boomers and Generation X) displayed greater fit, flourishing and organisational commitment. On the other hand, the age group 25 years and younger (the Millennial generation) experienced higher continuance commitment (feeling committed based on the monetary compensation and benefits). In relation to gender differences, males



experienced higher levels of fit, psychological and social wellbeing and normative commitment than females. Then again, married employees experienced higher fit, flourishing and organisational commitment compared to single, divorced and separated respondents; this could be due to married employees having greater financial and family commitments. In addition, single and divorced/separated employees experienced high levels of fit and flourishing. With reference to employment status, expatriate employees experienced higher levels of fit, emotional wellbeing, psychological wellbeing, social wellbeing, affective commitment and normative commitment than local employees. This implies that expatriate employees have greater attachment to the organisation and would be more inclined to remain with the organisation. On the other hand, the poor compensation and lack of career growth for local employees are the reasons for not remaining with the organisation. The study also found that local employees indicated higher levels of continuance commitment.

In summary, some significant statistical and positive differences exist between different age, gender, marital status, nationality and employment status (expatriate and local) groups in relation to fit, flourishing and organisational commitment.

**Research aim 4: To formulate conclusions and recommendations for the development of retention strategies for employees in the hospitality industry, as well as for possible future research in the field of Human Resource Management**

Research aim 4 is addressed in Chapter 6.

The hospitality industry faces a major problem of employee turnover intention (Ferreira et al., 2017). Therefore, well-planned and well-executed interventions should be implemented to increase work-role fit, flourishing and organisational commitment to retain talented employees.

The results of the study indicate that expatriates and older employees experience higher levels of fit, flourishing and organisational commitment. In terms of demographic variables, hospitality organisations should take into account that experienced, loyal, committed and knowledgeable employees are due to retire or will be leaving and returning to their own countries, thus resulting in a critical challenge. The results therefore reveal that employment status and marital status are the only significant demographic variables that positively and significantly predict organisational commitment.

In terms of demographic variables, organisations should take into account that younger, local and unmarried employees experience low levels of fit, flourishing and organisational commitment. In view of the fact that 63% of employees are local, 41% unmarried and 65% younger than 40 years, organisations should reconsider their recruitment strategies (fit),

ensure employees fit in well (social wellbeing) and increase the levels of attachment to the organisation (organisational commitment) to ensure these demographic groups also intend to remain with the organisation.

Based on the findings of this study, a number of general recommendations for hospitality organisations to improve fit, flourishing and organisational commitment are the following: recruit and select highly talented employees who are teamwork orientated to increase work-role fit, provide continuous training interventions, ensure that employees are integrated into the organisation and increase flourishing to engage employees on an ongoing basis. To increase organisational commitment, provide competitive salaries, increase reward and recognition programmes, provide career opportunities, and ensure that employees experience purpose and meaning.

### 7.1.3 Conclusions relating to the hypotheses

Table 6.1 presents a summary of the conclusions related to the three hypotheses achieved in this study.

**Table 6.1**  
*Summary of the Conclusions of the Hypothesis Achieved*

Research hypothesis	Conclusion of the hypothesis	Decision on the hypothesis
H <sub>1</sub>	There is a statistically significant positive relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment.	Supported
H <sub>2</sub>	The demographic variables (age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status), and the independent variables of fit and flourishing, positively and significantly predict organisational commitment.	Supported
H <sub>3</sub>	Differences exist between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in terms of the demographic variables of age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate).	Supported

The literature review and the empirical study provided supportive evidence for hypotheses H<sub>1</sub>, H<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>3</sub>.

### 7.1.4 Conclusions relating to the development of retention strategies for employees in the hospitality industry

In 2019, the hospitality industry had one of the highest turnover rates (Pavlou, 2019), creating a difficult challenge for human resource practitioners (Kiruthiga & Magesh, 2015; Sagaraju, 2018). In addition, the hospitality industry endured numerous disasters (Borko, 2018), including the recent global outbreak of the coronavirus in 2019/2020 (COVID-19). Moreover, over the past decades it has had to constantly recover, re-emerge, survive and

thrive. Substantial work pressures, stress and physical and mental work in the hospitality industry are also factors that result in high staff turnover (Hunker, 2014).

It is critical for the international hospitality industry to be aware of the role that fit, flourishing and organisational commitment play in the retention of employees and in reducing high employee turnover. Therefore, employee retention programmes and best retention practices are of the utmost importance in the hospitality industry; these will ensure the retention of high performing and talented employees and add to the success, productivity and profitability of the organisation. Retention strategies will assist in ensuring a low employee turnover rate, which in turn will positively effect the sustainability and profitability of the organisation.

Overall, retention strategies and frameworks should:

- minimise employee turnover to prevent a negative impact on business goals and productivity by implementing organisational commitment initiatives
- increase the retention rate by increasing the fit, flourishing and organisational commitment of all employees to prevent the loss of talented employees
- increase work-role fit by recruiting and employing employees who are a good fit for the team as well as for the organisation (Mankiewicz, 2020).

#### **7.1.5 Conclusions relating to the contribution to the field of Human Resources Management**

The findings of the literature review provide valuable insights into the various concepts and theoretical models promoting fit, flourishing and organisational commitment. In turn, the empirical results contribute to the field of Human Resource Management, providing ways in which organisations could retain employees. Human resource practitioners should recognise the factors that contribute to employee retention in the hospitality industry. This study is pertinent for human resource practitioners in attempting to ensure a steady workforce and to make the necessary recommendations to ensure employees remain in their organisations. Therefore, human resource practitioners should understand the factors that create employee fit (e.g. psychological meaningfulness and work engagement), flourishing (e.g. social acceptance, integration, growth, physical engagement, meaning, purpose, job satisfaction and learning) and commitment (e.g. affection for the workplace, obligation to stay and concern about what might be lost if leaving), and use this knowledge to leverage retention. Human resource managers play a major role in designing effective policies, as well as improving existing retention strategies or developing new ones. The statistical findings have added value and knowledge on the relationship between fit and flourishing (independent variables) and organisational commitment (dependent variable) for human resource departments and propose a talent retention framework with the aim of increasing retention.

Furthermore, the study highlighted whether employees with differences in terms of age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate) differ in terms of their fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in the organisation. The findings of the literature review and the empirical study provided greater understanding for human resource management on the concepts and theoretical models, as well as the relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment.

The literature review also provided an overview of careers in the hospitality industry. In addition therefore, this research study makes the international hospitality industry aware of the role that fit, flourishing and organisational commitment play in relation to challenges such as high employee turnover, which is regarded as a complex and ongoing issue and topic for study (Alatawi, 2017).

In summary, the area of Human Resource Management is complex and organisations need to be better armed with knowledge on improving the retention capabilities required to retain their talented employees in order to remain in business (Kossivi et al., 2016).

## **7.2 LIMITATIONS**

The limitations of the literature review and the empirical study are identified and discussed in the following section.

### **7.2.1 Limitations of the literature review**

The following limitations were found in the literature review related to fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in the hospitality industry:

- Recent literature related to all three constructs (fit, flourishing and organisational commitment) was not available.
- Limitations were found with regard to the relationship of the demographic variables (age, gender, nationality, marital status and employment status (local or expatriate) with fit, flourishing and organisational commitment.
- The Work Role Fit Scale (WRFS) developed by May et al. (2004) was limited to only three items/questions.
- The Flourishing-at-Work Scale (FAWS) by Rautenbach (2015) was limited to three constructs: emotional, psychological and social wellbeing.
- The Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS) developed Meyer and Allen (1997) was limited to the variables of affective, continuance and normative commitment.

- Numerous literature review studies were found on fit, flourishing and organisational commitment; however none of these was conducted specifically in the hospitality industry.

### **7.2.2 Limitations of the empirical study**

In terms of the empirical study, the following limitations were found:

- The empirical findings of this study have limited practicality and generalisability in relation to the research design.
- These limitations include the use of a non-probability sample which was relatively small (n = 389). Considering that hospitality is a global industry, a large sample across a large area or including more countries could be used to increase the power of the outcome of the study.
- The study was limited to data collected from one large hospitality group with nine hotels on seven different islands in the Indian Ocean, therefore underrepresenting all hospitality organisations globally.
- To date, empirical studies on the relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in the hospitality industry are unavailable.
- Employees from different nationalities could have experienced an English language barrier and misinterpreted terms or words when responding.

Regardless of the abovementioned limitations, the results of this research study are relevant and statistically significant. The sample represented all the demographic variables in the study equally. Accordingly, the same research could be conducted in multiple countries and regions across the globe to draw conclusions for the entire hospitality industry, given the fact that hospitality is a global industry. A future study based on a larger geographical area and more diverse sample of employees would provide greater statistical power.

## **7.3 RECOMMENDATIONS**

Based on the findings, conclusions and limitations of this study, recommendations for the field of Human Resource Management and further research in the hospitality industry are provided in the subsections below.

### **7.3.1 Recommendations for the development of retention strategies for employees in the hospitality industry**

The main aims of the study were to investigate the direction and magnitude of the statistical inter-correlations between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in a sample of participants permanently employed in the hospitality industry and to provide a valuable framework for developing retention strategies.

To ensure employees remain, hospitality organisations should create a working environment in which employees experience fit, flourishing and commitment. This can be achieved by recruiting, training and retaining managers with the following qualities: connected with the organisation, and engaged, motivated, empowered and inspired leaders who provide clear career paths for employees. Employees experience higher emotional attachment and bond with the organisation when they receive feedback, recognition and rewards, as well as being allowed to contribute to the organisation's goals. Organisations should therefore use performance reviews to provide clear career goals for employees, as well as providing consistent support and effective communication, which in turn increase fit, flourishing and commitment, ultimately decreasing turnover rates in the hotel industry. In addition, organisations that provide their employees with competitive remuneration, job satisfaction and excellent working conditions are able to positively address their turnover problems.

Human resource practitioners should consider the use of a multidimensional measure to assess employees' fit, flourishing and organisational commitment. To minimise the impact of employee turnover it is suggested that organisations ensure that employees are a good fit, show high levels of flourishing and experience organisational commitment. It is further suggested that human resources practitioners implement strategies for retaining high performing employees. To retain employees, the hospitality industry needs to implement innovative and effective interventions or retention strategies. Work-role fit could be increased with an effective recruitment strategy, defining and selecting appropriate psychometric tests to ensure that committed individuals are appointed and to test the abilities and skills of candidates to determine whether the employee is a suitable fit for the organisation. Therefore, human resource practitioners should interview and evaluate candidates very selectively and cautiously to ensure that the right abilities and skills are obtained, as well as finding candidates who fit in the organisation.

To increase flourishing in the hospitality industry, organisations need to ensure high levels of engagement and create a positive work environment. This can be achieved through training interventions and encouraging personal wellbeing.

Organisational commitment, and in turn retention, can be increased by satisfying the needs of the employees (e.g. by providing competitive salaries), creating an equal and fair workplace, allowing for sharing in decision-making processes and increasing employee responsibilities. Hospitality organisations should implement an approach to the development of their employees' organisational commitment to make them feel valued which will result in them wanting to remain with the organisation.

Table 6.2 presents a summary of interventions recommended for the development of retention strategies.

**Table 6.2***Recommendations of Interventions for Retention Strategies*

<b>Construct</b>	<b>Concept</b>	<b>Recommended interventions</b>
Work role fit	Employees' goals are compatible with the organisation's goals personal values and career plans "fit" with their job descriptions	<p>ensure the identification of candidates whose personal values fit with the organisational goals</p> <p>recruit talented employees</p> <p>select the most suitable employees by administering work-role fit assessments (e.g. personality testing)</p> <p>conduct employee satisfaction surveys every six months to obtain direct inputs/feedback</p>
Flourishing	<p>high levels of personal wellbeing</p> <p>positive experiences in the workplace</p> <p>pleasant emotions</p> <p>high engagement</p> <p>function well within an organisational context, (psychological wellbeing)</p> <p>feeling good (emotional wellbeing)</p> <p>fitting in well (social wellbeing)</p>	<p>provide coaching training for managers on employee wellbeing in the workplace</p> <p>create flexible working hours and work-life balance (such as split shifts in hotel operations)</p> <p>create an positive work environment</p> <p>provide employee health programmes and/or facilities (such as staff gym, medical subsidies)</p> <p>provide a safe work environment and personal protective equipment (PPE) for all hospitality employees</p> <p>offer engagement activities, such as team building workshops, frequent social interaction or gatherings</p> <p>conduct employee satisfaction surveys every six months to obtain direct input/feedback</p>
Organisational commitment	<p>employees contribute to the organisation's vision and goals</p> <p>high level of emotional attachment and bond with the organisation (affective commitment)</p> <p>fear of what will be lost if they leave (continuance commitment)</p> <p>feeling of obligation and loyalty to remain with the organisation (normative commitment)</p>	<p>implement a highly effective performance appraisal programme aligned to the organisation's vision and goals</p> <p>provide cross training/exposure in the hotel to employees across all departments</p> <p>provide additional night allowances/ payment for employees working night shifts in the hotel</p> <p>improve the recognition and reward system (bonus schemes, an employee of the month programme)</p> <p>perform exit interviews to determine underlying causes of turnover</p>

In conclusion, the empirical findings of this study confirmed significant and positive relationships between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment, which provides a valuable framework for retention strategies for the hospitality industry. Hospitality organisations could apply the results and recommendations to effectively develop interventions for retaining their talented employees.

### **7.3.2 Recommendations for possible future research in the field of Human Resource Management**

Future research should be conducted on fit, flourishing and organisational commitment with the purpose of sustaining the findings of the current study. In addition, the findings may be useful to future researchers interested in studying the variables in this study.

In the 21st century human resource departments have become a decisive and critical success factor for organisations. Therefore, further research could provide human resource practitioners with more insight into the concepts with the aim of creating awareness among employees with regard to their personal level of work-role fit, their flourishing and their organisational commitment.

Further research on the demographic variable of age would provide human resource departments with in-depth understanding of the different needs and preferences of the various generations such as Baby Boomers (1946–1964), Generation X (1965–1981) and the Generation Y (1982–1999) in the organisation. For example, regarding to differences in age groups, the Millennial generation (25 years and younger) have been found to be less committed to organisations than the older generations (the Generation X (41–55 years) and Baby Boomers (56 years and older)). Further research relating to employment status would provide human resource practitioners with a better understanding regarding expatriate employees' fit, flourishing and organisational commitment profiles. Additional demographic variables could also be included in future research studies, such as job level and type of job.

Further studies would expand knowledge on the relationship between the demographic variables of fit, flourishing and organisational commitment with the intention of improving retention strategies and retaining talented employees. Furthermore, future studies would add value to the field of Human Resource Management with the purpose of developing talent retention strategies in the hospitality industry.

A future study is recommended which could expand the representation to a larger sample across the globe, in more hotels and resorts, also in more countries. A broader research sample would represent the entire global hospitality industry.



#### **7.4 INTEGRATION OF THE RESEARCH**

The study investigated the relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in the hospitality industry, specifically in the Indian Ocean.

The literature review confirmed a relationship between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment, although no single integrated study was found linking the three variables of fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in the hospitality industry. In particular, limited research was found with regard to both fit and flourishing in the hospitality industry.

The empirical results of the study prove that a significant relationship exists between fit, flourishing and organisational commitment and provides statistically positive evidence to support the hypotheses. The significant relationships between the three variables are valuable for the hospitality industry and serve as a guide to human resource practitioners to improve, develop, promote and implement retention strategies.

In conclusion, the results of this study will be both constructive and beneficial to Human Resource Management in the hospitality industry in adapting retention strategies to include interventions for improving workplace fit, flourishing and organisational commitment in employees. In addition, future research could make additional recommendations for the hospitality industry and the Human Resource Management field.

#### **7.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

Chapter 6 presented the conclusions of the study in terms of the empirical and theoretical objectives. The limitations of the study were highlighted and recommendations for further research were made. In addition, Chapter 6 integrated the results of the study, achieving research aim 5, namely to identify the theoretical implications for organisational retention practices in the hospitality industry. Research aim 4 of the empirical study was also attained in this chapter; namely, to formulate conclusions and recommendations for the development of retention strategies for employees in the hospitality industry as well as possible future research in the field of Human Resource Management. In summary, this chapter integrated the research conducted with the relevant research, subsequently providing results for the relationship between the constructs of fit, flourishing and organisational commitment.

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