Cultural Differences in Organizational Commitment

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This study investigates predictors of organizational commitment i.e. allocentrics, procedural justice and servant leadership based on the moderating effect of work meaning. A survey of 195 employees of a state owned hotel in Yogyakarta, Indonesia was analyzed using the Structural Equation Modeling. Result indicated that allocentrics and procedural justice positively predicted organizational commitment while servant leadership had no effect on organizational commitment. Result were explained in terms of cultural differences, particularly the opposite result of the relationship between allocentrics and organizational commitment, compare to its counterpart in the west, and the similar result of the relationship between procedural justice – which is a western value – and organizational commitment.

INTRODUCTION

Organizational commitment is an important factor in the hearts of employees because it will bind employees to keep working in the organization and contribute to the performance of the organization. Low organizational commitment will result in high employee intention to leave and if this condition is experienced by many employees, the problem of turnover will influence the organization performance given the high cost of recruitment, new employee orientation, training needed to gain the competencies required and delayed productivity due to the adjustment of new employees, decrease in integration among employees, employee demoralization, which then affects the effectiveness and productivity of the organization (Abbott, White & Charles, 2005; Arnold & Davey, 1999; Camp, 1994; Chughtai & Zafar, 2006; Cole & Bruch, 2006; Jones, Jones & Prenzler, 2005; Kibeom, Meyer, & Kyung Yong, 2001; Wasti, 2003). On the other hand, high organizational commitment will result in the employee loyalty to the organization and will contribute to organizations that exceed expectations and achieve excellent performance (Chen, Hwang & Liu, 2009; Chughtai & Zafar, 2006; Francesco & Chen, 2004; Karrasch, 2003; Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, & Jackson, 1989;, Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnytsky, 2002; Riketta & Landerer, 2002; Siders, George & Dharwadkar, 2009).

Research conducted by Watson-Wyatt Worldwide entitled WorkAsia (2004) revealed the attitude of employees throughout Asia. The survey involved a sample of more than 115,000 employees from 515 companies in 11 countries, e.g. Indonesia, Malaysia, Thailand, Singapore, Taiwan, China, Australia, Japan, India, South Korea and the Philippines. In this survey, Indonesia was represented by more than 8,000 respondents from 46 companies in 14 industries. The number of Indonesian respondents accounted for 9% of the total survey sample WorkAsia (2004). Associated with the desire to change job, the survey results showed a controversy of the Indonesian respondents. The data shows that as many as 85% of employees feel proud to work for their company (number of employees exceeds the Asia Pacific region only 77%), 80% of employees believe the company's long-term success (this figure exceeds the Asia

Pacific region that only 72%), but only 35% of employees in Indonesia want to stay in the company, the rest have the intention to leave the company for another company with almost equal in terms of salary, position and job scope. This fact shows that compared with the results of the survey for the Asia-Pacific region where 57% of employees chose to survive despite similar available positions at other companies, then Indonesian employees are considered to have the lowest commitment compared to the 10 Asian countries surveyed.

Major research on organizational commitment is generally performed in the United States. Several studies results conducted outside the United States were found to have similarities with the results of research conducted in the United States (Irving, Cawsey & Cruikshank, 2002; Gautam, 2004; Carmeli, 2005; Addae & Parboteeah, 2006; Chughtai & Zafar, 2006; Chen et al., 2009).

However, in contrast to the results of studies that have been discussed above, there are different findings such as research by Near (1989) which suggest that structure, organizational context, perceptions of job characteristics and personal practice were lower in variance to the Japanese respondents compared to United States respondents. Pearson and Duffy (1999) found that for nurses of Australian origin, contents of the task have a significant relationship with organizational commitment, while for nurses from Malaysia, the context of the task have a significant relationship with organizational commitment. Chen and Francesco (2000) found that in China positions affect employees' commitment while gender and other demographic variables not. North and Hort (2002) found that the dimensions of commitment in the United States was not in accordance with the respondents from Malaysia and Thailand who prefer relationships with colleagues, customers and superiors more important than the opportunity to achieve personal success. Gelade, Dobson and Gilbert (2006) compared organization commitment with respondents from 49 countries. Finding suggest that affective commitment varies significantly among the countries sampled, influenced by socio-economic conditions. In countries with low levels of unemployment, high level of economic activity and adopt egalitarian culture, affective commitment is higher.

Given the importance of organizational commitment to employee performance and the willingness of employees to remain loyal to the organization, predictors of organizational commitment in Indonesia needs to be researched.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Organizational Commitment

Allen and Meyer (1996) developed the concept of organizational commitment based on the commitment given the emotional attachment labeled affective commitment and a commitment by the transaction given the label of continuance commitment. Affective commitment is the extent to which members of the organization identify and engage themselves to the organization in which he or she works. Emotional affective commitment (Kanter, 1968) and attitude (Sheldon, 1971) bind employees to the organization, which result in the harmony, compatibility and integration between employees' personal goals with organizational goals (Mowday, Steer & Porter, 1979; Price & Mueller, 1981). On the other hand, continuance commitment reveals the extent to which sustainability commitment of the organizational members associated with the organization's presence in the cost-benefit considerations underlying the decision to continue working in the organization or leaving the organization.

Furthermore, Allen and Meyer (1996) put forward a new development of the concept of existing commitments, by presenting the concept of normative commitment. According to Allen and Meyer (1996), normative commitment is defined as a belief in oneself a responsibility to keep working in the organization. This concept refers to the definition proposed by Baack, Luthan and Jerry (1991) on organizational commitment, which reported an internalized normative pressure in a person to act in accordance with the goals and interests of the organization. The reason for the action was merely that the action was believed to be the right thing to do morally. Employees with high normative commitment has a need to remain committed to the organization regardless of their feelings to the organization. Unlike the

concept of affective commitment and continuance commitment, the concept of normative commitment received less attention from researchers.

However, Allen and Meyer (1996), found that most research on commitment were focus on affective commitment, which has strong ties to performance, while continuance commitment were found to have a negative relationship with performance, and in some studies, normative commitment were found to be correlated with the performance but this relationship is still very little researched. Therefore, this research will be focused on affective commitment approach.

Meaning of Work

Yoon and Thye (2002) suggested that in order to understand the development of commitment, one should consider the proposed concept of two levels of change in employees mind. First level of change is the impact of events experienced by employees at work (i.e. implementation of company rules, regulations, payroll, employer attitudes, income policy, promotion decisions, atmosphere, acceptance and other events in the organization). Events that occur will result in the changes of knowledge and attitudes i.e. employee satisfaction, perception of being supported by the organization (Yoon & Thye, 2002) or perception of work as meaningful (Arnold, Turner, Barling, Kelloway, & McKee, 2007).

In this study, the results of the first rate change is how employees interpret their work (Scroggins, 2008). There are three meanings influencing affective commitment. First, the meaning of centralization, is the extent to which values in the society considers the importance of work in the context of everyday life. Second, the meaning of the exchange, is the extent to which employees interpret the work as a mutual relationship that benefits both parties, and thirdly, the meaning of interpersonal relationships, how it provide comfort in social interactions, especially with superiors.

The meaning of centralization will be reviewed from cultural concept, allocentrics in particular. The meaning of the exchange will be reviewed from the concept of procedural justice, whether exchanges established justly will lead to meaningful work and enhance employee's affective commitment to the organization. The meaning of interpersonal aspects will be focused on the relationship with supervisor, based on the concept of servant leadership, which serve as a source of comfort in social interactions in the workplace and improve employee affective commitment.

Allocentrics

The study of culture and psychology must be examined in terms of the level of analysis. Triandis (2001) found that on the community level, factor analysis indicated that individualist and collective are different sides of a single dimension of culture. However, when the data were analyzed with the individual as the unit of analysis, there are several orthogonal factors that reflect individualism and collectivism for each individual (Triandis, Chan, Bhawuk, Iwao & Sinha, 1995). Triandis (2001) later suggested the use of different terminology between the findings on the community and individual level of analysis. For the individual level, Triandis (2001) proposed the terminology of idiocentrics and allocentrics, terms which widely used in text books of social psychology. This terminology would allow research on idiocentrics behaviors in a collective culture, or allocentrics behaviors in an individualistic culture. In reality, there will be more allocentrics in collective societies, and more idiocentrics in individualist societies.

Allocentrics and idiocentrics were defined as a situation-specific dispositions. Barsade and Chatman (1995) suggest that the nature present in all cultures, but on collective societies, the nature of the behavioral manifestations are lower than those in the individualistic societies. Effect of the situation is also universal in all cultures, but the effect of situation on behavior was higher in the collective than individualistic societies. Consistency in cognitive psychology and behavioral processes apply universally to all cultures but in the collective societies, it is not as important as those in the individualist societies.

The differences between allocentrics and idiocentrics can be viewed from various aspects such as self-definition, self-estimation, ethnocentrism, morality and communication. In terms of self-definition, allocentrics tend to refer themselves to a social entity. Triandis et al. (1995) found that the collective use of social content by 30% to 50% when describing themselves, whereas individualists using 0% to 20%.

Self estimation on the allocentrics tend to incline on solidarity, while idiocentrics are towards achievements and be the best. In addition, idiocentrics have the tendency to dominate while allocentrics prefer harmony. Allocentrics also associated with low self-estimation, it is easy to feel embarrassed and shy, affiliative, sensitive to social rejection and low need for uniqueness. Motivational structure on allocentrics reflect acceptance of others and hold down personal needs and desires, whereas idiocentrics reflect internal needs, rights and capacities, including the courage to resist social pressures (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Idiocentrics characteristics include freedom, seek pleasure, assertiveness, creativity, curiosity, competition, self-assurance, efficiency, initiative, and straightforwardness. Allocentrics characteristics include attentive, respect, humility, obedience, responsibility, reciprocity, self-sacrifice, sense of security, tradition, conformity and cooperation (Grimm, Church, Katigbak & Reyes, 1999, in Triandis & Suh, 2002).

In terms of ethnocentrism, allocentrics tend to be more ethnocentric than idiocentrics, they will have more positive attitude towards the group and less positive attitude towards other groups (Triandis & Suh, 2002). In communicating, allocentrics give more attention to context rather than content while idiocentrics give more focus on the content rather than how to say words. In a collectivist society, the voice, gestures, eye contact and movement gives more meaning to messages, while in an individualist society, language is more important.

Comparative studies between allocentrics and idiocentrics found that social factors such as the approval of the family were weak predictors for idiocentrics, and strong predictors for allocentrics. Furthermore, job satisfaction and promotion are the main determinants of affective and normative commitment for idiocentrics, while satisfaction with the attitude of superiors is a major determinant allocentrics (Wasti, 2003).

Procedural Justice

The effect of procedural justice seems universally evident, supported by research conducted by Chugtai and Zafar (2006) in Pakistan, Chai-Amonphaisal and Ussahawanitchakit (2008) in Thailand, Choi and Mai-Dalton (1998) in China and Loi, Yue and Folley (2006) in Hong Kong. Those research suggest that procedural justice predicted organizational commitment. Therefore it can be assumed that for Indonesian respondents, procedural justice will also influence organizational commitment.

Folger and Konovski (1989) argues that procedural justice is more related to the evaluation of the system at an institution, whereas distributive justice is more related to the evaluation of a specific output. At the social level, Tyler and Caine (1981) as cited by Folger and Konovsky (1989), found that perceptions of procedural justice affect the evaluation of government leaders and institutions than distributive justice. Research also proves that procedural justice predict legitimacy and public support, compared to distributive justice. Lind and Tyler (1988) found that procedural justice influence leadership power in public sector.

Research in the organization level showed similar relationships between procedural justice with organizational output (Folger & Konovski, 1989; Napier & Tyler, 2008), suggesting that procedural justice have a major impact on the organization and leadership, as well as influencing long-term memberships of the organization. Further studies in the field of human resource management found similar results, such as research by Brown (2009) found that the accuracy of the determination of bonuses and promotions influence the perception of fairness and affects work behaviors. Promotion policy, skills training, and job security also predict employees' performance (Chai-Amonphaisal & Ussahawanitchakit, 2008).

Motivation to achieve justice is an internal causal attribution when it comes to value. Trust in management will increase if the employees perceive the existence of management motivation to achieve justice in human resource policy and human resource management practices. Review of the implementation of human resource management practices in the organization found that assessment (performance appraisal), reward systems, and other information disclosure which reflect the exercise of justice result in the positive attitude and influence work behavior (Beeler & Hunton, 1997; Steensma & Visser, 2007).

Servant Leadership

A servant leader is described as being able to manage various aspects of decision making so as to maximize the wisdom of the organization. Most researchers strive to focus on the appropriate conceptual constructs such as altruism (Kanungo & Conger, 1993), self-sacrifice (Choi & Mai-Dalton, 1998), charismatic (Conger & Kanungo, 2000), authentic (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999), spiritual (Fry, 2003), and transformational (Bass, 1999; Avolio, Bass & Jung, 1999). Some researchers are still trying to explore the concepts underpinning the construct of servant leadership (Sendjaya, Sarros & Santora, 2008) although it seems that current empirical explanations hampered by lack of servant leadership underpinning theory and the absence of precise measurements.

Servant leadership suggested by Greenleaf (1970) stems from a feeling of pure consciousness to serve and followed by the willingness to lead. The main priority of a servant leader is to ensure that the people they lead get what they want. Indicators of success of a servant leader are the better, become healthier, wiser, more independent, more free followers, which in turn serving others.

Graham (1991) as cited by Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) stated that servant leadership served the highest moral charisma effect compared to other theories of leadership by its prominent characteristics such as humility, relational power, autonomy, moral development of followers and emulation of leaders' service orientation.

Spears (2009) extended Greenleaf's work by articulating 10 characteristics of a servant leader: listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of people, and community building. This work did not connect to or distinguish itself from other conceptualizations of leadership as Graham's (1991) work, however, it did provide the closest representation of an articulated framework for what characterizes servant leadership.

The influence of servant leadership on organizational commitment also found to be universal, supported by evident from the research conducted in China (Choi & Chen, 2007; Chen et al., 2009), Singapore (Loke, 2001; Avolio et al., 2004), United States, India and China (Walumbwa, Lawler, Avolio, Wang & Shi, 2005), South Africa (Dannhauser & Boshoff, 2006). Thus, it can also be concluded that for Indonesian respondents, servant leadership affect organizational commitment.

Conceptual Framework of the Research Model

Figure 1 showed the conceptual framework of this research.





Hypotheses

Reviews on the theoretical basis of this research leads to several hypotheses below:

- 1. Allocentrics, procedural justice and servant leadership predicted employee affective commitment mediated by the meaning of work.
- 2. High level of allocentrics will result in low meaningful of work and low affective commitment.
- 3. High perception of procedural justice will result in high meaningful of work and high affective commitment.
- 4. High perception on servant leadership will result in high meaningful of work and high affective commitment.

METHOD

Measurement

Organisational Commitment (OC)

In this study, organizational commitment was measured using the Three-Component Model of Commitment Scale (Allen & Meyer, 1996) sub-scale of affective commitment (AC) which measure emotional attachment, identification, and employee involvement to the organization. Eight items of the scale were tested by Allen and Meyer (1996) and produce a Cronbach alpha coefficient .87. Exploratory factor analysis and rotation with maximum likelihood obtained two factors: factor 1 consists of items 5, 6 and 8, and the second factor consists of items 1, 2 and 3. Confirmatory factor analysis result in factor loading .81 for Factor 1 and .64 for Factor 2.

Meaning of Work (WM)

This study will measure work meaning using the adaptation of the Work Meaning Scale established by Ashmos and Duchon (2000). The scale measure respondents' perceptions of the enjoyment of work and the extent to which the work gives meaning and direction in their lives. This scale consists of four items, exploratory factor analysis and rotation with maximum likelihood obtained four factors namely item 1 s / d 4. Confirmatory factor analysis showed that the load factor is .70 for Factor 1, .76 for Factor 2, .72 for Factor 3 and .71 for Factor 4.

Allocentrics (AS)

Allocentrics Scale was developed by Triandis et al. (1995) based on characteristics namely selfidentity, family integrity, perception of culture, behavior of friends, perception of objective and personal opinion. These characteristics are represented by 26 items. Exploratory factor analysis and rotation with maximum likelihood obtained four factors i.e. item number 9, 10, 13 and 17. Confirmatory factor analysis showed that the load factor is .60 for Factor 1, .76 for Factor 2, .78 for Factor 3 and .65 for factor 4.

Procedural Justice (PJ)

Perceptions of organizational justice will be measured using scale developed by Folger and Konovski (1989). Eight items representing the concepts of procedural justice proposed by Greenberg (1987). Exploratory factor analysis and rotation with maximum likelihood obtained three factors. Confirmatory factor analysis showed that the load factor .54 for Factor 1, .66 for Factor 2, and .84 for Factor 3.

Servant Leadership (SL)

Servant Leadership Scale developed by Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) based on the concept of Servant Leadership proposed by Greenleaf (1970), consists of 11 characteristics i.e. personal calling, listening, empathy, healing, wisdom, persuasion, conceptualization, looking forward, service, growth and community development. Each characteristic was revealed by 5 to 7 items, with overall scale consist of 56 items. Factor analysis result in 5 factors i.e. personal calling, healing, wisdom, persuasion and services, overall total items of 23 (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006). Reliability test of sub-scale range from 0.73 to 0.97. Standard deviation between the five sub-scales is quite consistent, range from 00:49 to 12:58. Exploratory

factor analysis and rotation with a maximum likelihood result in three factors. Confirmatory factor analysis showed that the loading factor is .90 for Factor 1, .81 for Factor 2, and .78 for Factor 3.

Test of Measurement Model

Figure 2 showed the result of the test on measurements model of this study.



FIGURE 2 TEST OF MESUREMENT MODEL

Subject

Subjects were employees of a state owned hotel in Yogyakarta, Indonesia. 239 employees were involved in this study. Administrative screening result in 231 eligible responses. Mahalanobis test or d2 (Ghozali, 2008) with two stages to clean the data from outliers result in 195 responses. Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black (1995) cited by Ferdinand (2002) suggest that an appropriate sample size for the estimation and interpretation of the results of structural equation modeling (SEM) is in between range of 100 to 200 respondents. Hair et.al. (1995) also suggested that the minimum sample size is five observations for each estimated parameter.

RESULTS

Tests on theoretical models of predictors of organizational commitment described in Table 1:

TABLE 1		
RESEARCH RESULT		

Source	Requirement	Fitness Test	Conclusion
Chi-square	p≥.05	.051	Fit
RMSEA	$\leq .080$. 067	Fit
GFI	≥.900	.917	Fit

Theoretical Model Test for Predictors of Organizational Commitment

Figure 3 showed the theoretical model test for predictors of organizational commitment.

FIGURE 3



The theoretical model is empirically tested, but not all of the hypotheses are proven. The second hypothesis which said that "high level of allocentrics will result in low meaningful of work and low affective commitment" proven to be the opposite: high level of allocentrics resulted in high meaningful of work and high organizational commitment. The fourth hypothesis which said that "high perception on servant leadership will result in high meaningful of work and high affective commitment" was not supported with the data of this research, servant leadership did not affect the commitment to the organization.

Coefficient Determination (**R**²)

Table 2 described the coefficient of determination of each exogenous and endogenous variables.

Exogenous Variables	Endogenous Variables	Coefficient Determination R ²	Effective Contribution (%)
 Allocentrics Procedural	Meaning of Work	.45	45%
Justice Servant Leadership			
 Meaning of Work	Organization Commitment	.55	55%

TABLE 2COEFFICIENT DETERMINATION

Allocentrics and organizational justice simultaneously contributing to the direct effect on the meaning of work for .45 or 45%. The coefficient of determination of meaning of work to the organization's commitment is .55 or 55%.

Based on further observations of the effects of exogenous variables on endogenous variables, it is known that not all exogenous variables have significant direct effects on variable endogenous: the meaning of work. The results showed, as in Table 3, that there is a significant influence of allocentrics on the meaning of work (β = .411, p <.05), Procedural Justice found to be significantly influence the meaning of work (β = 284, p <.05), Servant leadership have no influence on the meaning of work (β = .741, p <.05). However meaning of work still has significant influence on organizational commitment (β = .741, p <.05).

TABLE 3REGRESSION COEFFICIENT OF THE DIRECT EFFECTS OFEXOGENOUS VARIABLES TO ENDOGENOUS VARIABLES

Exogenous Variables	Exogenous Variables	Direct Effect	р
Allocentrics	Meaning of Work	.441 .	.001**
Procedural Justice		.284	.49*
Servant Leadership		.241	.076
Meaning of Work	Organizational Commitment.	.741	.001**

Allocentrics proved to be the most influential variable to the meaning of work. The absence of servant leadership influence to the meaning of work in this study is unexpected, as it is argued that if allocentrics have a strong influence, it is expected that respondents will feel comfortable with the concept of servant leadership. On the other hand, the meaning of work turned out to have a decisive influence on organizational commitment, suggests that employees need to feel that his work is very meaningful if the organization is expecting high commitment of its employees.

Indirect effect is the extent to which the role of exogenous variables on endogenous variables is reinforced by the mediator variables shown in Table 4. Moderating variable would be meaningful if it strengthen the relationship between the two variables.

TABLE 4 REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS OF INDIRECT EFFECTS OF EXOGENOUS VARIBLES TOWARDS ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Endogenous Variable	Coefficient Determinant (R2)	р
Organizational Commitment	.305	<.05
	.211	<.05
	.179	<.05
	Organizational	Organizational Commitment .305 .211

In testing a model using AMOS, there is no significance test for indirect effects. Significance test of indirect effects is done by knowing the value of standard error by the formula SEab2 = SEa2 * b2 + a2 SEb2 *; t values, the value of indirect effect, divided by the standard error. T values in between -1.96 to 1.96 indicates no significant effect (Baron & Kenny, 1986, in Ferdinand, 2002).

Based on Table 4 it can be concluded that the meaning of work strengthen the relationship between allocentrics and organizational commitment ($\beta = .305 < .05$), procedural justice and organizational commitment ($\beta = .211$, p> .05), and servant leadership and organizational commitment ($\beta = .179$, p < .05).

DISCUSSION

Based on the fitness test of the model with chi-square of 210,092 (probability of .051), RMSEA value of .067, and .917 for GFI, it is concluded that the theoretical model is confirmed and empirically tested, although the first hypothesis (high level of allocentrism will result in low meaningful of work and low affective commitment) was proven to be the opposite. and third hypothesis (high perception on servant leadership will result in high meaningful of work and high affective commitment) was not proven.

The opposite results of the research hypotheses no. 1 can be explained by Chow, Harrison, McKinnon and Wu (2001) research in China, which proves that the correspondence between the values employees' believe and the organization's culture, will result in high organizational commitment.

Observation of the day-to-day working environment at this hotel reflects the collective culture. This is understandable given the history of this hotel which was originally run by the government and later became a state owned company, the hotel culture still attached to the culture of the civil service, the lack of objective performance appraisal system which relate to an objective reward and punishment system in the human resources management. Similar to human resource management policies and practices of civil servants, in which personnel decisions are not based on accurate data, employees belief that career are determined by the ability to establish good relations with the management and other employees. This belief leads to the assumption of the importance of interpersonal relationships that produced strong values related to how to interact, to keep the peaceful atmosphere and being nice to get the acceptance of others, which in turn form the norm - as proposed by Magnis-Soeseno (1991) - of a Javanese terms called the principle of harmony, which means continuous effort from someone in the community to keep the calm atmosphere during interaction, to always avoid dissent and social unrest (Willner, 1970; Magnis-Soeseno, 1991). Harmony means to keep the look harmonious social relations regardless of how someone feel, which proposed by Geertz (1961) as "performing harmony (harmonious social appearances)". Efforts to maintain harmony is evident in the behavior of the daily work or during the meeting, the majority of employees appearances are always in control in expressing their opinion, try to avoid conflict.

Collective values which is embedded in the hotel's climate, then taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, feel and behave in the workplace. The values that form the norm then used to evaluate the situation and produce attitudes that will affect the attitude and behavior towards other people, objects or situations. These values also influence the choice when recruiting new employees. This result in the relation of high allocentrics individuals and the collective atmosphere of this hotel, the allocentrics feel that the work becomes meaningful and result in the high commitment of these individuals to the hotel.

The effect of procedural justice to the meaning of the work is .248 (p = .049), which means that the higher the respondent's perceptions of organizational justice, the higher the respondents consider their work as meaningful, result to the higher their commitment to the organization. This result showed that the culture at this hotel was not entirely collective, as in collective culture, equality in distributing resources is preferred while individualist prefer equity. Equal distribution is associated with solidarity, harmony, and cohesion, while equity is compatible with productivity, competition, and self-gain (Triandis, 2001). The research result showing that the respondent favor procedural justice supports the Triandis (1994, 1995) statement related to the change in the culture of the collective to the individual. That all culture in the world are moving from collective to individuals.

However, servant leadership failed of being the predictors of organizational commitment (p> .05). Theoretically, servant leadership serve the collective needs of the leader, as it is often said that Indonesia is a paternalistic society, with high dependency on the leader. This trend is a reflection of the feudal society which feels comfortable when led by authoritarian-paternalistic style (Mas'oed, 1989) with a norm which emphasizes the importance of being obedient, loyal and respectful to the principal or supervisor.

With regard to the aspects of servant leadership used in this study, the proposed concept then summarized into eleven aspects of the calling, listening, empathy, healing, wisdom, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, growth and community building. Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) developed a measurement tool based on the eleventh aspect and identified five aspects of the calling, healing, wisdom, persuasion and services. Missing aspects such as listening and empathy are assumed by Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) as not serve the unique representative of servant leadership so it could be deleted. Similarly, aspects of community building is also not a specific aspect of servant leadership, while aspects of the growth removed from the constructs as items of growth are scattered throughout all the existing factors. Foresight and conceptual factors were included to the factor of persuasion, but there is no questionnaire items aimed at uncovering these two aspects. Given the development of measurement tools of servant leadership, it is concluded that the measurement still cannot be considered as accommodating the whole concept, which result in the inability of the concept in predicting the meaning of work and organizational commitment.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

The mixing of cultures will always occur along the earth rotates. Movements and spirit to resist cultural influences from outside can be said to be a futile effort. On the other hand, efforts to impose a

foreign culture on a nation is sometimes a fruitless effort. However, it is natural when a culture is influenced by other cultures. Furthermore, according to the statement of Hofstede (1991), that when technological developments continue to take place in a society, the change towards an individualist culture cannot be inhibited, then the best thing to do is to sort out the good side if a culture from the bad, then adopts the good.

Based on the writer's observation, the people of Indonesia cannot be generalized in a pure collective society. It is obvious in big cities in Indonesia, there are clashes of values between collective and individualism, which named by the authors as "a group with two legs in different places". In the working environment in particular, the above phenomenon is very easily observed. Differences of opinions in the meeting, the conflict in setting policies, often colored with different points of view because of the different values that are used to interpret problems. This phenomenon will not occur in a purely individualist societies or purely collective societies.

In terms of organizational management, efforts to implement western culture has long been done. Field observations indicate that some of these implementations bring results, partially failed. For example, the business application of objective performance evaluation systems fail to be implemented when the organization is still hold strong collective values. However, employees working in a organization with collective climate, secretly crave human resource management systems derived from individualist cultures, for example performance management system which emphasize the objective performance evaluation system based on performance, and associate the performance with reward policies that follow a fair procedures.

Based on the results of this study, recommendations proposed by the author are: (1) Propose the socialization of the understanding of culture differences, the strong influence of strong cultures (individualist) to the weak cultures (collective), and climate in environment which embrace both cultures. (2) Maintaining collective values in terms of respect, tolerance and courtesy when dealing with older people and co-workers/subordinates, as well as opportunities to undertake a family gathering at work or outside work. (3) Implementing individualism values primarily related to the organization's payroll system fairness, incentives and bonuses based on objective performance measures and transparent procedures.

Recommendation for further research are: (1) Involving respondents from different form of organizations, especially private organization, considering the competition in the business world is real in private organizations, in order to achieve the success of the national economy. (2) Reorder the servant leadership questionnaire by restoring aspects of foresight and conceptual into the questionnaire. (3) Examining the different leadership concepts such as transformational leadership. (4) Examining the moderator variables that also have strong influence in determining organizational commitment such as job satisfaction and perceptions of organizational support. (5) Adding predictor variables such as organizational communication.

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