Reciprocity, Commitment, and Employee Behavior During a Pandemic in the Hospitality Industry

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Abstract

The tourism industry in Indonesia is severely affected by the Covid-19 crisis. Employees who are still working during the pandemic have a high probability of termination of employment. In times of crisis, the role of superiors is vital for the sustainability of the company's operations. It creates commitment to companies in the Tourism Industry in difficult times so that employees do not behave counter-productively. This study aims to examine the effect of Job Insecurity (JI), Perceived Leader-Member Exchange (PLMX), Organizational Commitment (OC) on Job Search Behavior (JSB). This study used a Cross-Sectional Research design where the sample is working-employee in Hospitality Industry during the COVID-19 pandemic. This study collected 191 data, then, as a prerequisite, through a screening question, sorted 107 employees (56%) who were still working for more than one year in their company. This study analyzed data using the Partial Least Square (PLS) method to determine the relationship between the construct variables with a total of 51 question items. Results from this study show that a high level of job insecurity has a significantly negative effect, and a high level of perceived leader-member exchange has a significantly positive effect on organizational commitment. Moreover, it is a significant driver of job search behavior and mediates the effect of job insecurity and perceived leader-member exchange on job search behavior.

Keywords: Perceived Leader-Member Exchange, Job Insecurity, Job Search Behavior, Organizational Commitment, COVID-19

INTRODUCTION

Job Search Behavior (JSB) is a specific behavior for individuals to find work in other organizations that disrupt productivity which also affects individual and company targets that are not achieved (van Hoye, 2014). The role of leaders in providing more challenging assignments, rewarding the effort invested in doing the job, providing support to employees, and relationships with coworkers can increase their Organizational Commitment (OC) (Bajrami, Terzić, Petrović, Radovanović, Tretiakova & Hadoud, 2020). Employees with a higher level of OC were less level of JSB because they were satisfied with their current work situation (Peachey, Burton, & Wells, 2014). However, during an economic crisis, employees feel that their jobs are not safe, and they will not leave the organization Wong, Kim, Kim, & Han (2021). Great Recession results in a higher level of
Job Insecurity (JI), a high potential for job search behavior of the employee, and reducing organizational commitment (Lowe, 2018).

Since COVID-19 was defined as a global "pandemic" by WHO, more than 90% of the world's population has faced multiple restrictions, including international and domestic travel bans (Bajrami et al., 2020). The most dominant economic impact is on the tourism industry, at least in Indonesia and the United States (Budiyanti, 2020; Wong et al., 2021). The Indonesian Hotel and Restaurant Association (PHRI) in April 2020 stated that 1,642 hotels temporarily closed (Kurniawan, 2020). The "COVID-19 Crisis" (Jones & Comfort, 2020) has had a significant impact on JI among tourism industry employees (Jung, Jung, & Yoon, 2021). Empirical evidence found that employees in the hospitality industry are aware of the difficulty of finding new jobs because almost every sector is affected (Bajrami et al., 2020).

In the context of the COVID-19 pandemic, examining Intention to Quit in the tourism industry, which has been heavily affected by COVID-19, becomes irrelevant because business owners in the tourism industry have to "lay off" their employees and allow them to find other opportunities elsewhere. However, research on job search behavior among employees in the tourism industry who are still working in the same organization during the COVID-19 pandemic is still not yet available. In addition, there are still gaps in previous studies, which are (1) predictors of Job Insecurity, where the results of the Jiang & Lavaysse (2018) meta-analysis do not include the global crisis or the current economic crisis due to COVID-19; (2) Shoss (2017) found that the effect of Job Insecurity on Job Search Behavior as Extraorganizational Behavior is still unanswered; (3) There are not many studies using the LMX construct associated with JSB in the last ten years, for example, LMX is associated with organizational commitment (Maranatha, 2017), turnover intention (Elanain, 2014; Kim, Poulston, & Sankaran, 2016), and organizational citizenship behavior (Estiri, Amiri, Khajeheian, & Rayej, 2018). Furthermore, the crisis due to COVID-19 may change the effect on the relationship of these variables. So, research using LMX is essential to do where the construct is only found in Hughes, Avez, & Nixon (2010); (5) Research on the relationship between Job Insecurity due to COVID-19, Perceived LMX as a determinant of work-related outcomes, and Organizational Commitment so that they do not look for alternative jobs or Job Search Behavior in the tourism industry have not been found. Meanwhile, from 175 articles observed, 50 studies investigated the hospitality industry at the time of the pandemic, yet only 10% of research investigated job losses in the hotel industry due to the COVID-19 pandemic (Davahli, Karwowski, & Sonmez, 2020). With the context of the pandemic and the gaps in existing research results, this research examines more about; what’s the impact of job insecurity and perceived leader-member exchange on the job search behavior of employees in the tourism industry with the economic and labor market conditions that are vulnerable to finding new prospective jobs. Does the employee who has a high commitment still search for alternatives in this particular condition?

This research is unique because it examines the level of job search behavior in the tourism industry during the COVID-19 pandemic, where turnover in the tourism industry before the COVID-19 pandemic has become a global phenomenon. There is still little research on the relationship between perceived leader-member exchange and organizational commitment to job search behavior. Moreover, this research also suggests strategic ideas for dealing with the crisis in the tourism industry.
LITERATURE REVIEW

This study uses the relationship between fundamental theories: Organizational Behavior, Contingency, Stress, Social Exchange, Followership, and Theory of Planned Behavior; to derive the research' model construct of Job Search Behavior, Job Insecurity, Perceived Leader-Member Exchange, and Organizational Commitment. Also, the development of theory from research constructs and previous research that discussed the research construct.

Job Search Behavior

Van Hoye (2014) also revealed that the emergence of job search behavior is driven by factors such as job satisfaction, efforts to fulfill personal desires or ambitions, and educational background's suitability with the function of the task being carried out. Banfi, Choi, & Villena-Roldan. (2019) found that this behavior is influenced by the demographics of the respondents, such as (1) gender, age, and marital status, (2) alignment between salary expectations and offers from the company, (3) suitability of qualifications with applicants, such as education, experience, office location, and job descriptions, (4) length of unemployment, years of service (employees who are still working), and business conditions.

With the economy vulnerable due to COVID-19, McFarland, Reeves, Porr, & Ployhart (2020) examines how job-search behavior changed at the start of the COVID-19 pandemic and weeks after the onset of events in 14 different organizations. In his research, they found evidence of an immediate increase in job-search behavior at the onset of the pandemic. This phenomenon persisted for up to 16 weeks, during which a more significant number of applicants applied to vacancies offering Work from Home. Unfortunately, this is unlikely an option for tourism workers.

Organizational Commitment

Mowday & Steers (1979), who have defined it for the first time, explain that Organizational Commitment is an employee’s emotional commitment to work. Tanrıverdi (2008) explains that employees who have Organizational Commitment are employees who have adopted the culture and values of the organization. Commitment can be measured by (1) the level of readiness of employees to adopt the values and goals of the organization, (2) the extent to which employees fulfill the expected job (Tanrıverdi, 2008), or (3) employee behavior in the workplace (Slack, Orife, & Anderson, 2010). According to Morrow (2011), it is not the organization's treatment that determines the Organizational Commitment, but rather how employees respond to initiatives from the organization that affects Organizational Commitment. Allen & Meyer (1990) defines OC in 3 (three) dimensions, Affective Organizational Commitment (AOC), when an employee is emotionally attached to an organization; Continuance Organizational Commitment (COC) when an employee engages because of the awareness of the consequences if they leave the organization; and Normative Organizational Commitment (NOC), when employee engagement because of corporate responsibility and values, and comes from employee moral values towards the organization.

Job Insecurity

According to De Cuyper, Notelaers, & De Witte (2009), JI is workers’ concerns about the potential for involuntary loss of their jobs. Employees experience job security when they feel that the continuity and stability of their jobs are not threatened. While the jobs become unsafe or
insecure as the previously safe jobs are no longer safe (Shoss, 2017). The Great Recession had no impact on perceived job insecurity, but the Great Recession increased workers’ feelings of perceived labor market insecurity (Lowe, 2018). From the various definitions of JI, there are two categories of JI, namely Cognitive JI and Affective JI (Borg & Elizur, 1992). Staufenbiel, Osnabrück, König, & Saarlandes (2011), in their evaluation of Borg & Elizur (1992), found that the measurement of Affective Job Insecurity was more accurate in explaining emotional reactions to imagining job loss. In their meta-analysis, Jiang & Lavaysse (2018) explain the comparison of the strength of the impact of Cognitive (CJI) and Affective Job Insecurity (AJI). They found that AJI has more significant relationships than CJI on work-related outcomes.

Effect of Job Insecurity on Job Search Behavior

The results of previous research conducted by van Hooft, Born, Taris, van der Flier, & Blonk (2004) stated that job search behavior significantly predicts the opportunity to get a (new) job, even though the job search process is complicated and stressful (Dahling, Melloy, & Thompson, 2013). Meanwhile, Staufenbiel & König, (2010) argued that job insecurity (Job Insecurity) made turnover smaller with the economic crisis. In keeping with the study, Sun et al. (2021) found that in the tourism industry, especially in luxury hotels, job insecurity did not have a significant relationship to turnover intention. In his research, Lowe (2018) examines job insecurity and the labor market perceived by employees that also focuses on the post-Great Recession in the United States. He found that the Great Recession increased workers’ feelings about perceived insecurity.

The meta-analysis of Jiang & Lavaysse (2018) proves that Job Insecurity influences work-related outcomes, namely (1) Psychological contract breach & violation, (2) Job satisfaction, (3) Organizational commitment, (4) Work engagement, (5) Burnout, (6) Absenteeism & presenteeism, (7) Turnover intentions, job search behavior, & actual turnover, (8) Safety behaviors & accidents, (9) Work motivation, job performance, & organizational citizenship behavior, (10) Counterproductive work behavior. However, this meta-analysis proves that when employees experience the possibility (threat) of losing their job (Cognitive and Affective Job Insecurity), they will divert their efforts to look for other alternative jobs. That result also means that JI positively influences their Job Search Behavior. By referring to the results of previous studies that are relevant to the context of this research, the formulation of the research hypothesis is as follows:

Hypothesis 1 (H1): Job Insecurity (JI) has a positive and significant effect on Job Search Behavior (JSB).

Effect of Job Insecurity on Organizational Commitment

In recent studies, the relationship between job insecurity and organizational commitment show that Job Insecurity had a negative impact on Organizational Commitment, especially for permanent employees, while contract employees had a less significant effect (Jiang & Lavaysse, 2018; Vujčić, Jovičić, Lalić, Gagić & Cvejanov, 2015). The research of Vujčić et al. (2015) examined 149 employees working in the tourism industry (hotels, travel agents, and restaurants) and found that employees with contract status felt insecure in their work. In their meta-analysis, Jiang & Lavaysse (2018) found that CJI has a negative relationship with Continuance Organizational Commitment, but AJI has a positive relationship with Continuance Organizational Commitment. In comparison, the Affective and Normative dimensions are still in line with previous research (Vujčić...
By looking at the results of the relevant studies and impact of COVID-19 on the labor market, and the difficulty of finding new prospective jobs, the formulation of the research hypothesis is as follows:

**Hypothesis 2 (H2):** Job Insecurity (JI) has a negative and significant effect on Organizational Commitment (OC).

**Perceived Leader-Member Exchange**

As the theory develops, LMX has two different theoretical conceptualizations, namely the Vertical Dyad Linkage (VDL) and Social Exchange Theory (SET) (Bernerth, Armenakis, Field, Giles, & Walker, 2007). In 1982 the term VDL was replaced with LMX, which was intended to emphasize more the negotiated interaction between leader and follower in the follower work role (Bernerth et al., 2007), and also includes the exchange of resources and support between leaders and followers (Nathan, Barlow, Reisberg, Zelazo, Friedman, & Adams 2015). While the LMX conceptualization of SET proposes that recipients of positive actions experience feelings of indebtedness and will be reduced if the recipient of a positive action returns an equivalent action to the one who gave the positive action (Bernerth et al., 2007). It is the key to understanding the effects of leaders on members, teams, and organizations (Dansereau, Seitz, Chiu, Shaughnessy, & Yammarino, 2013).

**Effect of Perceived Leader-Member Exchange on Job Search Behavior**

A previous study conducted by Hughes et al. (2010) found that the quality of the exchange relationship between leaders and members explains the actions of members who seek other job situations outside, meaning that relationships with leaders may be the main driver of job search activities. Although there is little research on the relationship between LMX and Job Search Behavior, the principle of LMX theory states that a low-quality LMX relationship is a concrete and universal exchange, such as money (Hughes et al., 2010). LMX tends to focus on the resources shared by the supervisor or leader and not what resources members can provide to the leader (Nathan et al., 2015). By looking at the results of the relevance of previous studies to the research context, the hypotheses of this research are as follows:

**Hypothesis 3 (H3):** Perceived Leader-Member Exchange (PLMX) has a negative and significant effect on Job Search Behavior (JSB).

**Effect of Perceived Leader-Member Exchange on Organizational Commitment**

The results of previous research conducted by Joo (2010) showed that LMX Quality has a significant positive relationship with Organizational Commitment (Erdogan & Bauer, 2010). They further highlight two main reasons why LMX is positively related to commitment: (1) a leader’s encouragement of commitment and employee engagement and loyalty to a leader who serves as a representative of an organization, and (2) challenging assignments given by leaders to their Members and also provide feedback to members who have high LMX quality resulting in a high sense of commitment to the organization. Audenaert, George, & Decramer (2019) also found that employees in the same job may have different affective commitments, depending on their respective social exchange relationships. By looking at the results of the relevance of previous studies to the research context, the hypotheses of this research are as follows:
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Hypothesis 4 (H4): Perceived Leader-Member Exchange (PLMX) has a positive and significant effect on Organizational Commitment (OC).

The Effect of Organizational Commitment on Job Search Behavior
Peachey et al. (2014) found that employees with higher levels of commitment to the organization will tend to be less active in looking for work because they are satisfied with their current work situation and, thus, will be less likely to recognize alternative job opportunities. By referring to the result of previous research that is relevant to the context of this study, the formulation of the fifth, sixth, and seventh research hypotheses are as follows:

Hypothesis 5 (H5): Organizational Commitment (OC) has a negative influence on Job Search Behavior (JSB).

Effect of Job Insecurity and Perceived Leader-Member Exchange on Job Search Behavior mediated by Organizational Commitment
In line with this research, Joo (2010) found that Organizational commitment plays a full role in mediating the relationship between LMX Quality and Turnover Intention. Further, Hughes et al. (2010) found that Job Search Behavior is a behavior that goes beyond Turnover Intention. While Peachey et al. (2014) found that Organizational Commitment did not mediate the relationship between Transformational Leadership and Job Search Behavior, this may be because the exchange relationship between leaders and subordinates is more important than leaders who are change-oriented toward their subordinates. (Hughes et al., 2010; Peachey et al., 2014). Therefore, this study strengthens the findings of the relationship between Organizational Commitment and Job Search Behavior with a role as a mediator in the research hypothesis as follows:

Hypothesis 6 (H6): Organizational Commitment (OC) mediates a positive relationship between Job Insecurity (JI) and Job Search Behavior (JSB)

Hypothesis 7 (H7): Organizational Commitment (OC) mediates the negative relationship between Perceived Leader-Member Exchange (PLMX) on Job Search Behavior (JSB).

RESEARCH METHOD
Procedures and participants
This research is conducted using a cross-sectional research design, with questionnaires distributed online to hospitality industry employees in Indonesia who have served their current employers for at least 1 year. The main survey was deployed from March to May 2021. It consisted of 5 screening questions requesting information about working location, current employment status, and sector or company line of business where the respondent work. Then the procedure has collected 191 respondents. However, only 107 respondents (56%) could be further processed for analysis. Data that has been collected were analyzed using Partial Least Square Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM) to test the overall construct of the research model.

Measures
The 51 measurement items used in this study were conducted through an Online panel Survey review. Fifty-one items were measured using a seven-point Likert scale as the reliability and
validity of the 7-point scale is significantly more optimal than 2, 3, and 4 points (Cooper & Schindler, 2014), ranging from strongly disagree (1), neutral (4), to strongly agree (7).

**Job Insecurity**

Job insecurity is measured using a scale that refers to Borg & Elizur (1992) and Staufenbiel et al. (2011) with 7 indicators. Borg's Job Insecurity Scale can include 2 dimensions, namely (1) the Cognitive Dimension, which describes the cognitive elements of the experience of job insecurity, such as perceptions of the possibility of losing a job, and (2) the Affective/Emotionality Dimension, which describes the emotional elements of the experience of going to work. Job insecurity, such as when someone becomes afraid of losing their job. This study adopted the JIS from Staufenbiel et al. (2011), which omitted 3 items from Cognitive Job Insecurity (“I consider my career as secure,” “I clearly know my chances for advancement in the coming years,” and “I look forward with confidence to the introduction of new technologies”). This is in line with the conditions during COVID-19 experienced by the tourism industry, where the (short-term) future cannot be seen to improve due to the economic downturn.

**Perceived Leader-Member Exchange**

Leader-Member Exchange will be measured using a scale adapted from Bernerth et al. (2007), which refers to the Social Exchange Theory (P. M. Blau, 1964) with 8 indicators. This scale is unidimensional. This study uses LMSX to describe the Subordinate's perception of their Superior. Bernerth et al. (2007) refer to the term LMSX as "the perception held by the subordinate, whether voluntary actions on the part of the subordinate will be returned by his superior in a certain way.

**Job Search Behavior**

Job Search Behavior will be measured using a scale from Van Hooft et al. (2005), adapted from the job search behavior scale G. Blau (1994) and Kopelman, Ravenpor, & Milsap (1992) with 12 indicators. This scale is divided into 2 behavioral phases, namely Preparatory Job Search and Active Job Search. These phases measure a person's commitment to his search.

**Organizational Commitment**

Organizational Commitment will be measured using a scale adapted from Allen & Meyer (1990). This measurement has been used in several previous studies. This scale has 3 dimensions, namely affective, continuance, and normative. Each dimension has 8 indicators.

**Data Analysis**

This study uses quantitative methods. To test the validity and reliability of the pre-test data, this research uses SPSS 25 software. The main-test data were analyzed using Partial Least Square (PLS) to evaluate all relationships between variables and research hypotheses and processed using the assistance of the SmartPLS3 program.

**FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION**

This research captured 55 males (51.4%) and 52 females (48.6%) (n=107) who work in the tourism industry in Indonesia. Demographic results showed that most of the respondents are above
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40 (37.4%), between 25 to 29 (22.4%), and between 35 to 39 years old (19.6%). Moreover, most of the respondents are married (51.4%), have Bachelor’s degrees (45.8%), live in DKI Jakarta (31.8%), West Java (20.6%), and Bali (16.8%), worked in DKI Jakarta (44.9%) and Bali (16.8%), in the hotel sector (57%), at Manager level (52.3%). More complete demographic profiles of respondents are shown in Table I below.

Table 1. Demographic of Respondents

| Demographics of Respondents | Profiles | Frequency | %    |
|-----------------------------|----------|-----------|------|
| Gender                      |          |           |      |
| Male                        | 55       | 51.40     |
| Female                      | 52       | 48.60     |
| Age Group (years)           |          |           |      |
| 20-24                       | 4        | 3.74      |
| 25-29                       | 24       | 22.43     |
| 30-34                       | 18       | 16.82     |
| 35-39                       | 21       | 19.63     |
| >40                         | 40       | 37.38     |
| Educational Background      |          |           |      |
| Highschool                  | 12       | 11.21     |
| Diploma                     | 31       | 28.97     |
| Bachelor                    | 49       | 45.79     |
| Master                      | 13       | 12.15     |
| Doctor                      | 2        | 1.87      |
| Marital Status              |          |           |      |
| Single                      | 43       | 51.40     |
| Married                     | 55       | 40.19     |
| Widowed                     | 9        | 8.41      |
| Employment Status           |          |           |      |
| Permanent                   | 64       | 59.81     |
| Contract                    | 43       | 40.19     |
| Position                    |          |           |      |
| Junior Staff                | 13       | 12.15     |
| Senior Staff                | 17       | 15.89     |
| Supervisor                  | 15       | 14.02     |
| Assistant Manager           | 6        | 5.61      |
| Manager                     | 56       | 52.34     |

Measurement Model Analysis
This study used the SmartPLS3 program to analyze both measurement and structural models. Each item’s descriptive statistics (mean scores, factor loadings, Cronbach’s alpha, construct reliability, and average variance extracted (AVE) are provided in Table II. It appears that the overall loading factor of the first order CFA shows that the model has met the convergent validity requirements (> 0.7). Furthermore, all of the AVE values are > 0.5. This indicates that all latent variables in the estimated model meet the convergent validity (valid) criteria. Then the results of the construct reliability test show the Composite Reliability and Cronbach’s Alpha values of all
latent variables > 0.70. So that all manifest variables in measuring the latent variables in the estimated model are declared reliable.

| Variable (Cronbach’s α) | Item   | Mean | SLF  | CR   | AVE  |
|--------------------------|--------|------|------|------|------|
| Job Insecurity (α = 0.945) | CJI_1  | 4.56 | 0.872 | 0.953 | 0.745 |
|                          | CJI_2  | 4.81 | 0.862 |       |      |
|                          | CJI_3  | 4.56 | 0.816 |       |      |
|                          | CJI_4  | 4.77 | 0.881 |       |      |
|                          | AJI_1  | 4.72 | 0.894 |       |      |
|                          | AJI_2  | 4.79 | 0.887 |       |      |
|                          | AJI_3  | 4.69 | 0.828 |       |      |
| Perceived LMX (α = 0.925) | LMSX1  | 5.84 | 0.838 | 0.938 | 0.657 |
|                          | LMSX2  | 5.58 | 0.792 |       |      |
|                          | LMSX3  | 5.36 | 0.798 |       |      |
|                          | LMSX4  | 5.37 | 0.726 |       |      |
|                          | LMSX5  | 5.68 | 0.843 |       |      |
|                          | LMSX6  | 5.55 | 0.843 |       |      |
|                          | LMSX7  | 5.94 | 0.894 |       |      |
|                          | LMSX8  | 5.48 | 0.737 |       |      |
| Organizational Commitment (α = 0.972) | AOC1   | 5.22 | 0.793 | 0.974 | 0.610 |
|                          | AOC2   | 5.68 | 0.771 |       |      |
|                          | AOC3   | 5.41 | 0.798 |       |      |
|                          | AOC4   | 5.29 | 0.746 |       |      |
|                          | AOC5   | 5.66 | 0.752 |       |      |
|                          | AOC6   | 5.26 | 0.763 |       |      |
|                          | AOC7   | 5.34 | 0.804 |       |      |
|                          | AOC8   | 5.37 | 0.744 |       |      |
|                          | COC1   | 5.31 | 0.726 |       |      |
|                          | COC2   | 5.13 | 0.818 |       |      |
|                          | COC3   | 5.04 | 0.836 |       |      |
|                          | COC4   | 5.01 | 0.772 |       |      |
|                          | COC5   | 5.55 | 0.793 |       |      |
|                          | COC6   | 4.99 | 0.775 |       |      |
|                          | COC7   | 5.10 | 0.793 |       |      |
|                          | COC8   | 5.16 | 0.800 |       |      |
|                          | NOC1   | 5.09 | 0.742 |       |      |
|                          | NOC2   | 5.20 | 0.766 |       |      |
|                          | NOC3   | 4.77 | 0.820 |       |      |
|                          | NOC4   | 5.30 | 0.812 |       |      |
|                          | NOC5   | 4.68 | 0.764 |       |      |
|                          | NOC6   | 5.21 | 0.783 |       |      |
|                          | NOC7   | 4.86 | 0.751 |       |      |
|                          | NOC8   | 5.30 | 0.809 |       |      |
| Job Search Behavior (α = 0.948) | JSB01  | 4.27 | 0.806 | 0.954 | 0.637 |
|                          | JSB02  | 4.01 | 0.869 |       |      |
|                          | JSB03  | 3.49 | 0.779 |       |      |
|                          | JSB04  | 4.13 | 0.744 |       |      |
|                          | JSB05  | 3.64 | 0.814 |       |      |
|                          | JSB06  | 3.57 | 0.774 |       |
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Structural Model Analysis
Analysis of goodness of fit for the research model is summarized in Table III below. Table III shows two indexes have weak levels, four have weak to medium levels, and don't meet the minimum criteria of a good fitness level. Despite the fact that not all of the goodness of fit index in the model is considered a good fit, the model is considered acceptable since it has already surpassed the minimum number of three goodness of fit indexes that reach the good fitness level.

| Goodness of Fit                      | Structural Model |
|--------------------------------------|------------------|
| Explained variance \( (R^2) \) value | JSB              | 0.396 \( \geq 0 \) |
|                                      | OC               | 0.357 \( \geq 0 \) |
| Predictor Effect Size \( (f^2) \) value | JSB -> JSB      | 0.099 \( \geq 0.02 \) |
|                                      | JSB -> OC       | 0.055 \( \geq 0.02 \) |
|                                      | PLMX -> JSB     | 0.063 \( \geq 0.02 \) |
|                                      | PLMX -> OC      | 0.475 \( \geq 0.02 \) |
|                                      | OC -> JSB       | 0.138 \( \geq 0.02 \) |
| Predictive relevance \( (Q^2) \) value | JSB -> JSB      | 0.611 \( \geq 0 \) |
|                                      | JSB -> OC       | 1.060 \( \geq 0 \) |
|                                      | PLMX -> JSB     | 1.482 \( \geq 0 \) |
|                                      | PLMX -> OC      | 1.005 \( \geq 0 \) |
|                                      | OC -> JSB       | 1.554 \( \geq 0 \) |
| Multi-Collinearity (VIF) | JSB -> JSB      | 1.005 \( < 5 \) |
|                                      | JSB -> OC       | 1.005 \( < 5 \) |
|                                      | PLMX -> JSB     | 1.482 \( < 5 \) |
|                                      | PLMX -> OC      | 1.005 \( < 5 \) |
| The standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) | JSB -> JSB      | 0.078 \( < 0.08 \) |

Hypothesis Testing
The structural model of this study is shown in Figure 1 below. A hypothesis is considered accepted if the t-value \( \geq 1.96 \). Based on the results, hospitality employees who perceived job insecurity would have a higher level of job search behavior (t-value = 2.273) and would be less committed to the organization (t-value = 2.931). Hospitality employees also would be less likely to look for another job opportunity if they had a social exchange with their superior (t-value = 2.273) and were committed to the organization (t-value = 3.499). The existence of organizational commitment plays an important role in strengthening the relationship between Job Insecurity and Perceived Leader-Member Exchange in Job Search Behavior of hospitality employees during the COVID-19 crisis situation in Indonesia.
Figure 1 shows that a high level of job insecurity has a positive and significant effect on job search behavior and has a negatively significant on the organizational commitment during the COVID-19 crisis situation in Indonesia. Meanwhile, a high level of perceived leader-member exchange has a negatively significant effect on job search behavior and positively significant on organizational commitment. Results from this study also show that organization is a significant driver of job-search behavior and complementarily mediates the positive effect of job insecurity and the negative effect of perceived leader-member exchange on job search behavior.

Discussion

The highest significance value in this study came from testing the effect of perceived leader-member exchange on organizational commitment. This result shows that the higher the Perceived LMX by employees in the Indonesian Tourism Industry, the higher the employee’s Organizational Commitment. These results also imply that employees will show their greatest commitment to the organization if they are supervised with quality reciprocity. This result explains that employees who have quality reciprocal relationships have a solid commitment to their organization (Garg & Dhar, 2014; Joo, 2010). In addition, the continuance dimension has the highest SLF value among other dimensions. Meanwhile, the Affective dimension has the smallest SLF value.

This study also shows that Organizational Commitment negatively affects the job search behavior of employees in the tourism industry during this COVID-19 situation. According to this result, employees with a higher level of commitment would be less likely to actively seek alternative jobs because they are satisfied with their current work situation and know the consequences. Moreover, this study also found that Perceived Leader-Member Exchange affects Job Search Behavior. This means that the lack of quality reciprocal relationships between leaders and subordinates triggers employee behavior to seek opportunities or alternative jobs in other organizations. In other words, this result also implies that the higher the reciprocal relationship felt by employees with their superiors, the lower the tendency of employees to seek alternative jobs (Hughes et al., 2010). However, this study also proves a positive and significant effect of Job Insecurity on the Job Search Behavior of tourism industry employees during this pandemic. This
result shows that the higher the potential for job loss experienced by employees, the more likely they are to prepare their resume when an alternative is available (Jiang & Lavaysse, 2018). Even though they are also aware of the difficulty of finding alternatives jobs in the tourism industry during this pandemic (Bajrami et al., 2020) and at the same time are very concerned about the possibility of being laid off involuntarily due to the COVID-19 crisis is affecting all sectors (De Cuyper et al., 2009; Wong et al., 2021).

According to previous research, Job Insecurity negatively affects Organizational Commitment, especially in the continuance of organizational commitment (Jiang & Lavaysse, 2018; Vujičić et al., 2015). This study also proves the same relationship. It means imagining that they will lose their job, making it difficult and worrying them. This triggers lessened employee commitment. Based on this finding, leaders in organizations need to maintain the likelihood of job losses for employees who are still working in the tourism industry during the COVID-19 crisis, especially for permanent employees and critical positions at the managerial level. So they would be committed to the organization.

This study found that Organizational Commitment plays a vital role. This finding also indicates that organizational commitment’s indirect impact is more significant in mediating the relationship between Perceived Leader-Member Exchange and Job Search Behavior than the relationship between Job Insecurity and Job Search Behavior. According to previous studies, LMX Quality is a strong predictor of Organizational Commitment, and LMX is vital as a predictor of Job Search Behavior. It is important to increase commitment to the organization to reduce the job-searching behavior of employees. If so, it means that they are satisfied with their current work situation and will be less likely to recognize alternative job opportunities. The results of this study can also conclude that to reduce job search behavior, the organization, through its leaders, needs to build quality reciprocal relationships to counter the unwanted behavior and gain commitment from their employees.

Findings from this study also suggest that the demographic profiles of respondents in this study also might play a significant role in affecting the results of this study. Half of the respondents are at the manager level, as permanent employees, and more than 35 years old, so they would show a high level of commitment to their organization because they are worried about losing their job involuntarily. Moreover, they are aware of the consequences if they leave their organization. Even so, they need to be prepared for the worst because COVID-19 impacts most of the service industry. This finding might also be why they have been preparing their resume once a prospective job opens for the last couple of months.

The overall results show that it will be more profitable for tourism industry leaders to reduce Job Search Behavior by encouraging good reciprocal exchange relationships between employees and increasing employee Organizational Commitment. Based on the descriptive analysis, most employees’ assessments of the Perceived Leader-Member Exchange variable are above the average (56.07%). This indicates that, in practice, employees in the tourism industry have established an excellent reciprocal relationship between superiors and subordinates. According to the Social Exchange theory, as well as aspects of the Resource Theory, during the COVID-19 pandemic, Tourism Industry employees felt that the organization was fair because the organization rewarded them for their efforts and hard work in hard times. Given the impact of the COVID-19 crisis on the tourism industry, organizations in the tourism industry were unable to meet the expectations of
the money aspect. Therefore, the results of this study can be a reference for organizational leaders to take care of other aspects in maintaining employee welfare during the COVID-19 pandemic.

CONCLUSION

This study examines how job insecurity, perceived leader-member exchange, and organizational commitment affect job search behavior in the tourism industry during the COVID-19 crisis. This study shows that the high potential of job insecurity has a significant positive effect on job search behavior and a negatively significant effect on organizational commitment. In contrast, perceived leader-member exchange has a negatively significant effect on job search behavior and positively affects organizational commitment. This result also shows that organizational commitment complementarily mediates those direct relationships. In summary, findings from this study highlight the significance of perceived leader-member exchange and organizational commitment to decrease job search behavior in the tourism industry during the COVID-19 crisis.

Based on results from the research conducted, there are several limitations in this study. This study used a cross-sectional approach in the specific context of the tourism industry in Indonesia, so the results of this study cannot be generalized to studies with different contexts and times. In addition, data collection methods via questionnaires were distributed to respondents to be filled out on a self-rate basis so that the research results were not free from the possibility of self-report bias in filling out the questionnaire items contained in the study. Last, respondents in this study tend to be homogeneous and centered on specific group categories that might affect the overall results of the research results.

This study suggests several recommendations for future research. Future research might consider focusing on more diverse respondents in various work sectors and capturing the employee’s length of service to obtain an in-depth analysis of the study. Further research can add and complement data collection methods in the form of surveys conducted in this research. It might be in the form of interviews, focus group discussions, or other data collection methods so that the information obtained can more accurately explain the main research topic and minimize the possibility of bias in research results. This research is a cross-sectional study that collects data at a particular time. Further research can use a longitudinal research design approach with research data retrieval carried out at two different times. It might be comparing on- and off-set of the COVID-19 pandemic so that it can produce more detailed information.

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