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Employees' Organizational Commitment and Turnover Intentions

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Abstract

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MS, Walden University, 2008

BS, Radford University, 2006

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

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Abstract

Employees who want to leave their companies may exhibit low morale and commitment to organizations, which may affect the way employees interact with customers. The purpose of this correlational study was to examine the relationship between employees' affective, continuance, and normative commitment to their organizations and their turnover intentions. The target population consisted of individuals with 2 or more years of call center experience who resided in the United States. Meyer, Allen, and Smith's 3-component model of commitment provided the study's theoretical framework. A purposive sampling of participants, which included a targeted audience and individuals who accessed the survey from Facebook and LinkedIn, returned 81 usable surveys. Data were analyzed using multiple linear regression analysis. The overall regression model showed a statistically significant relationship between the 3 forms of commitment and turnover intentions, although normative commitment had the strongest relationship with turnover intentions. Study results provide additional evidence showing that employees' affective, continuance, and normative commitment to their organizations relate to their turnover intentions. These results may contribute to positive social change by helping leaders to better understand the relationship between employees' organizational affective, continuance, and normative commitment and turnover intentions. With this knowledge, leaders may be able to decrease turnover and turnover-related costs and increase firm performance. The money saved from turnover costs can be used to develop employees, invest in the company culture, or contribute to community-related programs.

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Dedication

I dedicate this paper to the people who motivated me the most over the past 4 years. My mom, the strongest woman I know, taught me about humility and dedication to any task. My dad, the strongest man I know, taught me about hard work and perseverance. My three beautiful daughters, Jade, Joi, and Tiana, who loved and supported me every step of the way. Each day, you were the light to my fire throughout this process. For that, I love and thank you for your sacrifices. We did it!

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I would like to thank my faculty chair, Dr. Charlene Dunfee; second committee member, Dr. Kevin Davies; university research reviewer, Dr. Roger, Mayer; and program director, Dr. Freda Turner. Each of these wonderful people helped me in so many ways. I could not have asked for a better team.

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Section 1: Foundation of the Study

According to a study conducted by Adkins (2015), more than 68% of U.S. workers in 2015 were disengaged at work, which indicated there was a lack of commitment to their jobs and companies. Many of the studies that focus on organizational commitment assess its relationship to employee attitudes and performance, their absenteeism, and turnover intentions (Chiu & Chen, 2016). In conducting my research, I sought to add to the existing body of knowledge on organizational commitment. Using a quantitative correlational approach, I examined the relationship between employees' commitment (affective, continuance, and normative) to their organizations and their turnover intentions.

Background of the Problem

In 2012, Gallup researchers discovered that 52% of U.S. employees felt emotionally disconnected from their work, and 18% regularly displayed their unhappiness and unwillingness to commit to their organizations (Crowley, 2013). The ratio of engaged to disengaged employees in the U.S. in 2013 was 2:1 (Miller, 2014). According to analysts at McLean and Company, disengaged employees, who did not remain focused on increasing the firm's profits, cost companies approximately 34% of every $10,000 earned (Maylett & Warner, 2014). Therefore, an unengaged employee making $50,000 a year could cost a company as much as $17,000 in lost productivity. Moreland (2013) referenced that a leader's inability to develop employees' commitment to their companies can affect a company's performance by decreasing its operating income by as much as 32.7%. With the potential of disengaged employees to significantly decrease profits, leaders must remain focused on employee engagement. One concern is that leaders sometimes fail to understand that the relationship they have with their subordinates can affect employees' decisions to commit to organizations (Zhang, Tsingan, & Zhang, 2013). The 2004 Corporate Leadership Council listed managers as the key promoters of employee commitment (Smith & Macko, 2014). However, Gallup researchers indicated that only 10% of leaders possess the skills needed to increase the commitment level of their employees (Harter & Adkins, 2015). Companies must implement training or programs to encourage leaders to develop these skills.

One consequence of low employee engagement, as indicated by Thirapatsakun, Kuntonbutr, and Mechinda (2014), is turnover. According to the Society for Human Resource Management's Human Capital Benchmarking Database, the U.S. service industry topped 2011 and 2012's list with a turnover rate of 35% (Fox, 2012). In 2014, the organizational commitment of U.S. service workers slightly increased to 28.2%; however, it fell far below the national average for other industries (Adkins, 2015).

Problem Statement

Disengaged employees require more training than engaged employees, and they are more apt to leave organizations, which increases the chances of higher personnel and turnover costs (Kumar & Pansari, 2016). According to a 2013 Gallup survey, 7 out of 10 people in the United States are disengaged at work (Mulvaney, 2014). A lack of employee engagement is a predictor of high turnover and low performance, according to Shuck and Reio (2014). The general business problem is that some business leaders in the customer service industry are unable to develop organizational commitment, which negatively affects business performance. The specific business problem is that some business leaders in the U.S. client service industry do not understand the relationship between employees' affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment to their companies and their turnover intentions.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between employees' affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment to their organizations and their turnover intentions. I used Meyer, Allen, and Smith's (1993) revised three-component model of commitment (see Appendix B) to measure the independent variables of employee organizational affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. I used Roodt's (2004) six-item version of the unpublished turnover intention scale (TIS-6; see Appendix D) to measure the dependent variable of employee turnover intentions. The targeted population consisted of call center employees in the customer service industry across the United States.

In a 2012 HayGroup study, voluntary turnover was projected to increase by 5% annually starting in the year 2013 (Mulvaney, 2014). According to Topcic, Baum, and Kabst (2016), companies in high-performing work environments such as call centers could also see an increase in the stress and anxiety levels of their employees. The stressors that stem from the workplace have short and long-term effects on the mental and physical well-being of employees (Ganster & Rosen, 2013). The study's implications for social change are leaders' ability to decrease stress among call center employees and reduce job-related turnover by understanding the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions. Decreasing stress and turnover at work may lead to a decrease in stress in the employees' personal lives as well.

Nature of the Study

Ideally, researchers conducting quantitative studies test data from a representative sample of the population to examine relationships between variables (Hitchcock & Newman, 2012). They pose questions such as "how many" or "how much" to participants to elicit quantifiable data while qualitative researchers focus on participants' verbal interpretations of phenomena by asking "what," "how," and "why" an experience occurred (McCusker & Gunaydin, 2015). I chose a quantitative study methodology because I was interested in ascertaining the percentage of call center leaders who understand the relationship between employee organizational commitment and turnover intention. Also, I wanted to analyze data from a statistical perspective.

I selected a correlational design for this study. Researchers can use this type of design to describe the relationship between two or more variables by statistically analyzing data from surveys, questionnaires, scores, or databases (Bray, Adamson, & Mason, 2014). The focus of researchers conducting experimental studies is to define the causal relationship between two or more variables (Bray et al., 2014). This approach differs from the focus of researchers using a correlational design. In this study, I did not seek to examine the cause and effect relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intention. Instead, I sought to describe the relationship between the independent and dependent variables using survey data from participants. For this reason, I concluded that a correlational design would be appropriate.

Research Question

What is the relationship between employees' affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment to their companies and their turnover intentions?

Hypotheses

Null Hypothesis (H_0): There is no significant relationship between employees' affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment to their companies and their turnover intentions.

Alternative Hypothesis (H_1): There is a significant relationship between employees' commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment to their companies and their turnover intentions.

Theoretical Framework

I based my study on Meyer and Allen's revised three-component model of commitment (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993). Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) later extended Meyer and Allen's model to add in a behavioral commitment scale. Meyer and Allen (1991) were one of the first to examine organizational commitment as three-dimensional by assessing more than an individual's affective commitment, but their continuance and normative commitments as well. Although many theorists have used Mowday, Steers, and Porter's (1979) Organizational Commitment Questionnaire as the basis for their studies of organizational commitment (Benton, 2014; Cohen, 2003), researchers have continued to use Meyer and Allen's three-component model of commitment to identify the psychological reasons why employees remain committed to organizations (Sanecka, 2013). The key constructs in Meyer and Allen's model are affective commitment, which refers to an employee's desire to stay with a company; normative commitment, which refers to an employee's feeling that he or she should stay with a company; and continuance commitment, which refers to an employee's feeling that he or she has to remain with a company (Jackson, Meyer, & Wang, 2013).

I believe that Meyer and Allen's model of commitment (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993) was very applicable to my study focus and choice of independent variables. According to Fuchs (2012), an examination of organizational commitment from three perspectives helps researchers to understand why some employees opt to stay with and why some employees opt to leave their organizations. By using Meyer and Allen's model, I was able to assess the psychological mindsets of employees through their alignment to one or more of the model's three constructs. The high and low range in each level of three different forms of organizational commitment helps researchers to determine an employee's intention to stay or leave an organization (Simo, Enache, Sallan, & Fernandez, 2014), as well as better understand the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intention.

Operational Definitions

The following definitions were used in this study:

Affective commitment: Affective commitment is when an employee feels emotionally connected to an organization (Wu & Liu, 2014).

Call center: Call centers are environments in which customer service agents answer calls and resolve customer issues and questions; these agents are considered to be front-line employees because they speak directly to internal or external customers (Berkbigler & Dickson, 2014).

Continuance commitment: Continuance commitment is when an employee considers the amount of money he or she will lose if they leave an organization (Wu & Liu, 2014).

Normative Commitment: Normative commitment is when an employee feels obligated to stay with an organization (Wu & Liu, 2014).

Organizational commitment: Organizational commitment is the employee's belief in a company's values and objectives, the employee's ability to work for the benefit of the company, and the employee's established relationship with his or her employer (Keskes, 2014).

Turnover intention: Turnover intention is an employee's voluntary desire to leave an organization (Yang, Tsai, & Tsai, 2014).

Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations

Assumptions

An assumption is a fact that an individual considers as true but cannot verify (Neutens & Rubinson, 2010). Factual information that I assumed to be true with respect to this study was that participants would (a) meet the eligibility criteria to participate in the survey, (b) read through the informed consent before completing the survey, and (c) provide honest answers to the survey questions. Further, I assumed that participants' experience in call center roles would encourage them to complete the survey.

Limitations

According to Smith (2014), limitations are probable weaknesses of a study. The following are potential weaknesses of my study: (a) the setting was a call center environment; therefore, the results may not relate to other areas of the customer service industry, (b) the participants worked as call center employees and had individual employment histories of 2 years or longer; therefore, the results may not relate to individuals with less than 2 years of call center experience, (c) the participants were employees older than 18 years of age; therefore, the results may not relate to individuals who are minors, and (d) the participants were employees who can read and understand English; therefore, the results may not relate to individuals who cannot read and understand English.

Delimitations

Delimitations are the characteristics that limit the scope and define the boundaries of a study (Yusuf, 2015). This study was limited to call center employees who, at the time of the study, (a) served the needs of external customers only, (b) had at least 2 years of experience, (c) were at least 18 years of age, (d) could read and understand English, and (d) resided within the United States.

Significance of the Study

When conducting a study, a researcher must focus on adding to the existing body of knowledge (Bryman & Bell, 2015). The intent of this study was to provide business leaders with a point of reference to understand how employees' commitment to organizations affects their decision to stay or leave companies. In addition to contributing to business practice, I wanted to achieve positive social change for individuals working in the customer service industry.

Contribution to Business Practice

Study results may help business leaders better understand the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions. Researchers have found that turnover costs for call center employees equate to a full year's salary (Hillmer, Hillmer, & McRoberts, 2004; Inabinett & Ballaro, 2014). My study may contribute to effective business practice by educating business leaders about the tangible and intangible costs associated with turnover. A decrease in turnover costs related to the hiring and training of new employees could allow company leaders to use the additional funds in other areas of the businesses.

Implications for Social Change

The study's implications for social change include the potential to decrease stress levels and reduce voluntary turnover of call center employees. Voluntary turnover, as defined by Lo (2015), is when an employee terminates his or her employment from a company. Workplace stress affects an employee's physical and mental state, job satisfaction levels, and intention to stay or leave an organization (DeTienne, Agle, Phillips, & Ingerson, 2012). Employees who handle customer calls on a daily basis experience high levels of stress, which can lead to health-related issues and higher voluntary turnover costs (Kraemer & Gouthier, 2014). Leaders can reduce stress and turnover by increasing employees' level of organizational commitment to their company (Kraemer & Gouthier, 2014). This small change can make a big difference in the personal and professional lives of its employees.

A Review of the Professional and Academic Literature

The literature review includes peer-reviewed articles that appear in a variety of journals in the areas of human relations, business psychology, organizational behavior, and leadership. Publications include *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *Human Resource Management Review*, *Journal of Education Culture and Society*, *Services Industrials Journal*, *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *Journal of Management, Journal of Occupational Psychology*, *International Journal of Organizational Theory and Behavior*, *Journal of Business Ethics*, *Journal of Applied Management and Entrepreneurship*, *Human Relations*, *Journal of Human Resource Management*, and *Journal of Industrial Psychology*.

My initial search in Walden University Library databases, in which I used a date range of 1990 to 2015, returned 13,299 results. The keywords I used were employee, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. By using these keywords, I was able to find publications that addressed organizational commitment from an employee perspective, which provided useful information that related to the study.

To find recent articles, which were published within 5 years of my anticipated completion date and which related to the study topic, I included the keywords of affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment in the database search fields. Of the references, I used in this study, 85% are peer-reviewed sources and have a publication date of 5 years from my anticipated completion date. The literature review includes 60 peer-reviewed articles. (See Table 1 for a summary of the frequency and percentage of the sources used in the literature review).

The information included in the Application to the Business Problem section is presented in a detailed and well-organized format, in my view. First, I list the study's purpose statement and hypotheses to reiterate the focus of the study. Then, I provide a detailed analysis of the literature of the theoretical framework to add substance to the examination. In the literature review that follows, I include a review and analysis of the independent and dependent variables and a detailed assessment of the instruments used to measure organizational commitment. Lastly, I examine the literature that relates to my dependent variable of turnover intention and provide a comprehensive evaluation of the literature on its measurement.

Table 1

Frequency and Percentage of Sources Used in the Literature Review

	References			
Sources	Within 5 years[a]	More than 5 years[a]	Total	Percentage
Books	2	1	3	
Peer-reviewed articles	75	12	87	
Other resources	10	2	12	
Total	87	15	102	85.3%

[a]From my anticipated completion date.

Application to the Business Problem

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between employees' affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment, to their companies and their turnover intentions. In Meyer, Allen, and Smith's (1993) revised three-component model of commitment (see Appendix B), they measured the independent variables of employee organizational affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. Roodt's (2004) measured the dependent variable of employee turnover intentions with his six-item version of the unpublished turnover intention scale (TIS-6; see Appendix D). The targeted population consisted of call center employees in the customer service industry across the United States.

In a 2012 HayGroup study, voluntary turnover was set to increase by 5% annually starting in the year 2013 (Mulvaney, 2014). According to Topcic, Baum, and Kabst (2016), companies in high-performing work environments such as call centers could also see an increase in the stress and anxiety levels of their employees. The stressors that stem from the workplace have short and long-term effects on the mental and physical well-being of employees (Ganster & Rosen, 2013).

In the study, I tested the following hypotheses:

Null Hypothesis (H_0): There is no significant relationship between employees' affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment to their companies and their turnover intentions.

Alternative Hypothesis (H_1): There is a significant relationship between employees' affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment to their companies and their turnover intentions.

Literature on Meyer and Allen's Three Component Model of Commitment

Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993) tested Meyer and Allen's three-component model of commitment and its effects on turnover intention and occupational commitment with a quantitative correlational study that served as a guide for my research. The foundational knowledge for my study included an examination that addressed affective, continuance, and normative commitment and their relationship with turnover intentions. In addition, the study includes an examination of the literature on the instruments that have been used by researchers to assess employee affective, continuance, and normative commitment and turnover intentions.

Mowday et al. (1979) developed a questionnaire that helped to advance the study of organizational commitment by assessing an employee's desire to stay with a company, accept and believe in the values of an organization, and his or her willingness to remain productive at work. Mowday's et al.'s questionnaire was one-dimensional and focused solely on an employee's feelings or attachment to the organization. Allen and Meyer (1990) used the work from previous researchers such as Mowday et al. who had studied organizational commitment as an emotional attachment or loyalty to an organization. Some critics questioned the validity of the one-dimensional view of commitment, so Allen and Meyer (1990) proposed a three-component model in their quantitative study measuring the antecedents of the affective, continuance, and normative commitments of

256 clerical, managerial, non-unionized, and supervisory employees. Meyer and Allen (1991) then expanded on their earlier work by developing a multidimensional commitment model, known as Meyer and Allen's three-component model of commitment, which assessed employees' affective, continuance, and normative commitment levels (Benton, 2014). Meyer and Allen (1991) proposed that each of the three components measured commitment in the following ways (a) affective commitment measured the employees' attachment to the organization, (b) continuance commitment measured the employees' assessment of the costs associated with resigning from the organization, and (c) normative commitment measure the employees' obligation to stay with the organization. Saghati, Zadkarim, and Emari (2016) later validated the argument of earlier scholars by indicating in their study that examined the prediction of employee commitment in civil projects, using the Adaptive Neuro-Fuzzy Inference System that most scholars with recent studies analyzed organizational commitment from a multidimensional perspective instead of the one-dimensional view used in previous research.

The assessment of commitment from a multidimensional perspective helped to measure an employee's desire to stay or leave an organization (Meyer and Allen, 1991). Benton (2014) agreed with this finding in his qualitative book narrating the challenges that foreigners faced when working for Americans in the U.S. State Department. Benton (2014) found that identifying the commitment level of employees provided company leaders with a way to assess turnover intention. Conversely, Solinger, van Olffen, and Roe's (2008) indicated that only the continuance and normative components of the three areas of commitment assessed the employee's decision to stay or leave an organization and that the affective commitment component determined the employee's attitude toward the company in a qualitative, historical study researching employee commitment across multiple industries. Solinger et al. also discovered that Meyer and Allen's three-component model of commitment lacked conceptual consistency and only predicted turnover intention, which showed support for the attitude-behavior model used in other research to assess organizational commitment. Contrarily, Simo, Enache, Sallan, and Fernandez (2014) referenced Meyer and Allen's three-component model of commitment as being the dominant tool used by scholars to address organizational commitment in a qualitative meta-analysis study on 310 Spanish employees in the service industry. In addition, Sanecka's (2013) study examining 153 Polish employees' perceived supervisor subclinical psychopathy and subordinate organizational commitment, listed Meyer and Allen's three-component model of commitment as one of the most popular theoretical models that determined organizational commitment.

Jackson, Meyer, and Wang (2013) used Meyer and Allen's study as a guide to determine if leadership positive or negatively affected the three components of commitment when the authors conducted a qualitative, meta-analysis of past research that addressed the relationship between leadership and organizational commitment. Simo et al. (2014) added that the positive or adverse effects led to a difference in employee commitment and turnover intention. Meyer et al. (1993) expanded on the work of Meyer and Allen (1991) by examining the different facets of Meyer and Allen's three-component model of commitment. Meyer et al. conducted a quantitative study of 366 nursing students and 603 registered nurses from Queens University in Kingston, Ontario and the College of Nurses of Ontario, and found that a high affective commitment resulted in employee retention because employees chose to stay with organizations, a high continuance commitment resulted in employee retention because employees felt they needed to stay with organizations, and a strong normative commitment resulted in employee retention because employees felt obligated to stay with organizations.

Due to the varying definitions of commitment in research, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) expanded on the work of Meyer's et al. (1993) by providing specifics of how workplace commitment related to literature addressing organizations, occupations, and unions. Using Meyer's et al. recommendation that researchers must define commitment used in literature because of its multiple meanings, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) examined the past and present articles addressing workplace commitment over a 39-year period, using a meta-analysis approach. In later studies, researchers began to analyze commitment from a person-centered approach by considering the different types of behavioral commitment named focal behavior, which included the performance, tenure, and turnover of employees, and discretionary behavior, which included a review of employee organizational citizenship behaviors (Kabins, Bergman, Berry, & Willson, 2016).

In an attempt to understand how commitment affected employee behavior, Meyer, Stanley, and Parfyonova (2012), using a mixed-method approach, researched six distinct profiles from previous studies to test the commitment level of 403 human services employees from a professional association in a latent profile analysis. Meyer et al.

(2012) found that the qualitative and quantitative results varied for each of the six profiles titled as (a) Affective Commitment Dominant, (b) Normative Commitment Dominant, (c) Continuance Commitment Dominant, (d) Affective and Normative Commitment Dominant, (e) Affective and Continuance Commitment Dominant, and (f) Continuance and Normative Commitment Dominant. Meyer et al. identified that moral imperative occurred when employees had high affective and normative commitment levels, that the well-being of employees significantly improved when continuance commitment levels increased, and that employees felt an indebted obligation to the company when all three forms of commitment increased. Meyer, Morin, and Vandenberghe (2015), in a two-part, quantitative, latent-profile analysis of 481 alumni, with degrees in various fields, from a Belgian university and 264 alumni from the Belgian school of industrial engineering, identified indebted obligation, the need to meet the requirements of the people around you, and moral imperative, an individual’s desire to do what is right, as the two dimensions of normative commitment.

Meyer and Allen (1997) argued that, while different, employees could experience various characteristics of each form of commitment at the same time in a qualitative review of the theory, research, and application of organizational commitment in the workplace. In addition, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) agreed that combining the different forms of commitment created separate and distinct profiles, which directly affected employee attitudes and job performance. Meyer and Allen (1991) argued that companies must assess the three commitment profiles simultaneously instead of individually, and referenced employees who achieved weaker levels in all three areas delivered less than desirable results for the company.

Assessing the different types of commitment was one of the reasons that Meyer and Allen (1991) developed the three-component model because critics reported that Mowday's et al. (1979) survey only addressed one dimension of commitment. One of the benefits of surveying multiple components of commitment was that it helped leaders' measure turnover intention over time (Benton, 2014). Many researchers agreed with the use of Meyer and Allen's three-component model of commitment for assessing employee commitment and turnover intention; however, other researchers questioned if the model only predicted the employee's intent to stay or leave an organization and not the employee's level of commitment (Solinger et al., 2008). To test the model, Meyer et al. (1993) examined organizational commitment and its relationship to turnover intention using a sample of registered nurses and nursing students from Kingston, Ontario. Meyer et al. found that employees could experience different levels of affective, continuance, and normative commitment simultaneously; therefore, leaders should assess all three components to gain a full understanding of the overall commitment level of their employees.

Literature on the Independent Variable of Affective Commitment and Its Measurement

The independent variable of affective commitment, a core element of organizational commitment is one of the first components to address an individual's commitment to a group or organization (Mercurio, 2015). As mentioned above, Meyer and Allen (1991) termed the work conducted by Mowday et al. (1979), that addressed the desires of employees to remain with an organization and support the corporate values, as affective commitment. According to Morin et al. (2016), affectively committed employees value change in an organization, remain focused on completing any assigned tasks or goals, and have a willingness to increase their workload if it ensures the success of the implemented change. In addition to the above, Demirtas and Akdogan (2015) defined affective commitment as an employee's emotional attachment or connection to an organization in their quantitative experimental study examining the effects of ethical leadership on middle-level employees in various industries. Demirtas and Akdogan (2015) also referenced that other scholars identified relationships between affective commitment and variables such as job security, advancement opportunities, organizational support, and downsizing.

The level of affective commitment varies with individuals. A high or strong affective commitment is the result of an employee's desires to identify with an organization on an emotional level (Gellatly, Cowden, & Cummings, 2014). Kim, Henderson, and Eom (2015) conducted a quantitative correlational study of 11,716 administrative employees, using affective commitment as an independent variable, and found that employees with high levels of affective commitment focused more attention on meeting the needs of the customers. Similarly, Conway and Briner (2015) explained in their quantitative, longitudinal, unit-level analysis, examining the correlation between organizational commitment and customer satisfaction that employees with high affective commitment focused on meeting the goals of the organization, which led to an increase in customer satisfaction. Zhang (2015) also found in his quantitative study of the personality traits of 356 Chinese academics that affective commitment played a significant role in employees achieving the goals of organizations, and that employees remained with groups or companies because they elected to do so, not because they felt an obligation to stay. In addition, Nguyen, Groth, and Johnson (2016) established in their study of 121 nurses in an Australian public hospital that high affective commitment helped to motivate and encourage employees in the workplace because of their stake in the company. Lastly, Neelam, Bhattacharya, Sinha, and Tanksale's (2015) referenced that high affective commitment led to an increase in employee satisfaction and a decrease in turnover, as listed in their study of 218 Indian professionals in the Information Technology industry.

An employee's role in the organization or group can affect his or her level of affective commitment or the commitment level of others. Ohana (2016) also added that affectively committed employees reciprocate or have a willingness to help others as it creates opportunities for them to maintain a longer-lasting relationship with the group or organizations. Additionally, Barnes, Ponder, and Hopkins (2015), in their quantitative study of 431 customer-facing employees recruited by senior-level marketing students, referenced the social identity model and how employees with increased affective commitment displayed positive service delivery behaviors, which in time, increased customer satisfaction because the positive mindset and attitude of the employees eventually rubbed off on the customers.

Poor customer behavior also influences the behavior and mindset of employees as described in Duprė, Dawe, and Barling's (2014) quantitative study that examined 2,991 customer service employees. In Duprė's et al. study, they discovered that affective commitment declined and turnover intention increased when employees interacted with aggressive customers on an ongoing basis, and Duprė's et al. underlying assumption was affective commitment was an attitudinal consequence of customer-initiated workplace aggression. In Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, and Topolnytsky's (2002) meta-analysis study of existing research that addressed the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of affective, continuance, and normative commitment, the authors listed that other outcomes of affective commitment were workplace attendance issues, low productivity, stress, and work and family conflicts.

Another consequence of organizational commitment is turnover; however, of the three forms of commitment examined, affective commitment had the highest inverse relationship with turnover and continuance commitment had the lowest, as identified in Gellatly's et al. (2014) qualitative, phenomenological study of the commitment, work relationships, and turnover intentions of 336 registered nurses. Meyer et al. (2002) reported similar results by identifying that affective commitment had the highest relationship to turnover from an organizational and employee-relevance perspective. However, some researchers argued that there were little to no differences between affective and continuance commitment and that both predicted turnover intention (Neelam, Bhattacharya, Sinha, & Tanksale's, 2015). Conversely, in Zhang's (2015) assessment of affective commitment, he indicated that both affective and normative commitments were adaptive, and continuance commitment was maladaptive. Đokić, Šarac, and Bečejski (2015) listed the definition of adaptive, in the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, as the ability for individuals to adapt or adjust to a changing work environment, and Statz (2015) reported that the definition of maladaptive, in Barker's Social Work Dictionary, was the behaviors or traits that individuals possess that decreases their chances of achieving the goals or meeting the demands presented to them.

When affectively committed employees fail to meet the stated goals such as productivity or quality, Zatzick, Deery, and Iverson (2015) indicated that these individuals display other behaviors that benefit the organization, which helps the employees maintain their position in companies. However, Masakure and Gerhardt (2016) argued that employees with high affective commitment remain focused on displaying the efforts needed to meet the stated goals, which, in turn, keeps their production numbers high. From a call center perspective, Mehmood, Ahmad, Irum, and Ashfaq's (2016) quantitative correlational study examining the job satisfaction, affective commitment, and turnover intentions of 106 front desk bank employees in Pakistan, identified a negative relationship between affective commitment and turnover intention and specified that retaining employees with stronger customer service skills required call center leaders to develop emotional ties with these employees as it helped to build a higher sense of organizational identification. Mehmood et al. (2016) also added that front office associates that displayed positive attitudes and emotions are more likely to stay with organizations because they focus on producing higher quality relationships with external customers. In addition, Lai (2015) studied the relationship between five variables: (1) service quality, (2) customer satisfaction, (3) customer loyalty, (4) perceived value, and (5) affective commitment, to determine if there was a negative or positive correlation between each. Lai (2015) revealed in his quantitative correlational study of 382 randomly selected participants, that direct contact with customers helped to increase affective commitment and customer loyalty, which in turn, also increased customer satisfaction.

The instrument used to measure affective commitment was the affective commitment scale, developed by Meyer and Allen in 1984 (McGhee & Ford, 1987). The authors used information from other engagement sources to build the scales and reviewed the reliability and correlation of each, as in their quantitative study to measure the organizational commitment of full-time, non-unionized employees in clerical, supervisory, and management positions at a University and several manufacturing companies (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The initial development of the scale included 51 items, but a revised version for each of the three components, affective, continuance, and normative commitment, consisted of eight questions that examined commitment from a positive and negative perspective (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Later versions of the model include six items for each of the three components.

Schoemmel, Jønsson, and Jeppesen (2015) noted in their quantitative study examining survey feedback from 305 individuals via Facebook and 496 Danish healthcare workers that there was a need to develop a new multi-targeted affective commitment scale because Allen and Meyer’s (1990) affective commitment scale only focused on one’s organizational commitment but did not assess other workplace targets.

Schoemmel et al. also noted that researchers often changed the questions on the affective commitment scale when looking to evaluate variables outside of organizational commitment. However, Scrima (2015) showed support for the validity and reliability of the affective commitment scale in his quantitative correlational study examining the convergent-discriminant validity of the Workplace Attachment Scale in comparison to the Workplace Scale and Affective Commitment Scale by measuring the emotional attachment of 320 Italian workers in the public and private sectors.

In Allen and Meyer's (1990) study, the respondents used a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*, to determine the participant's level of affective commitment. Meyer et al. (1993) later removed two items from the affective commitment scale to minimize the chances of redundancy in respondent answers. However, the use of the 7-point Likert scale continued to assess one's range of disagreement or agreement to each question. Examples of the items contained in the affective commitment section of Meyer and Allen's (1993) three-component model of commitment are "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization and "I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own". The average reliability score of the affective commitment scale, as conducted by Meyer et al. (2002) in their study to test its reliability was 0.82, and Yamao & Sekiguchi (2015) indicated in their study that the Cronbach's alpha coefficient as 0.91. Contrarily, Khan (2015) questioned the consistency of the affective commitment scale in his mixed-method study analyzing the relationship between the employee affective commitment and job performance of 53 interviewed participants and 436 surveyed participants across two banks in Bangladesh by stating that the respondent answers could vary depending on the context of the study and the understanding of its respondents.

As mentioned above, affective commitment was one of the first tools to assess organizational commitment, and Teimouri et al. (2015) indicated in their quantitative correlational study of 185 managers that high affective commitment was a sign of durability and an excellent predictor of the employee's total commitment to the organization. Business leaders benefit when assessing an employee's affective commitment because it helps to identify an individual's perceived loyalty and self-sacrifice to a company (Teimouri et al., 2015). Affective commitment is an essential component of organizational commitment, and of the three forms used in Meyer and Allen's three-component model of commitment, affective commitment was the first to address an individual's bond with the organization (Mercurio, 2015). Past studies, which address organizational commitment, conducted by researchers such Meyer and Allen (1991) and Demirtas and Akdogan (2015) provided a different description of affective commitment, but both sets of scholars referenced the emotional attachment and bond between a company and its employees.

Literature on the Independent Variable of Continuance Commitment and Its Measurement

Meyer and Allen (1991) defined the independent variable of continuance commitment as the relationship that exists after the employee understands the alternative job opportunities available and the perceived costs associated with leaving an organization. Similarly, McGhee and Ford (1987) reexamined the affective and continuance commitment of 350 faculty members in colleges and universities across the United States and Canada, and described continuance commitment as the worker's decision to remain with a company after understanding the limited availability of alternative jobs in the market and the personal sacrifices he or she could potentially lose from leaving the organization. Zhang's (2015) expanded on the work of previous researchers by listing the derivatives of continuance commitment, which included economic commitment and choice commitment, in his quantitative, experimental study of 356 professors in Beijing, China. Zhang (2015) described economic commitment as the fear associated with an employee's concern for ending one's membership with a firm, and choice commitment as the lack of alternative jobs available for employees who intend to end their association with a company. Some of the factors that affect an employee's level of continuance commitment are high unemployment rates, hostile work environments, and economic and environmental issues such as the ones that employees have no direct effect or control over (Devece, Palacios-Marquės, & Alguacil's, 2015).

Vandenberghe, Mignoonac, and Manville (2015) identified the feeling associated with few alternative jobs available as one where the employees feel trapped in an organization because they feel there is nowhere else to go. Meyer and Allen (1991) hypothesized that employees with high continuance commitment remained with companies because they felt the need to do so. According to Battistelli, Galletta, Vandenberghe, and Odoardi (2016), employee continuance commitment increased when individuals saw that their actions boosted their chances of retaining some advantages or assets such as a membership with an organization or club, company benefits, salaries or pensions, or recognition in or around the community. Individual investments increased when employees remained with companies over an extended period, which, in turn, increased the chances of high employee continuance commitment (Ma, Qu, & Wilson, 2016).

Along with the consequences of continuance commitment, authors such as Meyer et al. (2002) referenced that since 1982 over 100 published studies addressed continuance commitment and its relationship to absenteeism, turnover, job satisfaction, performance, and career development. However, in Joung, Goh, Huffman, Yuan, and Surles' (2015) quantitative correlational study of the organizational commitment of 447 food service employees across the United States, the authors indicated that employee continuance commitment did not have an impact on turnover intention. Nevertheless, researchers such as Mishra, Mishra, and Grubb (2015) continued to study the role that commitment played with turnover and found that individuals who earned degrees at the graduate level or higher had an increased chance of finding alternative employment, and their continuance commitment levels and turnover intentions levels were high.

Some scholars such as Ma et al. (2016), in their cross-cultural study of the affective commitment and dispositional consequences of organizational citizenship behavior, agreed that continuance commitment was an excellent predictor of an employee's intention to stay or leave an organization. In addition, Khan, Naseem, and Masood (2016), in their quantitative, quasi-experimental study examining the effect that continuance commitment and organizational cynicism had on the employee satisfaction of 108 employees in the private and public sectors of several engineering firms in

Pakistan, found that a way to assess the continuance commitment of employees was to determine their level of job satisfaction because it was one of the leading reasons why employees opted to leave organizations. However, in an earlier study conducted by Panaccio, Vandenberghe, and Ben Ayed (2014), they examined 509 human resource professionals in Eastern Canada and aimed to find the role that negative affectivity had on affective and continuance commitment, and reasoned that continuance commitment negatively related to pay satisfaction and turnover because employees understood the potential losses associated with leaving a company. Nonetheless, industries with limited jobs available such as the tourism sector benefitted from employees with a high level of continuance commitment because they stayed with businesses because of their limited chances of finding alternative employment (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Some individuals who remained with the companies felt bound, and Lambert, Hogan, and Keena (2015) indicated in their quantitative, quasi-experimental study examining the impact that job attitudes had on the continuance and affective commitment of 160 corrections officers in a private prison, that the employee’s position, stress level, involvement in the day-to-day, and level of satisfaction affected their level of continuance commitment. Meyer and Allen (1991) suggested that the employees with high levels of continuance commitment, the ones who developed a need-based relationship with the organization, would complete the tasks left over from the low performing individuals to maintain their employment. Lastly, in Rahman, Ferdausy, and Karan’s (2015) empirical study of 187 Chittagong employees to determine the relationship between the components of organizational commitment and job performance, the authors found that affective and normative commitment were both high predictors of job performance, but continuance commitment was not. Rahman et al. also revealed a 1% variance between continuance commitment and job performance, which was significantly less than the 18% variance found for affective commitment and the 14% variance found for normative commitment.

When examining continuance commitment in a call center environment, Gangai, Mahakud, and Sharma (2016) studied 232 employees in a governmental agency located in Canada and discovered that affective commitment had a connection to an employee's internal locus of control and continuance commitment related to an employee's external locus of control. Some of the characteristics that Gangai et al. described as a show of an individual's external locus of control are (1) employees who easily quit tasks because they refuse to work hard to finish them, (2) employees who regularly display a negative attitude, (3) employees who believe their success is because of fate or luck, and (4) employees who remain in positions even though they are dissatisfied. According to Akanji, Mordi, and Taylor (2015), unhappy employees in call centers, who have a high continuance commitment, remained in their positions because they feared a loss of financial benefits from their current employer. Additionally, Becker (1960) argued that employees who had vested costs or time in organizations such as an increased pay because of tenure or promotions would be less likely to leave, and Becker (1960) regarded continuance commitment as a connection to one's behavior, not their attitude.

Some researchers such as Garland, Lambert, Hogan, Kim, and Kelley (2014) found that continuance commitment related more to the behavioral side of the attitudinal-behavioral continuum than the attitudinal side because of the employee's physical, mental, and emotional investments in the organization. Garland's et al. results were a part of their meta-analysis study that examined the relationship between continuance commitment and the burnout of correctional staff members in a Midwestern prison. However, in an earlier study, Meyer et al. (2002) reported that some researchers did not find a relationship or indicated a negative correlation between continuance commitment and employee behavior. One reason for a change in employee behavior was job-related stress, but Lambert et al. (2015) suggested that stress on the job had a limited effect on the continuance commitment of employees because these individuals focused more attention on the loss of potential investments or side bets than the specific factors that related to stress.

In Lambert's et al. (2015) study of the organizational commitment level of correctional officers in a maximum-security prison, the authors referenced the significant relationship between Becker's (1960) side-bet theory and continuance commitment. In Becker's (1960) study, he described side bets as anything of value to the employee that would potentially be lost or lessened in value if he or she left the organization. The four categories included in Becker's (1960) study that addressed continuance commitment are (a) face-to-face interactions with others, (b) generalized cultural norms, (c) bureaucratic arrangements, and (d) personal adjustments on the job. Contrary to Lambert's et al. findings, McGhee and Ford (1987) argued there was not a relationship between Becker's (1960) side-bet theory and the section of the continuance commitment scale that addressed the low number of alternative jobs available. However, McGhee and Ford

(1987) did indicate that a relationship did exist between the items that assessed the availability of employment and the elements that referenced the high sacrifices made. Lastly, Meyer, Allen, and Gellatly (1990) noted that the continuance commitment scale was an exhaustive way to measure the costs associated with turnover.

The instrument used to measure continuance commitment was the continuance commitment scale, developed in 1984 by Meyer and Allen, which originally contained eight items that addressed the personal sacrifices that individuals lost when leaving a company (McGhee & Ford, 1987). Meyer et al. (1993) later reduced the continuance commitment scale to six items after critics questioned the reliability and validity of the original scale. Examples of the questions included in the continuance commitment section of Meyer and Allen's (1993) revised three-component model of commitment are "Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire" and "It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to". Meyer and Allen (1991) indicated that the continuance commitment scale provided an assessment of constraints that significantly influenced one's decision to remain with a company, which differed from the affective and normative commitment scales that specifically addressed one's feelings or attachment to an organization. The continuance commitment scale achieved an acceptable reliability of .64 (Mishra et al., 2015), and Yamao and Sekiguchi, (2015) indicated in their study that the scale had a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.76.

In McGhee and Ford's (1987) qualitative, exploratory study of Allen and Meyer's (1990) original continuance commitment scale, they found that items nine and twelve, which represented the first and fourth elements of the continuance commitment scale, when separated from the affective and normative scales, were vastly uninterpretable. Meyer et al. (1990) also acknowledged the weakness of these two items and recommended revising the continuance commitment scale to increase its relevant statistics. Later, Jaros and Culpepper (2014) highlighted the relationship between the low alternative items of the scale and the perceived items relating to employment alternatives design and suggested removing these items, as they did not refer to the continuance commitment construct.

Meyer et al. (2002) determined the gap in research for continuance commitment was due to the challenges associated with measuring and conceptualizing the construct. According to Johnson, Chang, and Yang (2010), some of the confusion with researching continuance commitment was that scholars continued to debate if the element was one or two-dimensional. This acknowledgment came after Meyer's et al. (1990) attempt to decrease the literary confusion by providing details and procedures for researchers to use when unsure of whether to measure continuance commitment as one or two-dimensional construct. Despite their efforts, Jaros and Culpepper (2014) highlighted in a later study that some researchers continued to struggle with understanding the most efficient way to study and measure continuance commitment.

Literature on the Independent Variable of Normative Commitment and Its Measurement

The independent variable of normative commitment is one of the multi-dimensional elements of Meyer and Allen's three-component model of commitment

(Meyer & Allen, 1991). According to Meyer and Allen (1991), in their quantitative descriptive study to conceptualize the three components of organizational commitment and create a new commitment model, described normative commitment as one's moral obligation to remain with a company. Similarly, McCallum, Forret, and Wolff (2014) indicated in their quantitative correlational study examining the internal and external networking behaviors of 335 managers in the healthcare system that normative commitment related to the employees feeling a sense of responsibility to stay with organizations. This responsibility, as referenced by Gelaidan and Ahmad (2013) in their quantitative experimental study that examined the different factors that affected 371 Yemeni employees' commitment to change in the public sector, is an employee's desire to repay the organization for the benefits, both monetary and non-monetary, that he or she received over time.

Of the three components, normative commitment received the least amount of attention in research and was the last element added to the organizational commitment model (Vandenberghe, Mignonac, & Manville, 2015). The reason for omitting normative commitment in 50% of the studies that Keiningham, Frennea, Aksoy, Buoye, and Mittal's (2015) included in their research was because of its close relationship with affective commitment, identified as (r=0.63), in the author's mixed-method, empirical study of the five-component customer commitment model with data collected from 9,000 consumers located in 10 countries. Additionally, in Devece, Palacios-Marquės, and Alguacil's (2015) quantitative, experimental study considering the effects that organizational commitment had on the corporate citizenship of 163 middle managers in Spain, the researchers validated the correlation between affective and normative commitment by referencing the similarities in the employee attitudes, the emotional ties to the organization, and their feelings toward the goals of the organization. Vandenberghe et al. (2015) corroborated these findings by including in their quantitative correlational study of 187 call center employees in eastern Canadian that normative and affective commitment related to similar antecedents and consequences. However, Vandenberghe et al. also acknowledged that the relationship between an employee normative commitment and various antecedents and consequences such as job performance, turnover, and citizenship behaviors were not as strong as the ones for affective commitment.

According to Keiningham et al. (2015), when compared to affective commitment, normative commitment did not have as strong of a relationship with predicting the loyalty of individuals; therefore, the authors suggested using affective commitment over normative commitment when studying this relationship in organizational studies. In an attempt to show the differences between the two variables, in Johnson's et al. (2010) quantitative study, they introduced a new motivational-based model of work commitment and listed a notable difference as affective commitment occurs after a person establishes a formal relationship with a company; however, normative commitment can happen before the official relationship between the individual and the organization begins. Wiener (1982) studied the normative view of commitment in organizations using Fishbein's model to describe the relationship between organizational behaviors, beliefs, commitment, and motivation and found that the act of forming a relationship before joining a company is an internalized norm. According to Wiener (1982), an internalized norm helps to shape one's loyalty to an organization because employees aim to meet the goals of the business because it feels right from a moral perspective. Wiener (1982) also suggested that one's normative commitment grows because of existing relationships such as the ones with an individual's family or his or her culture. Lastly, Johnson et al. listed another notable difference between affective and normative commitment, as normative commitment was more about one's beliefs about employment than it was about his or her personal experiences on the job.

In Islam, Kassim, Ali, and Sadiq's (2014) quantitative, quasi-experimental study analyzing the survey data from 297 Malaysian employees to assess the role that normative commitment plays in a learning culture and the impact it has on customer satisfaction rates, the authors found that the satisfaction level of customers depend on the normative commitment level of the employees and that companies that offer an environment of continuous learning for their employees help to increase normative commitment and customer satisfaction. Along with learning, Coetzee, Monga, and Swart (2014) identified other factors that positively influence normative commitment such as rewards, pay, training, opportunities for development, and effective leadership, so companies that look to retain qualified individuals must provide these factors and assess employee normative commitment.

The instrument used to measure normative commitment was the normative commitment scale, developed by Allen and Meyer (1990), which originally contained eight items that assessed an employee's moral obligation to remain with a company.

Later, Meyer et al. (1993) reduced the scale to six items, and Meyer and Allen (1997) shortened the scale again to only include five items. Meyer et al. indicated that the changes to the normative commitment scale were a result of its changing definitions over the years. The normative commitment scale achieved an acceptable reliability score of 0.85 (Mishra et al., 2015) and a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.82 (Yamao & Sekiguchi, 2015). Examples of the items included in the normative section of Meyer, Allen, and Smith's (1993) revised three-component model of commitment are "I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer" and "Even if it were to my advantage; I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now".

As listed above, Meyer and Allen (1991) and McCallum et al. (2014) described normative commitment as an obligation or bond that an employee has with an organization. Gelaidan and Ahman (2013) added that normative commitment was an employee's attempt to repay the organization for the benefits collected over time. While researchers defined normative commitment in different ways, its core definition related to one's moral obligation to remain with an organization (Sow, Anthony, & Berete, 2016). The various definitions referenced in multiple studies correlated to the wording that Meyer and Allen (1991) used to assess an employee's normative commitment to an organization or group in the normative commitment section of Meyer and Allen's three-component model of commitment.

Literature on the Dependent Variable of Turnover Intentions and Its Measurement

According to Bothma and Roodt (2013), the dependent variable of turnover intention is an employee's way to withdraw from a company because he or she can no longer identify with the work. Grissom and Mitani (2016), in a quantitative, descriptive study examining the salary, performance, and turnover of superintendents in the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, described turnover intention as one of two types (1) an employee contemplating moving into a like position, or (2) an employee contemplating exiting the company. Additionally, Çınar (2015) defined turnover intention as the employee's desire to leave his or her current role because there is a better opportunity available. More recent studies such as the one conducted by McInerney, Ganotice, King, Marsh, and Morin (2015) use a more basic definition of turnover intention by referencing that it is an employee's desire or attempt to leave an organization.

Bothma and Roodt (2013) argued that turnover intention is a step in the process that employees go through when contemplating whether to leave an organization. Saridakis and Cooper (2016) described the steps in the process as the employee (1) assesses the current job, (2) evaluates his or her level of satisfaction with the company and the job, (3) evaluates the costs and consequences associated with leaving the company, and (4) assesses the alternative jobs available to compare and contrast the pros and cons of each. Dwivedi (2015) agree that turnover intention was a cognitive process that included a series of mental decisions before the employee terminated his or her employment from an organization. Conversely, Hollingsworth and Valentine (2014), in a quantitative study using structural equation analysis of survey data from 527 financial services employees, did not see it as a series of steps but instead identified the employees' attitude toward the broader organization as the driver behind an employee's intent to stay or leave a company. Ahmad and Rainyee (2014) conducted a qualitative historical study and reviewed articles that addressed how various elements predicted turnover intention; and several scholars provided feedback about the association between turnover intentions, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment, but these researchers did not show a consistent theme on which of these elements had a stronger impact on decreasing employee turnover intention.

In addition to the debate about which antecedents increased or decreased turnover intention, researchers such as Wong, Wong, and Wong (2015), in their quantitative, quasi-experimental study of the effects that turnover intention had on the performance of employees in three Chinese joint ventures, highlighted the limitation that a scale used to measure turnover intention only revealed the number of employees desiring to leave, not the number of employees who actually leave. Contrarily, Cohen, Blake, and Goodman (2015) indicated in their quantitative correlational study examining the correlation between turnover intention and the actual turnover rate of 180 US federal agencies that turnover intention was an excellent way to predict turnover. Similarly, in Cohen's et al. study, they found when examining the same variables that the ones that sparked an increase in turnover intention also sparked an increase in turnover. Cohen et al. also indicated that a positive relationship did exist between turnover intention and turnover. According to Demirtas and Akdogan (2015), turnover is a consequence of turnover intention; however, it starts with employee dissatisfaction, leads to research and a search for alternative jobs, an evaluation and comparison of the jobs available, and an exit from the company if the pros for the new job outweigh the cons of the current job. While there is no exact way to determine if turnover intention led to turnover, the mere desire that an employee is attempting to leave the organization is a signal that a problem exists (Babalola, Stouten, & Euwema, 2016). According to Wong et al. employees who contemplate leaving a company have a decreased desire to invest in their job. Leadership assessment or measurement of turnover intention helps to predict turnover (Cohen, Blake, & Goodman, 2015), and it provides the leader with the time needed to address employee issues and concerns before he or she resigns.

From a cost perspective, companies analyze the monetary and non-monetary costs associated with voluntary turnover, which can include the costs to hire and train new employees, increased pay and benefits, decreased production, and the reduced morale from the employee changes in the workplace, to better understand and address turnover intention (Saridakis & Cooper, 2016). According to Wang, Tsai, Ru Lei, Chio, and Lai (2016) in their quantitative correlational study examining the relationship between job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions, voluntary turnover is an employee's decision to exit a company for reasons such as a promotion, retirement, health-related issues, or educational advancement. From a corporate perspective, companies measure turnover by dividing the total number of voluntary terminations of full-time employees by the total number of full-time employees (Cohen et al., 2015). Business leaders analyze turnover from a corporate perspective as the actions of employees leaving the company always impacts the bottom line, but the leaders' measure turnover intention from an individual standpoint, as it is a correctable expense (Fabi, Lacoursiere, & Raymond, 2015).

In literature, scholars use The Unfolding Model of Voluntary Turnover to assess the thought process that employees go through before they leave a company and to understand the reasons why they act on the decision to leave (Mxenge, Dywili, & Bazana, 2014). Xu et al. (2015) listed four paths associated with The Unfolding Model of Voluntary Turnover, which included (1) the employee that leaves a company with a plan in mind, (2) the employee that leaves a company because of a negative event with no plan of what to do next, (3) the employee that exits the company with a plan of finding alternative employment, and (4) the employee that leaves the company because of continued dissatisfaction. According to Mxenge, Dywili, and Bazana (2014), the model includes two key factors, which is a shock to the system and decision frames. A shock to the system is an event that, planned or unplanned, causes an employee to reflect on their current role and the future opportunities with a company (Babalola et al., 2016). Decision frames are policies or guidelines that shape the way an employee interprets recent events (Mxenge et al., 2014), and they illustrate the four decision paths of The Unfolding Model of Voluntary Turnover in their quantitative quasi-experimental study that examined the effects of organizational stress on the employee turnover intention of 638 administrative personnel at the University of Fort Hare campuses as

- a match between a shock to the system and an existing decision frame,
- when a shock to the system does not match a decision frame and there is a low availability of alternative jobs,
- when a shock to the system does not match a decision frame and alternative jobs are available, and

- when there is no shock to the system; therefore, a decision frame is not available for selection.

A shock to the system that leads to turnover may increase an employee's need to understand the organization or be the driver behind turnover intention in future jobs (Davis, Trevor, and Feng, 2015), which could potentially lead to increased expenses for a company. Voluntary turnover is a costly expense and stressor for company leaders because it directly affects business outcomes (Ghosh, Rai, & Chauhan, 2015). Some of the expenses that companies face when turnover is high are increased pay associated with overtime because of the need for employees to stay and complete the tasks that remain from the exited employees and the costs tied to addressing the reputational damage from the public's opinion of the company's turnover (Collini, Guidroz, & Perez, 2015).

The economy changed its focus from manufacturing to service, and March and Simon published one of the most impactful articles addressing turnover in 1958, which is an indicator that there is a need for new literature analyzing the effects of turnover on the service industry (Holtom & Burch, 2016). According to Holtom and Burch (2016), the rates of turnover in the service industry exceed the rates in other industries. One of the reasons for high turnover in a call center is on-the-job stress because employees have to speak with and support the needs of external customers (Yang, Ju, & Lee, 2016). Decreased productivity and low morale in a call center lead to shortened calls as employees focus more attention on adherence to a script and less time on building relationships with customers, which, in turn, leads to client frustration and decreased customer satisfaction (Gil, Iddo, & Dana, 2014). In Yang, Ju, and Lee's (2016) quantitative experimental study, the authors examined the effects that job stress had on the self-esteem, job satisfaction, and turnover intention of 244 female call center employees in Seoul, Korea and found that increased job satisfaction led to decreased turnover intention. In addition, Kraemer and Gouthier (2014) determined that emotional exhaustion and organizational pride also play a significant role in the turnover intention of call center employees. As a result, Aliyu and Nyadzayo (2016), in their mixed-method approach studying the role that customer relationship management had on the job satisfaction and turnover intention of employees in call centers, the researchers found that managers benefit from focusing on identification of intrinsic factors that contribute to increased job satisfaction and decreased turnover intention.

In Yusoff, Rimi, and Meng’s (2015) quantitative correlational study examining the relationship between eight different dimensions of work and life quality, organizational commitment, and the turnover intention of 254 Malaysian manufacturing employees, the researchers discovered that employee affective and normative commitment have a positive relationship with turnover intention. However, Yousaf, Sanders, and Abbas (2015) determined that negative experiences affect the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions, as described in their quantitative correlational study examining the correlation between the organizational and occupational commitment and turnover intentions of 153 Dutch university employees. Similarly, Wong and Laschinger (2015) also discovered a negative correlation between organizational commitment and turnover intention in their cross-sectional quantitative study analyzing the impacts that the strain of front-line managers had on the employee commitment, burnout, and turnover intention of 500 front-line managers across 14 universities in Ontario, Canada. While the variables of organizational commitment and job satisfaction resulted in having a positive or adverse effect on turnover intention, Aydin, Sarier, and Uysal (2013) discovered that the management style had more of an influence on whether an employee stayed or left an organization.

From a customer service perspective, Echchakoui and Naji (2013) referenced that 70% of call centers lose customers because of high employee turnover. Managers that address front-line employee issues such as emotional exhaustion and strain on the job help to decrease turnover intention (Karatepe & Kilic, 2015), and managers are more likely to retain employees when they identify and address job-related issues early because employee retention rates decline once an employee reaches the turnover intention phase (Judhi, Pa'wan, & Hansaram, 2013). According to Rothausen, Henderson, Arnold, and Malshe (2015), companies must understand the reason why employees opt to stay or leave companies and how workers describe it, which can be accomplished with the use of an instrument specially designed to measure turnover intentions.

The instrument used to measure turnover intention is Roodt's (2004) six-item version of the unpublished turnover intention scale (TIS-6; see Appendix D). The turnover intention scale (Roodt, 2004), assesses an employee's intent to leave an organization by measuring six items on a 5-point Likert scale with options ranging from Never to Always, To No Extent to To a Very Large Extent, and Highly Unlikely to Highly Likely. Samples of questions included in the questionnaire are "How often have you considered leaving your current job?" and "How often are you frustrated when not given the opportunity at work to achieve your personal work-related goals?" With technological advances, a newer version of the latter question could replace the outdated language in the questionnaire.

In an attempt to reduce the length of the scale, Bothma and Roodt (2013) created a six-item turnover intention scale, adapted from the original, unpublished version. Mxenge et al. (2014) confirmed that the reliability coefficient for the turnover intention scale, developed by Roodt (2004) was 0.80, and Malik and Khalid (2016) confirmed the Cronbach Alpha score was 0.79. Additionally, Bothma and Roodt (2013) added that researchers also needed to assess the behavior intention of individuals when using the turnover intention scale to enhance its reliability.

Aladwan, Bhanugopan, and Fish (2013) employed the use of Roodt's unpublished turnover intention scale, as cited by Jacobs & Roodt (2008), in their quantitative experimental study examining 493 front-line Jordanian employees across various organizations to assess the reason why they intended to quit their jobs. Aladwan et al. indicated the reason they opted to use Roodt's (2004) unpublished turnover intention scale was that it offered a variety of questions, which was not an option with some of the other turnover intention surveys. Similarly, Taboli (2015) used Roodt's (2004) unpublished turnover intention scale in his quantitative correlational and cross-sectional study examining the relationship between the work engagement and burnout and turnover intention of 210 employees in universities across Kerman, Iran. Like other researchers, Taboli (2015) also verified the validity and reliability of the instrument.

Due to the impact that turnover has on organizations and its employees, researchers have and will continue to study the different aspects of this topic (Rothausen, Henderson, Arnold, & Malshe, 2015). In the past, scholars studied turnover intention and its ability to predict turnover by identifying its consequences and antecedents. Bothma and Roodt (2013) found that a result of turnover intention was an employee who no longer related to his or her work. Grissom and Mitani (2016) emphasized the importance of seeing turnover as the transition of employees into like positions or roles or the voluntary decision of employees to leave a company. Lastly, Çınar (2015) described it as an employee's desire to leave a company in search of better opportunities. While the descriptions of turnover intention varied in studies, most researchers like McInerney et al. (2015) tied it to an employee's desire or intent to leave a company.

Transition

The literature review provides a detailed examination of organizational commitment, including an overview of how it advanced from a one-construct view to a multidimensional view in literature. The topic of organizational commitment evolved after Mowday's et al. (1979) developed a questionnaire to assess an employee's level of commitment to an organization. One of the main concerns with Mowday's et al. survey was that it focused on a one-dimensional view of commitment and only addressed the way an employee felt about the organization or his or her attachment to it. After critics had questioned the one-dimensional view of commitment, Allen and Meyer (1990) proposed a multidimensional model that assessment three components of commitment, affective, continuance, and normative. The affective commitment model aligned to the previous definitions of commitment because it assessed an employee's attachment to the organization, the continuance commitment scale identified the employee's perceived costs associated with leaving the company, and the normative commitment scale measured the employee's feeling of obligation to remain with a company. Within the literature reviewed, there was a detailed analysis of each of the components of commitment and their related instruments used in Meyer and Allen's three-component model of commitment. In addition, there was a substantial amount of research examining turnover intentions and the instrument developed by Roodt in 2004 to measure the employee's intent to stay or leave a company.

In Section 2, I covered a review of the research method, design, participant selection process, population sample size, and participant demographics. I also included information about the data collection process, the different instruments used to analyze and validate the study, and a section to highlight the details covered in Section 2. Then, I closed with a transition to section 3.

In Section 3, I present the findings from the questionnaire that relate to the theoretical framework. The review of this information includes an analysis of the results for each component of commitment with a full conclusion and synopsis of each. I add detail to support the implications of social change, recommendations for action, limitations of the study, and provide suggestions for future researchers.

Section 2: The Project

In Section 2, I explain the purpose of the project and the role I played in collecting and analyzing the data. Included in this section is an overview of the criteria I use to find eligible participants across the targeted population. In addition, the section includes an outline of the selected research design and method, along with a thorough review of each of the four instruments that were used to collect data from eligible participants.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between employees' affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment to their organizations and their turnover intentions. Meyer, Allen, and Smith's (1993) revised three-component model of commitment (see Appendix B) measured the independent variables of employee organizational affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. Roodt's (2004) six-item version of the unpublished turnover intention scale (TIS-6; see Appendix D) measured the dependent variable of employee turnover intentions. The targeted population consisted of call center employees in the customer service industry across the United States.

The study's implications for social change included the potential to decrease stress levels among call center employees and reduce job-related voluntary turnover. In a 2012 HayGroup study, voluntary turnover was set to increase by 5% annually starting in the year 2013 (Mulvaney, 2014). According to Topcic, Baum, and Kabst (2016), companies in high-performing work environments such as call centers could also see an increase in the stress and anxiety levels of their employees. The stressors that stem from the workplace have short and long-term effects on the mental and physical well-being of employees (Ganster & Rosen, 2013).

Role of the Researcher

According to Rohrer (2014), the researcher's role in the data collection process is to obtain data from instruments to identify which variables have the greatest impact on specific elements. In addition, the researcher must answer questions about "how many" and "how much" a phenomenon occurs (see McCusker & Gunaydin, 2014). According to Ingham-Broomfield (2014), the instruments used to collect the data must be valid and reliable because researchers use them to elicit an accurate representation of the population. The online survey I used consisted of four pages with six items from each of my four instruments. I verified each item to ensure it accurately matched the data from each instrument. When designing the survey using the online software SurveyMonkey, I selected the option to record participants' computer IP addresses/SurveyMonkey's member customer identification numbers, not their names or e-mail addresses, to ensure that their feedback would be confidential.

Data integrity is also an important factor as the information should be reliable, accurate, and consistent; and the researcher must ensure that data are not changed during the analysis process (Wong & Hui, 2015). Respondents in my study did not have the option to edit their answers once the questionnaire was complete. When analyzing the data, I disabled the editing feature to ensure that no changes were made to the participant responses.

I selected this topic because of my years of experience managing service employees who had expressed interest in leaving companies because of high levels of stress related to their jobs. The selected geographical area was the United States, as most of the employees whom I managed were in various locations across the country. Guay et al. (2016) indicated that studying the service industry was a good representation of all industries and cultures because most companies were customer service-focused. Participant responses were linked to a computer IP address or a SurveyMonkey member's customer identification number; therefore, I had no access to individual names or e-mail addresses. I had no way of identifying whether I had a personal relationship with any of the respondents.

My role related to the ethical research practices and the protocols articulated by authors of the 1979 *Belmont Report* to ensure that researchers undertake measures to provide informed consent and protection, privacy, and anonymity for human participants (Wong & Hui, 2015). The *Belmont Report* includes three principles (respect for persons, beneficence, and justice) related to the protection of human subjects who are engaged in research projects (Miles & Adams, 2013). As with any formal study, investigators must obtain informed consent from each participant, ensure that individuals understand the reason for the study, provide an explanation of what will happen with the results, treat everyone fairly, and minimize the level of risk and harm to the interested parties (Cugini, 2015). Participants in my study reviewed an individual participant consent form before they could complete the survey. In the form, I conveyed that participation was voluntary and could end at any time. I also included information about the nature of the study, an overview of the participant rights to privacy, a list of the risks and benefits associated with the study, and an option to print the form for one's records. In the disclosure statement, I highlighted that the participant's agreement to complete the survey served as his or her consent to these conditions. If participants did not agree with the conditions, they exited the survey or had the option of sending an e-mail to request the removal of their survey from the study. If they agreed to participate, respondents completed the survey and submitted their feedback for analysis.

Participants

In the study, I obtained feedback from eligible participants using an online survey method. A presurvey questionnaire was used to assess participants' eligibility before advancing to the online survey. The verification of participant eligibility upfront saves ineligible participants' time and reduces the chances of receiving invalid results (Kramer et al., 2014). According to Martinez-Mesa, Gonzȧlez-Chica, Duquia, Bonamigo, and Bastos (2016), the use of criteria that are too strict significantly limits a researcher's ability to locate eligible participants. The criteria in this study included individuals who are age 18 years or older, reside in the United States, and work or have worked in a call center environment for at least 2 years servicing the needs of external customers. Eligible participants resided in various states within the United States. The use of social media for recruitment in online surveys is fruitful and can open the participant pool to areas across the United States (Fazzino, Rose, Pollack, & Helzer, 2015).

Many researchers now use Facebook and other social media sites such as LinkedIn to recruit participants for surveys (Yuan, Bare, Johnson, & Saberi, 2014). As of June 2017, Facebook had over 2 billion active users, and there were 328 million people with active Twitter pages (Constine, 2017). To reach a sufficient number of participants for the study, I solicited participants' requests via Facebook and LinkedIn and added the survey link to several group pages in LinkedIn to encourage feedback from a diverse group of individuals. According to Maner (2016), researchers who seek feedback from diverse groups are more efficient as they tend to mimic the opinions of the actual population.

With any study, Denny, Silaigwana, Wasenaar, Bull, and Parker (2015) highlighted that researchers must inform participants of (a) the purpose of the research, (b) how the study benefits future research, (c) any benefits associated with the research, and (d) any acknowledgements received because of their contribution. I ensured the participants were made aware of these details by including this information in The Individual Participant Consent Form and requiring participants to review it before advancing to the questionnaire. The ability to add this information as a prerequisite was one of the benefits of conducting an online survey. In addition, Kramer et al. (2014) stated that judgment and a lack of sensitivity could occur when researchers conduct face-to-face surveys because interviewers can respond or react immediately to respondent feedback; however, both significantly decreased when participants complete surveys online. Kramer et al. also noted that individuals providing sensitive information prefer the anonymity associated with online surveys. As a safety measure, I added a disclosure that referenced the survey process was voluntary, and participants could withdraw at any time. Wang and Geale (2015) noted the withdrawal disclosure in the consent form is an added control to ensure participants understand the survey is optional.

Research Method and Design

Researchers face the challenge of using methods or designs in literature that differ from what they know or understand (Molina-Azorin, 2016). According to Chu (2015), most scholars avoid the use of unfamiliar methods and approaches even when one better fits the needs of the research project. After selecting the method, the researcher must choose a design and follow a set of sequential steps to guide the thought, planning, and analysis process of the study (Portney & Watkins, 2015).

Research Method

In this study, a quantitative method was used to guide the research. The three types of research methods used in the literature are qualitative, quantitative, or a combination of both (Chu, 2015), often referred to as the mixed method approach. A quantitative method meets the needs of this study because the goal was to examine the relationship between variables from an employee, not an organizational perspective. Groeneveld, Tummers, Bronkhorst, Ashikali, and van Thiel (2015) noted that researchers benefit when using a quantitative approach in analyzing the behavior or attitude of people and a qualitative method when studying organizations. Additionally, Portney and Watkins (2015) listed an advantage of quantitative research, as the researcher can summarize scales, and analyze data from a statistical perspective, and Jackson (2016) indicated that some qualitative studies lack structure and control and that threatens the study's reliability and validity. Other disadvantages of qualitative and mixed-method studies are the length of time it takes to collect the data from participants, the disruption it causes to observe individuals' in their personal or professional environment, and the risk associated with the distortion of information because the data files are large (Yin, 2016). A questionnaire, used in a quantitative study, is a tool that captures the participant's thoughts and feedback without distributing their work environment. Other features of a quantitative study, as documented by McCusker and Gunaydin (2015), are (a) the researcher has a clear understanding of what he or she is looking for in advance, (b) researchers use formal instruments to collect and gather the data, (c) the researcher tests a hypothesis, and (d) the uses numerical data to decrease the chances of subjectivity.

Research Design

In this study, a correlational design was most appropriate because I examined the relationship between three independent variables of organizational commitment and one dependent variable of turnover intentions. Mackey and Gass (2016) identified a correlational approach is best when examining the relationship between two or more variables and making predictions about the strength or weakness of its relationship. In addition to a correlational design, the other three quantitative research designs are (a) descriptive, (b) experimental, and (c) quasi-experimental (Gray, Grove, and Sutherland, 2016). A correlational design is also useful when researchers are assessing the differences between individuals because it can help to predict what and why something happened and how to fix or improve the situation (Barker, Pistrang, & Elliott, 2015). Most correlational designs are cross-sectional when the researcher examines the phenomenon or people at the same time or longitudinal when the researcher accesses the phenomenon over two or more periods (Barker et al., 2015). I used the cross-sectional approach, as I collected the data over a short period.

The descriptive design was not useful for this study as this method focuses on describing the variables, not examining the relationship between them (Gray et al., 2016). An experimental, or true-experimental, study tests the effects that the manipulation of an independent variable has on the dependent variable to determine if there is a relationship (Mackey and Gass, 2016). The goal of this study was to examine the relationship, but not by changing or manipulating the variables. Gray, Grove, and Sutherland (2016) described the quasi-experimental method as being less effective than the experimental design because of its lack of controls due to the need to manipulate the setting and the independent variables.

Population and Sampling

The population for this study included non-managerial employees who work or have worked in a call center environment in any area in the United States primarily servicing the needs of external customers. The participants must be at least 18 years of age to be eligible to participate in the study. The population can be of any race, gender, or ethnicity, but must be able to read and understand English. For purposes of professional work experience, they had to have at least 2 years of full-time call center experience. In a quantitative correlational study, the sampling used to select participants is random because it allows for an equal selection of individuals (Ingham-Broomfield, 2014). For the individuals with a SurveyMonkey member customer identification number, the sampling method showed the respondents were males and females of different ages, races, genders, and ethnicities.

Sampling methods in literature are either probabilistic or non-probabilistic. The different classifications of probabilistic sampling used in quantitative studies are (a) simple random sampling (b) stratified random sampling, and (c) cluster sampling and the non-probabilistic methods are (a) convenience sampling, (b) quota sampling and (c) purposive sampling (Davies & Hughes, 2014). In this study, I used the purposive sampling. This method is appropriate when the researcher targets a select group of people to participate in the survey, and their feedback represents the thoughts of the entire population (Davies & Hughes, 2014). Purposive sampling, the most common of the three forms of non-probabilistic sampling, also termed as judgmental sampling, because the researcher does not determine the participants' level of involvement until after he or she has identified the purpose of the study (Guest, 2014). With purposive sampling, the non-random approach ensures the feedback from a particular group of people is included in the survey (Robinson, 2014).

Researchers who use probabilistic sampling in their study have the option of including individuals from every area of the population (Kumar & Jayasimman, 2015), which is not useful in this study because participants need to meet specific criteria before moving on to complete the survey. One of the non-probabilistic methods, convenience sampling, is the approach where investigators meet a quota by collecting data from participants on a first-come-first-serve basis (Robinson, 2014). The convenience method is often confused with random sampling because members who are close in proximity are randomly selected to participate in a survey (Robinson, 2014). With convenience sampling, the researcher works with available sources that are willing to participate; however, Guest (2014) indicated that this approach is ineffective unless being used as a last resort. Additionally, Wagner (2014) argued that a study where researchers used convenience sampling to gain participant feedback is not a good representation of the entire population (Wagner, 2014). Quota sampling, another form of non-probabilistic sampling, is a mixture of purposive sampling and stratified sampling; as the researcher defines relevant variables, divides the variables into multiple layers, assigns a quota size to each layer, and searches for participants who meet the demographics established in each layer (Suen & Ary, 2014). Quota sampling, known for its more flexible approach, uses the minimum quotas assigned to the specified criteria as a guide to determine if the sample population was met (Robinson, 2014). In its final step, Suen and Ary (2014) indicated that the quota sampling process is very similar to the purposive sampling approach; however, the use of minimum quota sizes can lead to biased samples because the collected data represents the population even if the quotas were not reached. Therefore, Suen and Ary (2014) acknowledged purposive sampling as the most efficient non-probabilistic approach.

The researcher must select a sample size that is attainable and one that allows a sufficient amount of time to complete all phases of the survey process (Chen, 2016). McNeish and Stapleton (2016) referenced that a larger sample size decreases the chances of researcher bias in literature. However, some biases occur when researchers use low statistical power (Button, Ioannidis, Mokrysz, Nosek, Flint, Robinson, & Munafò, 2013).

The use of low statistical power limits the researcher's ability to discriminate between the null and alternative hypotheses (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007). To detect the significant differences between the independent variables, the statistical power should be at least 80 or 90% (Onifade, 2015). Of the four items needed to conduct a power analysis, the sample size, the significance threshold, the population variance of the effect, and the effect size, the sample size is the only item that is within the researcher's control (Nuzzo, 2016).

One tool used to calculate the statistical power analysis and sample size in the social, behavioral, and biomedical fields is G*Power (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007). With the newer version of the software, G*Power 3, researchers can calculate five types of power analyses; including the *a priori* power analysis, which calculates the sample size when users input the significance level, power level, and the population effect size, as shown in Figure 1 (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2009).

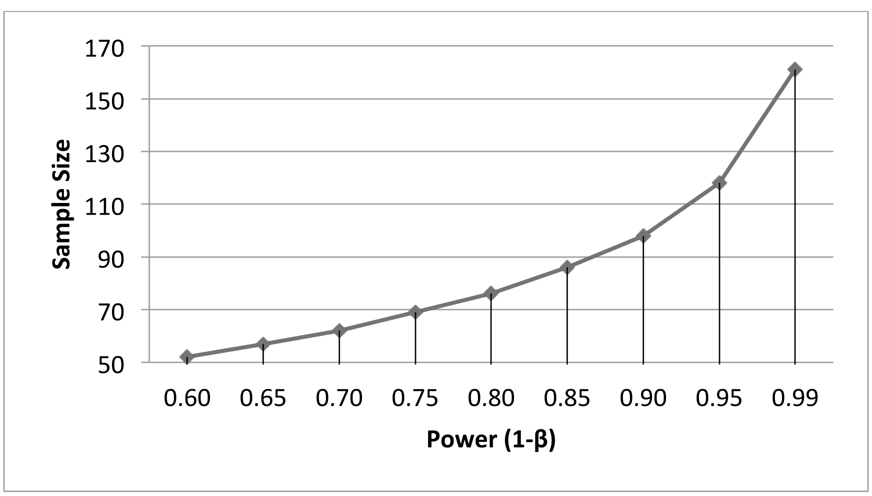

Figure 1. A-priori power analysis for multiple regression. Number of predictors = 3, α error prob = 0.05, and effect size $f^2 = 0.15$.

Use of *a priori* power analysis can lower the risk of two errors, type-I error; rejection of a null hypothesis that should have been accepted, and type-II error; acceptance of a null hypothesis that should have been rejected (Farrokhyar, Reddy, Poolman, Bhandari, 2013). The minimum values accepted in an *a priori* power analysis is 80% power and 0.5% significance levels (Farrokhyar et al., 2013). As Figure 1 illustrates, achieving an 80% power level with a medium effect size of (f = 0.15) and a probability level of 0.05, produced a minimum sample size of 76 (Soper, 2017).

Ethical Research

The researcher developed, for the study, an informed consent process, and Hallinan, Forrest, Uhlenbrauck, Young, and McKinney, (2016) referenced that the process includes the following (a) some form of personal interaction with the people interested in completing the survey, (b) the informed consent document, and (c) the individual's own decision to participate in the study. Investigators that look to achieve high ethical standards must ensure that each prospective participant provides informed consent before the study starts (Lentz, Kennett, Perlmutter, & Forrest, 2016). To meet this standard, I added a post on my Facebook and LinkedIn pages that included the name and purpose of the study, a link to access the survey, and a disclaimer that all interested parties must review The Individual Participant Consent Form before completing the survey. The consent form disclosed that participation in the survey was voluntary, the feedback received was confidential, the participant had the right to withdraw from the study at any time, and that completion of the survey served as the participant's agreement to the terms and conditions described in the consent form. The researcher should continue to address misconceptions and remind the member that participation is voluntary even after he or she has reviewed the conditions of the informed consent form (Lentz et al., 2016).

The researcher has developed, for the study, procedures, and processes to ensure the ethical protection of participants, as stated in the National Research Act of 1974, which protects the rights of human subjects involved in Biomedical and Behavioral Research projects (Mackey & Gass, 2016). The parties that agreed to participate had the right to withdraw at any time before, during, of after completing the survey or they had the option to request their completed survey be removed. The latter option required the participant to send an email, as listed in the Individual Participant Consent Form, to my Walden email address and provide their computer IP address or SurveyMonkey's member customer identification number that the system recorded when they completed the survey. As an added control, the participant had the option to discuss his or her rights with a third-party representative from Walden University, as indicated in the Individual Participant Consent Form. The form also included a disclosure statement that the participant did not receive any form of payment, monetary or non-monetary, for their participation in the study. The data will remain in a SurveyMonkey file, protected by username and password, for 5 years, as required by Walden University. Walden University's Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval number for this study is 03-28-17-00044895, and it expires on March 27, 2018. The IRB ensures the investigator met the federal compliance and ethics standards while protecting the rights of their participants (Mackey & Gass, 2016). To satisfy this requirement, I will select the default setting in SurveyMonkey to capture the participant's computer IP address or member's customer number and not their name or email address.

Data Collection Instruments

Affective Commitment Scale

In this study, the instrument used to measure the affective commitment of participants, which is the attitude and emotional attachment of employees in organizations, was the affective commitment scale, developed in 1984 by Allen and Meyer (1990) as a one-dimensional construct. Subsequently, Meyer and Allen (1991) added two new scales, continuance, and normative commitment, and formed a multi-dimensional construct known as Meyer and Allen's three-component model of commitment. Meyer et al. (1993) later tested the multi-dimensional model and refined the scale. The revised scale was the guide for this study (see Appendix B). Dr. Meyer granted permission to use Meyer, Allen, and Smith's (1993) revised three-component model of commitment in this study by providing access to the Academic License (see Appendix A).

The first affective commitment scale, developed by Allen and Meyer (1990), contained eight items that addressed organizational commitment. Later, Meyer and Allen (1993) removed two items from the affective component of the scale and reduced it to six items. The change to the scale was due to Allen and Meyer's (1996) identification of the high correlation between the affective commitment scale and organizational commitment questionnaire. The revised survey includes a 7-point Likert scale with responses that range from strongly agree (= 7) to strongly disagree (= 1) (Meyer et al., 1993). The

Likert scale is a type of ordinal scale or psychometric scoring system that allows researchers to turn survey responses into quantifiable data (Bishop & Herron, 2015). The primary uses of the affective commitment scale are to assess an individual's psychological commitment to an organization (Keiningham, Frennea, Aksoy, Buoye, & Mittal, 2015), and to predict turnover and turnover intention (Zatzick, Deery, & Iverson, 2015). These reasons justify the use of this scale in this study, as I am examining the relationship between affective commitment and turnover intentions.

In this study, I administered an online version of the affective commitment scale to increase the chances of reaching more individuals across the United States. According to Evans and Mathur (2005), online surveys are best when the targeted population is in a large geographical area and interviews are not required. The revised version of the affective commitment scale, modified by Meyer et al. (1993), was included in the survey (see Appendix B). The results of the study will be stored for 5 years and available upon request. When analyzing the results of the survey, a high affective commitment score indicates that the participant has a strong emotional tie to an organization and a lower score indicates there is a lack of emotional ties to a company (Keiningham et al., 2015). A high score also means that employees opt to stay with companies because they want to (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Other scholars elected to use the affective commitment scale in their studies to measure the emotional attachment of workers across different organizations. Khan (2015), who surveyed 436 Bangladesh bank employees, found through purposive sampling, opted to use the affective commitment scale to assess the relationship between affective commitment and job performance. Yamao and Sekiguchi (2015) used the affective commitment scale to examine the effects that promoting the learning of a new language would have on the affective commitment of 693 Japanese employees across multiple industries. Yamao and Sekiguchi (2015) elected the online survey option for this study, as it allowed them to set specific parameters around the age and sex of participants to ensure they matched the criteria and to increase the chances of reaching more respondents across multiple industries. Lastly, Choi, Tran, and Park (2015) used the affective commitment scale to survey 246 Vietnamese employees across six different industries to determine the mediating role that affective commitment has on inclusive leadership and work engagement.

Riad, Labib, and Nawar (2016) tested the reliability of the affective commitment scale using the Cronbach's Alpha, and the reliability score was 0.867, which was above the set value of 0.6, so the collected data was high in consistency and used to test the hypotheses of the study. In Ho and Lin's (2016) analysis of the affective commitment scale, they used the strategies of convergent validity, discriminant validity, composite validity, and average variance to support the utilization of the model in their study. The affective commitment scale received a construct reliability of 0.930, which indicated high internal consistency because it was greater than the threshold value of 0.7 (Ho & Lin, 2016). In Unal's (2014) research examining the effects that affective commitment has on person-organization fit and organizational identification, the affective commitment scale had an internal consistency score of 0.94 with an 80% explanatory power.

Continuance Commitment Scale

In this study, the instrument used to measure the continuance commitment of participants, which are the personal sacrifices that individuals potentially lose when leaving a company, was the continuance commitment scale, developed in 1987 by Meyer and Allen as a multi-dimensional construct (McGhee & Ford, 1987). Along with the continuance commitment component, Meyer and Allen added normative commitment and formed the three-component model (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Meyer et al. (1993) later tested the multi-dimensional model and refined the scale. Meyer, Allen, and Smith's (1993) revised three-component model of commitment was the guide for this study (see Appendix B). Dr. Meyer granted permission to use Meyer, Allen, and Smith's (1993) revised three-component model of commitment in this study by providing access to the Academic License (see Appendix A).

The original version of the continuance commitment scale contained eight items; however, after critics questioned the validity and reliability of the scale, Meyer et al. (1993) reduced the scale to six items, which was the guide for this study. The revised scale uses a 7-point Likert scale that ranges from strongly agree (= 7) to strongly disagree (= 1) (Meyer et al., 199). The Likert scale is an ordinal measurement that allows researchers to quantify the data collected from participants (Bishop & Herron, 2015). The continuance commitment scale measures the perceived sacrifices that workers anticipate losing if they leave a company and the lack of employment alternatives available in the market (Panaccio, Vandenberghe, & Ayed, 2014). Assessing an employee's continuance commitment determines if employees feel they need to stay with organizations because the benefits of leaving are not cost-effective (Zopiatis, Constanti, and Theocharous, 2014). Analyzing employee continuance commitment was an important factor in examining the overall relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions. These reasons justified the use of this scale in this study, as I examined the relationship between continuance commitment and turnover intentions.

An online version of the continuance commitment scale was used to reach a larger participant pool across the United States. Evans and Mathur (2005) reported that online surveys are best when potential participants live in multiple areas, and in-person observation is not required. The revised version of the continuance commitment scale, modified by Meyer et al. (1993), was included in the survey (see Appendix B). The results of the study will be stored for 5 years and available upon request. When analyzing the results of the survey, employees with a high continuance commitment believe things such as a degree and skills are not easily transferable to other organizations (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). Therefore, employees with high levels of continuance commitment feel as if they have to stay with a company because of limited options for alternative employment (Tarigan & Ariani, 2015). When an employee feels trapped in an organization, it increases his or her stress level (Ribando & Evans, 2015).

Ribando and Evans (2015) used three of the seven items from the continuance commitment scale in their study to analyze the effects that a recent consolidation at Georgia Regents University would have on the continuance commitment of their faculty members. Lemmon, Westring, Michel, Wilson, and Gilbkowski (2016) selected Meyer, Allen, and Smith's (1993) revised version of the scale to justify if continuance commitment mediated the relationship between the work-family conflict and life satisfaction of 194 white-collar workers in a food manufacturing and distribution firm. Lemmon's et al. Cronbach alpha score of the continuance commitment scale was 0.81, and the authors addressed discriminant validity by assessing the model's comparative and incremental fit. Lastly, Garland et al. (2014) used four items from Allen and Meyer's (1990) continuance commitment scale (1990) to assess the relationship between continuance organizational commitment and the burnout of 160 staff members in a private correctional facility. Garland et al. referenced the results indicated convergent validity between the affective and continuance commitment scales by loading the items on different factors, and they determined the continuance commitment scale had a Cronbach alpha score of 0.77. In Schmitt's (1996) study, he indicated a Cronbach score above 0.70 was an indication that an instrument has a high internal reliability.

Normative Commitment Scale

In this study, the instrument used to measure the normative commitment of participants, which is an employee's moral obligation to remain with a company, was the normative commitment scale, developed in 1987 by Meyer and Allen as a multi-dimensional construct (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Along with the normative commitment component, Meyer and Allen added continuance commitment and formed the three-component model (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Meyer et al. (1993) later refined the scales after testing the multi-dimensional model. Meyer, Allen, and Smith's (1993) revised three-component model of commitment was the guide for this study (see Appendix B). Dr. Meyer granted permission to use Meyer, Allen, and Smith's (1993) three-component model of commitment in this study by providing access to the Academic License (see Appendix A).

The original scale contained eight items; however, Meyer et al. (1993) later removed two items and then shortened the scale again to only include five questions (Meyer and Allen, 1997). Of the three components, the authors added the normative commitment scale last, and the change was due to concerns about the validity of the scale (Meyer et al., 1993). The revised version uses a 7-point Likert scale that ranges from strongly agree (= 7) to strongly disagree (= 1) (Meyer et al., 1993). The Likert scale is an ordinal measurement that allows researchers to quantify the data collected from participants (Bishop & Herron, 2015). The normative commitment scale assesses an individual's perception about feeling obligated to remain with a company (Schoemmel, Jønsson, & Jeppesen, (2015). Three of the items on the normative commitment scale measure an employee's commitment to an organization and the other three items measure an employee's commitment to the role (McInerney, Ganotice, King, Marsh, & Morin, (2015). In McInerney's et al. study exploring the relationship between teacher commitment and turnover intentions, they determined a higher normative commitment be a predictor of lower turnover intentions. This assessment justifies the use of this scale in this study as I am examining the relationship between normative commitment and turnover intentions.

The items from the normative commitment scale was added to an online survey to reach a larger pool of participants in the United States. According to Evans and Mathur (2005), online surveys are useful when attempting to reach more people in larger geographical areas. The revised version of the normative commitment scale, modified by Meyer et al. (1993), was included in the survey (see Appendix B). The results of the study will be stored for 5 years and available upon request. When analyzing the results of the survey, employees with a high normative commitment feel a sense of duty to remain with organizations because of their personal beliefs and values (Nasiri, 2015). The level of employee normative commitment increases when individuals feel indebted to companies; however, turnover intentions increase when employees with lower levels of normative commitment are not satisfied or feel no sense of obligation to stay with a company (Tarigan & Ariani, 2015).

Since its addition to the three-component model in 1987, scholars have studied the normative commitment scale to test its reliability. In Colletta, Hoffman, Stone, and Bennett’s (2016) study, the authors created an online survey to assess the relationship of the perceived organizational support and organizational commitment of 124 partners and indicated that the normative commitment scale’s Cronbach’s alpha score of 0.72 justified its high internal consistency. Conversely, Huang (2016) listed the reliability score for the normative commitment scale as 0.527; but provided an overall reliability score of 0.89 for Meyer, Allen, and Smith’s (1993) revised three-component model, which includes affective and continuance commitment. Lastly, Dinc and Nurovic (2016) measured the construct validity of the normative commitment scale and found a reliability score of 0.79

in their study examining the impact that ethical leadership had on the employee attitudes of 158 manufacturing employees. The results of the study, conducted by Dinc and Nurovic (2016), supported that normative commitment relates positively to employees' job satisfaction and their desire to remain with companies.

Turnover Intention Scale

In this study, the instrument that was used to measure the turnover intentions of individuals, which is an employee's desire to leave a company, was the turnover intention scale. In 2004, Roodt developed the turnover intention scale in an unpublished document and Jacobs and Roodt (2008) later published the instrument in their literature. In Jacob and Roodt's (2008) study, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient of the survey was 0.913, which was a high and acceptable reliability rating. Martin and Roodt (2008) also reported a high-reliability rating of 0.93 in their research. In analyzing the results of the data, a higher score is an indication of increased chances of turnover intentions (Taboli, 2015).

The original version of the turnover intention scale, developed by Roodt (2004), contained 14 items and used a 5-point Likert scale for measurement (Martin & Roodt, 2008). However, Jacobs and Roodt (2008), in their study predicting the turnover intentions of professional nurses, listed an updated version of the turnover intention scale that included 15 items on a 5-point Likert scale. Bothma and Roodt (2013) later published a shortened version of the scale, known as TIS-6, which included six items from the 15-item scale (Bothma & Roodt, 2013). The six-item version was the guide for this study (see Appendix D). Professor Roodt provided his approval to use the turnover intention scale (TIS-6) in the online survey.

Data Collection Technique

In the study, I administered an online survey through SurveyMonkey. The online software, SurveyMonkey, is a third-party source that conducts surveys for the purpose of data collection (Gligor, Holcomb, & Stank, 2013). The use of the online software increased the chances of reaching a larger participant pool. According to Evans and Mathur (2005), online surveys are best when the targeted population is in a large geographical area, and face-to-face interviews are not required. Schoenherr, Ellram, and Tate (2015) referenced an advantage of online surveys as researchers can add upfront prescreening questions to determine if people are eligible to participate, which increases the number of usable surveys. Wang, Rothschild, Goel, and Gelman (2015) indicated that it is more cost effective and convenient to collect data online; however, the use of this method decreases the chances of finding meaningful responses. Another disadvantage of online surveys is there is no way to guarantee if the participant read the questions or understands them or if he or she is even interested in the study (Schoeherr, Ellram & Tate (2015). To encourage interest and ensure all parties understood the reason for the survey, I required each participant complete an eligibility questionnaire and provided details about the study before the individual accessed the survey. I did not perform a pilot study after receiving IRB approval.

Data Analysis

The underlying research question for the study was, "What is the relationship between employees' affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment to their companies and their turnover intentions?" The null hypothesis for the study was, "there is no significant relationship between employees' affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment to their companies and their turnover intentions." The alternative hypothesis for the study was, "there is a significant relationship between employees' commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment to their companies and their turnover intentions."

I justified and tested the above hypotheses by conducting a multiple linear regression analysis in the Statistical Packages for Social Sciences software, commonly referred to as SPSS. The multiple linear regression model is most appropriate when the researcher is analyzing a relationship that multiple independent variables have with a dependent variable (Higgins, 2006), which applies to the focus of this study. A simple linear regression model is not appropriate, as the investigator makes predictions about the relationship between one independent variable and one dependent variable (Higgins, 2006). Researchers use the Analysis of Variance method, also known as ANOVA when comparing independent groups that vary in different ways (Sullivan, 2016). However, the ANOVA method did not align with the focus of this study. When analyzing the data, I addressed the assumptions of multiple linear regression. The assumptions are (a) multicollinearity, (b) outliers, (c) linearity, (d) homoscedasticity, and (e) normality (Frempong, Aboagye, & Duncan, 2016).

The purpose of ordinal scales, such as the Likert scale instruments used in this study, are for order ranking and they work best when the levels are balanced, which indicates there is an even number of items on both sides of the mean values on the scale (Bishop & Herron, 2015). When using surveys for data collection, participants opt to skip questions or leave them blank if they feel the question does not apply. Wu, Jia, and Enders (2015) recommended replacing missing data with plausible information using one of three forms (a) assume data is usually distributed and apply reasonable standards before inputting the data, (b) use a model applicable for categorical data to determine what to input, or (c) use a latent variable model to input data. To avoid the need to replace missing data fields, I required that each question receives an answer before the participant completed the survey.

Study Validity

In this study, I addressed the potential threats to statistical conclusion validity, as they related to a non-experimental study. Garcia-Perez (2012) referenced that out of the four types of validity; statistical conclusion validity, internal validity, construct validity, and external validity, threats to internal validity do not exist in non-experimental research projects. Barker, Linsley, and Kane (2016) described statistical conclusion validity as the understanding that the investigator used fair and appropriate statistical tools to analyze the data while conducting a research study. Garcia-Perez (2012) identified the three standard statistical conclusion validity threats as (a) stopping rules for data collection without the control of Type-1 error rates, (b) preliminary test of assumptions, and (c) regression as a means to investigate bivariate relations of all types, and indicated that these threats occur when the analysis of data is not a thorough and detailed process. The tools to analyze the data in this study were the affective commitment scale, continuance commitment scale, normative commitment scale, and the Turnover Intention Scale. The reliability score for each instrument is (a) 0.930 for the affective commitment scale (Ho & Lin, 2016), (b) 0.72 for the continuance commitment scale (Colletta, Hoffman, Stone, & Bennett, 2016), (c) 0.85 for the normative commitment scale (Mishra et al., 2015), and (d) 0.80 for the turnover intention scale (Mxenge et al., 2014). A reliability score can range anywhere from 0.00 to 1.00, and a higher score represents a higher level of reliability (Kimerlin & Winterstein, 2008). For higher reliability, the researcher must confirm if the assumptions of the statistical test are met before drawing any conclusions or sharing the results (Osborne & Waters, 2002). Osborne and Waters (2002) referenced the assumptions for the multiple regression tests as linearity, a reliability of measurement, homoscedasticity, and normality. To increase the study's validity, I addressed all the assumptions before presenting the results.

Transition and Summary

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between employees' affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment to their organizations and their turnover intentions. In section 2, I discussed the role that the researcher played in the data collection process, the participant criteria, the research design and methods used in the study, the targeted population and the chosen sampling method, the ethical techniques applied in the study, and the reliability and validity of the four instruments referenced in the study. In Section 3, I present the findings of the study, implications for social change, and any recommendations for action.

Section 3: Application for Professional Practice and Implications for Change

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between employees' affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment to their organizations and their turnover intentions. The independent variables were employee organizational affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. The dependent variable was employee turnover intentions. After analyzing the data, I rejected the null hypothesis and accepted the alternative hypothesis. There was enough evidence to suggest that employees' affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment to their companies predicted their turnover intentions because the significance level fell below 5%.

In this section, I present the findings of the study. My presentation includes a detailed review of the statistical tests I performed in SPSS as well as descriptive statistics, a test of the assumptions related to multiple regression, and the results of an inferential statistical analysis. Also, I include subsections on the applicability of my research to professional practice, implications for social change, recommendation for actions, and recommendations for further research. I end with a reflection of my experience and a conclusion statement.

Presentation of the Findings

While I rejected the null hypothesis, the significance values for affective and continuance commitment were not statistically significant. To analyze the data, I conducted a multiple linear regression test in SPSS. The use of multiple regression tests helps to predict the relationship of one variable to several others (Cronk, 2016). The linear regression table in SPSS included the dependent variable of turnover intentions and the independent variables of affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitments. The statistical tests used to test the hypotheses were the (a) model summary, (b) confidence intervals, (c) descriptive statistics, and (d) part and partial correlations tables. A researcher uses a confidence interval test to identify that a null hypothesis is true or false, and descriptive statistics to evaluate the association between variables and the degree the independent variables explain the dependent variable (Schroeder, Sjoquist, & Stephan, 2017).

Descriptive Results

The survey was open to participants between March 29 to April 17, 2017, and the data collection process included the use of two links, one for Facebook and LinkedIn sites and one for a targeted audience in SurveyMonkey. In reviewing the results of the pre-eligibility questionnaire, there were 118 participants who did not advance to the survey. From this group, 47 individuals accessed the survey from the FaceBook or LinkedIn post, and the remaining 71 individuals were part of the target audience in SurveyMonkey. These participants opted to not to complete the questions or did not have the customer service experience needed to move forward in the process. I removed the ineligible participant information from the data set, which left a total of 81 surveys to analyze.

I exported the data from SurveyMonkey into an Excel spreadsheet and used conditional formatting to identify duplicate IP addresses and SurveyMonkey member customer identification numbers. There were two duplicate sets found, and I removed one because the participant completed two surveys with different answers. With the other duplicate, I removed the incomplete survey from the list and left the completed survey in the data set. I then removed the remaining incomplete surveys and labeled the list of the remaining 81 surveys as eligible for the data analysis phase.

In Table 2, the mean and standard deviation for each of the variables show whether more participants selected responses that were on the higher or lower end of the Likert scale. The middle score of the 7-point Likert scale, which was used to measure the three independent variables, was 3.5, and all three forms of commitment had mean scores above that figure, so more participant responses were on the satisfactory end of the scale. The mean range of the 5-point Likert scale, which was used to measure the dependent variable of turnover intentions, was 2.5, and the mean score for turnover intentions was higher, so there were more participant responses on the satisfactory end as well.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics for Study Variables

	M	*SD*
TotTI	19.51	3.808
TotAC	22.85	4.353
TotCC	26.52	7.457
TotNC	21.14	6.756

Note. $N = 81$.

After importing the Excel file into SPSS, I changed the measure to ordinal for each of the independent and dependent variables and updated the types to show as numeric values. I changed the decimals to zero and added the values from the five and seven-point Likert scales for each of the 24 items included in the online survey. Lastly, I computed the target variable of each of the independent and dependent variables by adding the sum of the six items into a total. The label in the SPSS is TotAC for the sum of the values of affective commitment, TotCC for the sum of the values for continuance commitment, TotNC for the sum of the values for normative commitment, and TotTI for the sum of the values for turnover intentions. Table 2 depicts the descriptive statistics for each of the variables of the study.

Tests of Assumptions

Evaluating study assumptions helped me to determine if there was a need to make changes to the original data set. Before drawing a conclusion, it is a necessary to ensure the assumptions of multiple linear regression, which are (a) multicollinearity, (b) outliers, (c) linearity, (d) homoscedasticity, and (e) normality, were met (Frempong et al., 2016). For validity purposes, I used SPSS to test and evaluate each assumption.

Multicollinearity. When evaluating the collinearity statistics, a tolerance value below 1.0 or a variance inflation factor (VIF) value below 2.0 indicates there is no concern for multicollinearity. As shown in Table 3, all values are below the recommended amounts. According to Haans (2007), a VIF value that is below 3.0 and does not exceed a value of 6.9 indicates that collinearity is not present.

Table 3

Collinearity Statistics

	Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
TotAC	.949	1.054
TotCC	.856	1.168
TotNC	.899	1.112

Note. VIF = Variance inflation factor.

A significant correlation between the independent variables increases the chances of insignificant values showing as significant and indicate that multicollinearity exists (Hotchkiss, Smith, & Strömberg, 2012).

Outliers, normality, and linearity. In checking linearity and normality, I did not identify any violations of normality or linearity because the plots were approximately linear and fell within a random scatter inside the -3.0 and 3.0 ranges on the x and y-axis.

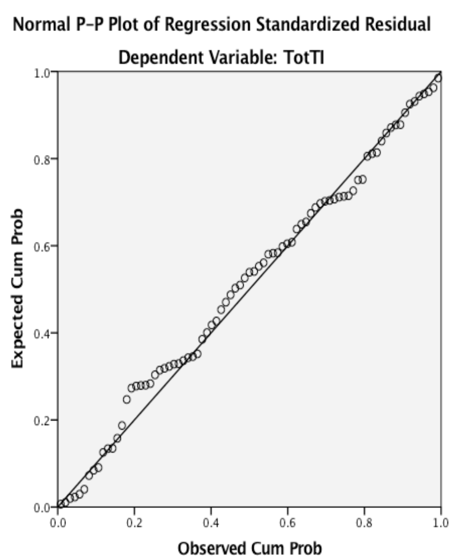

Figure 2. Normal probability plot for turnover intentions.

Chatterjee and Hadi (2012) stated that when checking for the assumption of normality and linearity, the plots should appear to be in a straight line and should not show a correlation but resemble a random scatter, as shown in Figures 2 and 3. Lastly, I did not remove outliers from the original data set because the minimum and maximum values for Cook's Distance fell below 1.0.

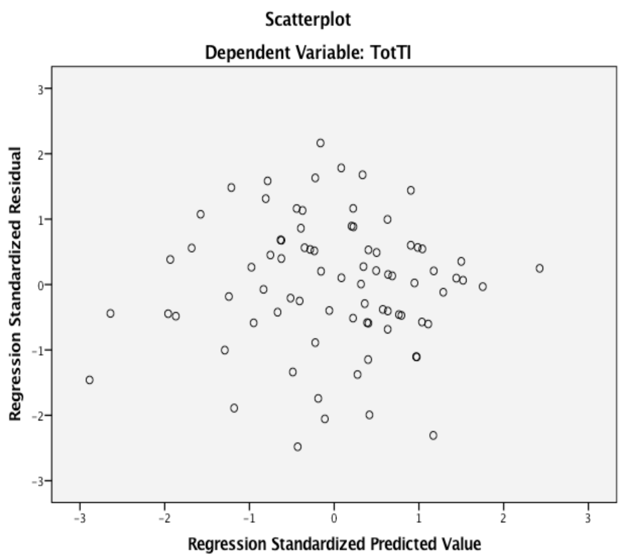

Figure 3. Residual scatterplot for turnover intentions

In Table 4, the results of the Shapiro-Wilk test for normality of the dependent variable, turnover intentions, indicate a significance value of 0.036. This significance value is less than the p-value of 0.05. Ghasemi & Zahediasl (2012) referenced a p-value that is less than .005 represents data that is not normally distributed.

Homoscedasticity. In evaluating the scatterplot, in Figure 4, the plots appear to be similar on both sides of the line, so the data exhibits homoscedasticity. McDonald (2014) refers to homoscedasticity when there is the same deviation across all data

Table 4

Tests of Normality

	Shapiro-Wilk Test		
	Statistic	df	Sig.
Total TI	.967	81	.036

Note. df = degrees of freedom

groups in a regression test. To confirm homoscedasticity in the study, I added a line of best fit to the scatterplot to divide the data into equal parts.

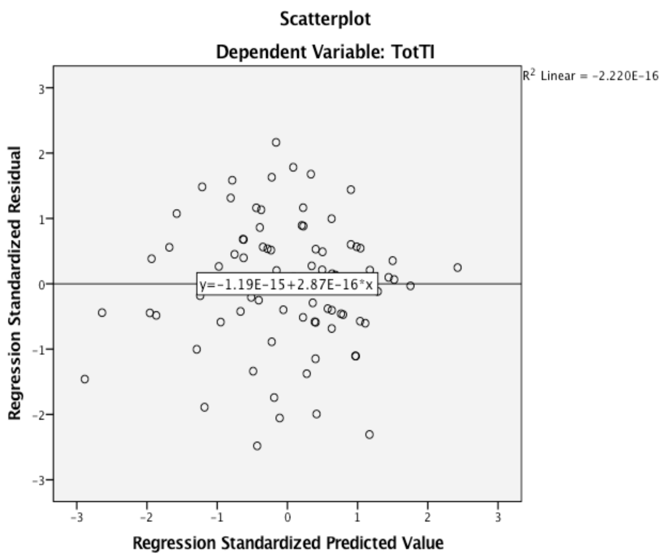

Figure 4. Residual scatterplot for homoscedasticity

Inferential Results

A Pearson's correlation coefficient, r, analysis, $\alpha = .05$ (one-tailed), was used to examine the relationship between the three independent variables, affective, continuance, and normative commitment, and the dependent variable of turnover intentions. The null hypothesis was that there was no significant relationship between employees' affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment to their companies and their turnover intentions. The alternative hypothesis was that there was a significant relationship between employees' affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment and their companies and their turnover intentions. When reviewing statistical data, a "P" value that is less than 0.05 indicates a study is significantly significant (Ranganathan, Pramesh, & Buyse, 2015). The significance values, listed in Table 5, show a significant relationship between normative commitment and turnover intentions. However, the significance value for affective and continuance commitment is not statistically significant because the value is higher than the p-value of 0.05.

Table 5

Pearson's R Data Analysis

	Total TI	
	R	Sig. (1-tailed)
Total AC	.114	.156
Total CC	.094	.203
Total NC	-.324	.002

Note. Dependent Variable: Turnover Intentions; R =correlation coefficient

A Pearson's r data analysis reveals, as referenced in Table 5, a moderate negative relationship ($r = -.324$) between normative commitment and turnover intentions, a weak positive relationship ($r = .114$) between affective commitment and turnover intentions, and a weak positive relationship ($r = .094$) between continuance commitment and turnover intentions. After a preliminary analysis had confirmed no assumptions violations were found, I concluded that employees with low normative commitment reported increased turnover intentions and the employees with high affective and continuance commitment reported increased turnover intentions as well. The findings of this study differed from Solinger's et al. (2008) assessment that continuance and normative commitment assessed turnover intentions and affective commitment did not. As a whole, the model summary, is statistically significant and able to predict turnover intentions, $F(3, 77) = 4.621$, $p < .005$, $R^2 = .153$.

Application to Professional Practice

The findings from this study are relevant to improved business practice because it provides leaders with information to assess the relationship between three forms of organizational commitment and turnover intentions. The data can equip leaders with the knowledge and data to improve employee commitment within their organization, which can increase company performance by decreasing turnover. In the following subsections, I detail the findings for each component of organizational commitment and its relationship with turnover intentions and how they apply to the professional practice of the customer service industry. The major subsection includes academic arguments that explain why and how these findings are relevant to improve business practice.

Affective Commitment

The assessment of affective commitment would suggest that many of the participants have some form of emotional attachment to the organization because the mean score is higher than the middle range of the scale, which is 3.5. The total affective commitment score included six questions, so the middle range for all the questions was 21.00 (6 * 3.5). Of the 81 responses received for the six affective commitment questions measured on a 7-point Likert scale, the mean score was ($M = 22.85$, $SD = 4.353$), which indicates that there were slightly more responses from the higher end of the scale, which indicated more favorable responses.

Continuance Commitment

The assessment of continuance commitment would suggest that many of the participants felt that staying with the organization was more of a necessity than a want. The total continuance commitment score included six questions, so the middle range for all the questions was 21.00 (6 * 3.5). Of the 81 responses received for the six continuance commitment questions measured on a 7-point Likert scale, the mean score was (M = 26.52, SD = 7.457), which indicated that there was a higher number of responses on the agreeable, more satisfied end of the scale.

Normative Commitment

The assessment of normative commitment suggests that many of the participants did not feel a sense of loyalty or obligation to remain with the organization. The total normative commitment score included six questions, so the middle range for all the questions was 21.00 (6 * 3.5). Of the 81 responses received for the six normative commitment questions measured on a 7-point Likert scale, the mean score was (M = 21.14, SD = 6.756), which indicated a slightly higher number of participants had unsatisfactory responses to more questions.

Turnover Intentions

The assessment of turnover intentions suggests that many of the participants did not feel committed to staying with the organization. The total normative commitment score included six questions, so the middle range for all the questions was 15.00 (6 * 2.5).

Of the 81 responses received for the six turnover intentions questions measured on a 5-point Likert scale, the mean score was (M = 19.51, SD = 3.808), which indicates there was a higher number of responses on the more satisfied end of the scale.

Implications for Social Change

The implications for social change, including tangible improvements to individuals, are the potential to decrease stress and anxiety levels of call center employees who work in live in communities across the United States. Sonnentag and Fritz (2015) emphasized the important role that decreasing stress levels have on individuals' long-term mental, physical, and emotional heath. With an expected 5% annual increase in call center turnover (Mulvaney, 2014), another implication is the potential to decrease turnover in companies. The reduction of turnover can decrease costs because leaders will not have a need to hire and replace employees who leave the company.

Recommendations for Action

A recommendation that flows logically from the findings of my study is that company leaders should evaluate the weak relationship between affective and continuance commitment and turnover intentions, as both forms of commitment impact job satisfaction and company performance. The findings were consistent with other studies that assessed the relationship between employees' affective, continuance, and normative commitment and turnover intentions. After my examination of the data, I found a positive relationship between affective commitment and continuance commitment and turnover intentions, and an inverse relationship between normative commitment and turnover intentions. However, the positive relationships were weak, and the inverse relationship was moderate. While normative commitment is statistically significant, it focuses on an employee's feeling of obligation to remain with a company, not his or her emotional attachment.

Call center leaders, human resources business professionals, and business scholars should pay attention to the results of this study because the findings could help with the retention of employees or be used to build on the existing body of knowledge. Call center leaders may use this study to reduce the stress level of employees and understand the relationship between employee organizational commitment and turnover intentions. Mowday et al. (1979) referenced that committed employees outperform others because they remain focused on doing what is best for the organization. Human Resources business professionals can use the findings of the study to identify ways to retain qualified employees and decrease turnover costs. The high level of stress in call centers increased the chances of turnover and decreased job satisfaction (De Ruyter, Wetzels, and Feinberg, 2001). Business scholars may find the details of this study useful for further research and review. The publication and presentation of this study may occur at business workshops where scholars address employees' lack of engagement or organizational commitment. The study will be published in the ProQuest/UMI database.

Recommendations for Further Research

In future studies, I recommend that researchers expand on this body of knowledge by examining the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions of employees across the customer service industry, not just call center employees. By limiting the study to call center employees, researchers cannot suggest that the findings apply to the customer service industry as a whole because some employees work with customers in different environments. The relationship with employees' commitment and their companies may vary when working with customers' face-to-face versus over the telephone. Another recommendation is to examine the feedback of individuals new to call center roles versus individuals who have several years of experience as the feedback may vary. Another limitation is that I required employees to have at least 2 years of call center experience; however, it may help to assess employees who are new to the call center environment. The feedback from these employees may help to determine some of the challenges that leaders' face with assessing organizational commitment in its early stages.

Reflections

At the beginning of this study, I expected a strong relationship between affective commitment and turnover intentions and a weak relationship between continuance and normative commitment and turnover intentions. The results show that normative commitment was the only form of commitment to reveal a moderate relationship with turnover intentions. I learned a lot about the different forms and how they relate to employees' decisions to stay or leave companies. I was excited to collect and analyze the data because it gave me an opportunity to review the thoughts and opinions of other employees across the United States in the customer service industry. While there were more participants who did not qualify to complete the survey than there were individuals who did qualify, I was happy with the overall participant interest in the subject. There were no outliers found, so I did not make any changes to the original data set.

In posting the link on my personal Facebook and LinkedIn pages, I encouraged people whom I know to complete the survey. However, I could not identify my relationship to these individuals because the results were confidential and the system logged their computer IP address or customer member number, not their name or email address. The use of this method helped me to focus on the data and not the individual that provided it. My preconceived idea was that participants would provide honest feedback because the survey results were confidential.

Conclusion

Previous researchers examined the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions (Wong & Laschinger, 2015; Yousaf et al., 2015; Yusoff et al., 2015). However, most of the studies that I reviewed focused on other industries or call centers located in other countries. Examining the relationship between the organizational commitment and turnover intentions of call center employees in the United States was important because external customers are an important part of the success of any organization. Employee tenure in call centers is roughly 18 months, and the turnover rate is 67% (Wallace, Eagleson, & Waldersee, 2000). The loss of an employee may create issues if customers have built relationships with them or rely on them for assistance. This study was to examine the employees' thoughts and feelings about remaining with companies from an organizational commitment perspective. The overall results of the study, while positive and significantly significant, are weak and show a need for attention and improvement in this area.

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Appendix A: Permission to Use Meyer, Allen, and Smith's Revised Three Component Model of Commitment

Product Download

Welcome to the InnoVerify™ product download page. You may download your product by clicking on the link below.

Academic License (The Academic Package includes the survey, instructions for using, scoring, and interpreting the survey results as well as additional sources for more information about the commitment scales and employee commitment. The license provides proper permission notice for use of the scales for academic purposes.)

TCM-Employee-Commitment-Survey-Academic-Package-2004 2.pdf

TCM Employee Commitment Survey

Academic Users Guide 2004

John P. Meyer and Natalie J. Allen

Department of Psychology

The University of Western Ontario

Appendix B: Meyer, Allen, and Smith's Revised Three-Component Model of Commitment

Listed below is a series of statements that represent feelings that individuals might have about the company or organization for which they work. With respect to your own feelings about the particular organization for which you are now working, please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling a number from 1 to 7 using the scale below.

1 = strongly disagree
2 = disagree
3 = slightly disagree
4= undecided
5 = slightly agree
6 = agree
7 = strongly agree

Revised Version

<u>Affective Commitment Scale</u>

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
3. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization.
4. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization.
5. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization.
6. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.

<u>Continuance Commitment Scale</u>

1. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
2. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.

3. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.

4. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.

5. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.

6. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.

Normative Commitment Scale

1. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer.

2. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.

3. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.

4. This organization deserves my loyalty.

5. I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.

6. I owe a great deal to my organization.

Appendix C: Permission to Use Roodt's Turnover Intention Scale (TIS-6)

Date: Monday, December 5, 2016
Subject: Turnover Intention Scale Consent Form

Dear Andrea

You are welcome to use the TIS!

For this purpose please find attached the longer 15-item version of the scale. The six items used for the TIS-6 are high-lighted. You may use any one of these two versions. Please note that some item numbers are followed by an 'R'. These items' scores should be reflected or reverse scored. The total score can be calculated by merely adding the individual item scores. I would strongly recommend that you also conduct a CFA on the item scores to determine which item scores should be reflected.

The only conditions for using the TIS is that you acknowledge authorship (Roodt, 2004) by conventional academic referencing. The TIS may not be used for commercial purposes. You may use this e-mail as your permission letter.

I wish you the very best with your research project!

Best regards

Prof Gert Roodt

Contribution/value-add: The TIS-6 can be used as a reliable and valid scale to assess turnover intentions and can therefore be used in research to validly and reliably assess turnover intentions or to predict actual turnover.

Appendix D: Roodt's Turnover Intention Scale (TIS-6)

TURNOVER INTENTION SCALE (TIS)

The following section aims to ascertain the extent to which you intend to stay at the organisation.
Please read each question and indicate your response using the scale provided for each question:

DURING THE PAST 9 MONTHS…..

1	How often have you considered leaving your job?	**Never**	1-------2-------3-------4-------5	**Always**
2R	To what extent is your current job satisfying your personal needs?	**To no extent**	1-------2-------3-------4-------5	**To a very large extent**
3	How often are you frustrated when not given the opportunity at work to achieve your personal work-related goals?	**Never**	1-------2-------3-------4-------5	**Always**
4	How often do you dream about getting another job that will better suit your personal needs?	**Never**	1-------2-------3-------4-------5	**Always**

5	How likely are you to accept another job at the same compensation level should it be offered to you?	**Highly unlikely**	1-------2-------3-------4-------5	**Highly likely**
6	How often do you look forward to another day at work?	**Never**	1-------2-------3-------4-------5	**Always**