DISSERTATION

THE EFFECTS OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT PLANNING ON EMPLOYEE AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT TO THE ORGANIZATION

Submitted by

Lindsay Spritzer

School of Education

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Doctoral Committee:

Advisor: Thomas Chermack

Sue Lynham
James Folkstad
Alyssa Gibbons

ABSTRACT

THE EFFECTS OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT PLANNING ON EMPLOYEE AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT TO THE ORGANIZATION

The importance of employee commitment to an organization is well documented in literature, however, there is a gap in literature of how to increase affective engagement if an employee is not affectively engaged. This study worked with a United States oil and gas company to explore if career development planning would be affective in increasing affective engagement through a quasi-experimental study. The study found that career development planning was beneficial in increasing affective engagement for already affectively engaged employees and for employees who are staying with an organization out of a feeling of obligation as measured by the three-component model (TCM) survey instrument. The results did not appear to be effective for employees who are continuously engaged as measured by the three-component model or for overall commitment as measured by the organizational commitment questionnaire (OCM).

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

In the midst of a global pandemic, many organizations are experiencing unprecedented turnover in the United States in what is being referred to as "the great resignation" (Cook, 2021). The U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that in July 2021 that there is an increased high number of job openings of 10.9 million and the number of people quitting their jobs averaging approximately 3.7 million per month (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2021). This presents a unique problem for many organizations on how to attract and retain talent. However, this problem is not unique to or caused by the pandemic. In 2016, the Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM) published a study that utilized a randomly chosen sample of 600 of U.S. based employees who completed a Job Satisfaction and Engagement Survey in November and December of 2015. The survey found that 45% of those surveyed planned to quit their job within the next year. (Society for Human Resource Management, 2016). In 2017, Gallup published the *State of the American Workplace* report with data from more than 195,600 U.S. employees via the Gallup Panel and the Gallup Daily in 2015 and 2016, and more than 31 million respondents through Gallup's Q12 Database from 2010 to 2016. The report showed that 33% of U.S. employees are engaged in their job and 51% are actively looking for a new job or watching for openings (Gallup, 2017). The significance of this was discussed by Cummings and Worley in 2008 when they described the war for talent increasing in organizations and the need to change Human Resource practices to attract and retain workers (Cummings & Worley, 2008).

Gallup (2017) estimated that actively disengaged employees cost U.S. organizations between $483 billion to $605 billion each year. This presents an opportunity for organizations to find a way to get employees to want to increase their commitment and grow employees within their own careers in the organization. Ahmed and Shaleen (2011) discussed that the performance

of the organization is attributed to the commitment of the employees. Additionally, Gallup (2017) found that organizations with higher employee commitment have lower: absenteeism, turnover, employee safety incidents, quality incidents. They also experience higher: customer metrics, productivity, sales, and profitability.

Meyer and Allen discussed three different types of commitment: affective, continuance and normative (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Utilizing this definition, Meyer and Allen go on to explain that even with the three elements of commitment, employees will display better attendance, better work-related behavior and more of a willingness to do more than is asked of them (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Affective commitment is experienced when employees have positive emotional ties to the organization and is associated with high job satisfaction. Continuous commitment is experienced when an employee does not leave the organization out of fear of costs associated with leaving and finding a new job. Normative commitment is experienced when an employee is staying with the organization out of obligation or not wanting to break the norm (Jaros, 2007).

The Problem

The aforementioned survey results and scholarly research indicated that committed employees help organizations as they have increased performance, less absenteeism, less turnover, and increased well-being (Eisenberger, et al., 2010; Herrbach, 2006; Kim, Eisenberger, & Baik, 2016; Stazyk, Pandey, & Wright, 2011). However, it is unclear in the studies how to convert uncommitted employees-into committed employees. The Gallup 2017 Report and SHRM 2016 studies offer important insight on what employees are looking for from their organizations. The Gallup (2017) report encouraged managers to shift from performance management to career development. Overall, 86% of employees surveyed by SHRM stated that the organization's

overall commitment to professional development was important or very important and the current level of satisfaction was reported at 59% were very satisfied with their current organization's efforts in this area. 83% stated that career development opportunities are important or very important and the current level of satisfaction was reported at 58% with their current organization's efforts in this area (Society for Human Resource Management, 2016). Focusing on career development planning may be the link to improving employee commitment.

Problem Statement

Organizations are experiencing turnover in a competitive job market and need to find a way to retain employees as well as increase their employees' affective commitment to the organization. Turnover and intent to leave the organization has been an evolving issue, exacerbated by the SARS COVID-19 pandemic (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2021; Cook, 2021). A lack of employee commitment has historically been linked to absenteeism, turnover, and job performance (Gallup, 2017; Herrera & De Las Heras-Rosas, 2021; Meyer and Allen, 1991; Wright & Bonett, 2002). In order to address the growing turnover rates identified by the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2021), many organizations require new and novel methods to increase employee commitment. The United States' workforce is comprised of 111.7 million people over the age of 16 that work 35 hours or more each week (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2018). With the average cost of training per employee reaching $1,273 per year (Association for Talent Development, 2017), organizations are aggregately spending over $140 billion a year on training full-time staff. Turnover increases these costs as the new employees must be brought up to speed.

Employees are vital to an organization's survival; therefore, one key role of a human resource development (HRD) practitioner is to develop the employees within the organization

(Shuck, Nimon, & Zigarmi, 2014). Employee formal learning hours have increased to an average of 34.1 hours per employee per year, and organizations are spending an average of $1,273 per employee on learning per year (Association for Talent Development, 2017). Recent surveys found that some employees want meaningful training that assist in their future development (ASTD, 2011). However, other employees surveyed felt that ineffective or siloed training did not provide value to their career development paths and discouraged them from seeking training (McNamara, 2018). With the information gathered by SHRM (2016) and Gallup (2017), effective career development training may be a better use of an organization's training time and dollars and increase employee commitment.

Significance of the Problem

The SHRM and Gallup studies, with sample population sizes exceeding 196,000 participants, demonstrate how much opportunity for improvement exists for organizations to increase satisfaction amongst employees. The studies reveal an apparent discrepancy between what employees' value and what organizations are providing. Presenting an opportunity to implement these changes could lead to an increase in affective commitment to the organization, reducing the risk of the employee leaving and increasing the probability in improving employee performance.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to a) explore the impact of career development planning on the employee's commitment to the organization of employees in a large natural gas organization in the United States; b) investigate the impact of having a career development plan on the employee's type of commitment to the organization; c) measure affective commitment levels, continuance commitment levels, and normative commitment levels towards the organization.

Affective commitment is experienced when employees have positive emotional ties to the organization and is associated with high job satisfaction. Continuous commitment is experienced when an employee does not leave the organization out of fear of costs associated with leaving and finding a new job. Normative commitment is experienced when an employee is staying with the organization out of obligation or not wanting to break the norm (Jaros, 2007).

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The purpose of this quantitative experimental study was to examine the relationship between career development and organizational commitment among employees working in the customer service department in a-large natural gas organization in the United States. The research questions and subsequent hypotheses are as follows:

RQ1. What is the relationship, if any, between career development planning and an employee's level of affective commitment to an organization as measured by the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) and the Three Component Model (TCM)?

RQ2. What is the relationship, if any, between career development planning and an employee's level of continuous commitment to an organization as measured by the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) and the Three Component Model (TCM)?

RQ3. What is the relationship, if any, between career development planning and an employee's level of normative commitment to an organization as measured by the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) and the Three Component Model (TCM)?

RQ4. What is the relationship, if any, between career development planning and the ability to increase an employee's level of affective commitment to an organization as measured by the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) and the Three Component Model (TCM)?

Significance of the Study

This study was intended to contribute new knowledge to the Human Resource Development (HRD) literature through investigating the causal relationship between career development planning and organizational commitment in the workplace. As shown in the conceptual framework, an employee's commitment to the organization was predicted to be positively impacted by implementing a career development plan. The more that the employee feels that the organization was investing in their training, and development, the more likely the employee was to display commitment toward the organization. If the relationship was found to be significant, then career development planning could answer many of the believed struggles with the job satisfaction and increase retention and engagement in the workplace. Additionally, career development planning could be determined to serve as an important antecedent of organizational commitment. This study provided future researchers with additional theoretical background to conduct further research on the effects of career development planning on organizational commitment. Finally, this study strived to contribute new knowledge to United States oil companies by informing: 1) how to improve affective commitment, and 2) how to convert normative or continuance commitment to affective commitment.

Definition of Key Terms

The key constructs of this study included: (1) career development planning and (2) organizational commitment. Also, the three dimensions of organizational commitment are (a) affective commitment, (b) continuance commitment, and (c) normative commitment. These key terms are defined as follows:

Career Development Planning. While there are many potential views of what career development planning entails, including training, vocational education, and career pathing. For

the purpose of this study, career development planning was a term utilized to describe a process when "employees decide what they want from their career, what is their objective, managers then identify their knowledge, skills and abilities so that they can train them, accordingly, help them to identify short term and long term goals. Organizations provide them time, benefits, and resources according to their requirements, support them for their goals and use knowledge, skills, and abilities of each employee to achieve organizational goals" (Shujaat, Sana, Aftab, & Ahmed, 2013, p. 2). Career development planning was focused on the development of the employee within the organization but be guided by the goals of the employee.

Organizational commitment. The utilization of the term organizational commitment has evolved throughout literature and is often interchanged with organizational commitment, employee engagement, and loyalty. For the purposes of this study, organizational commitment was used to mean "a partisan, affective attachment to the goals and values of the organization, to one's role in relation to goals and values, and to the organization for its own sake, part from its purely instrumental worth" (Buchanan, 1974, p. 533). Organizational commitment was measured prior to the career development planning intervention and after in order to test if the career development planning was effective in increasing affective commitment.

Meyer and Allen (1991) defined three distinct types of employee commitment. First, *affective commitment* refers to an employee's psychological attachment with an organization. Second, *continuance commitment* refers to employees staying with the organization because of the costs associated with leaving. Third, *normative commitment* refers to employees who stay with the organization because they feel obligated to and to maintain the norm.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purpose of this literature review is to provide a comprehensive review, analysis, and synthesis of organizational commitment and career development planning research and key conceptual frameworks. First, a discussion of the data collection method utilized to conduct the analysis of published work on organizational commitment and career development planning. Second, a brief history of career development planning is presented, including a summary of research that has been conducted on the effectiveness of career development planning. Third, a brief history of organizational commitment is presented, including a summary of research that has been conducted on the outcomes of organizational commitment. Finally, there will be a discussion of instruments utilized to measure organizational commitment. This section includes organizational intervention literature where these instruments are applied.

Research Purpose

Employees who are committed to the organization are less likely to exhibit withdrawal behaviors such as intention to leave and absenteeism (American Society for Quality, 2000). Gallup (2017) estimates that actively disengaged employees cost U.S. organizations between $483 billion to $605 billion each year. Additionally, turnover numbers are increasing in what is being called “the great resignation”. The U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that in July 2021 that there is an increased high number of job openings of 10.9 million and the number of people quitting their jobs averaging approximately 3.7 million per month (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2021). On top of that, there is now also “the great retirement” and baby boomers have been retiring with millions leaving the workforce during the COVID-19 pandemic (Hertz, 2022). This presents a unique situation for organizations to understand how to improve commitment and prevent against turnover intensions and absenteeism.

To ground this research inquiry in the appropriate knowledge bases, a literature review and analysis was conducted. The purpose of conducting this review and analysis is two-fold: (1) to review organizational commitment and career development planning domains and critically analyze key research findings specific to interventions that were conducted in the workplace and (2) to critically analyze key conceptual frameworks specific to organizational commitment and career development planning in the workplace.

Research Questions

The following research questions framed the analysis for the literature review: 1) What are the research domains associated with employee commitment? 2) What are the research domains associated with career development planning? 3) What are the key conceptual and theoretical frameworks associated with employee commitment? 4) What are the key conceptual and theoretical frameworks associated with career development planning? 5) Has career development planning been utilized as an intervention to improve employee commitment within the workplace?

Data Collection Method

In this review of existing literature, the constructs of organizational commitment and career development planning were examined separately. A total of 175 articles were determined to be relevant to the two topics and contribute to theoretical constructs. The examination of the articles resulted in common themes as well as outliers. The analysis of these constructs examined and the common themes presented utilize Swanson's (2007) theory framework for applied disciplines (Figure 2.1) as a guideline to determine the core theories.

There is ample literature related to career development planning. In early 2017, Fall of 2021, and early 2022, searches were performed in *Google Scholar* for terms "career development

planning" and "training and development" and yielded 931 results. The search of "organizational commitment" and "affective commitment" yielded 908 results. However, not all of these results fit the definition of key theoretical constructs. According to Swanson and Chermack (2013), "A theory describes a specific realm of knowledge and explains how it works" (p. 14). In order to adequately analyze the existing literature and to limit it to the relevant key theoretical constructs, a data analysis strategy was implemented.

Data Analysis Strategy. The methodology utilized for identifying relevant literature for the related key theoretical constructs followed Callahan's (2014) format. Specifically, the key phrases of "career development planning" AND "training and development" and "organizational commitment" AND "affective commitment" were utilized. Callahan's (2014) structure includes the following components:

> (a) *where* the literature was found (databases and search engines), (b) *when* the search was conducted (database contents change frequently), (c) *who* conducted the search, (d) *how* the literature was found (keyword combinations), (e) *what* number of articles appeared from each combination of keywords and the final count of included articles (data set), and (f) *why* some articles were chosen for inclusion over others. (p. 301; emphasis in original)

Following Callahan's (2014) format, (a) an extensive database search utilizing Google Scholar for keywords "organizational commitment" AND "effective commitment" and "career development planning" AND "training and development" revealed 1,870 articles that were published between January 2010 and March 2022.; (b) the researcher conducted the literature search October 2021 and March of 2022; (c) the researcher was a PhD candidate at Colorado State University; (d) the researcher used the keyword combinations of "organizational

commitment" AND "affective commitment", and "career development planning" AND "training and development" in the two separate searches (e) the results of the literature review are indicated below in Table 2.1; The search was limited to articles published in the English language between January 2010 and March 2022. Abstracts were reviewed to determine if the articles pertained to United States organizations as social psychology can be dependent on culture. Finally, abstracts were reviewed for the key terms. Only articles with the key terms included in the abstract that were applicable to the topic were utilized for full review by the researcher which resulted in 175 final articles for review and inclusion in this chapter. As the research will be taking place in an oil and gas organization, the number of articles found related to oil and gas is also noted in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1

Results by Keyword

Keyword	Initial search results	US Based	Key Word in Abstract	Related to Oil and Gas
"organizational commitment" AND "affective commitment"	908	234	100	0
"career development planning" AND "training and development"	931	102	75	0
Total	1,870	336	175	0

Career Development Planning

Career development planning is defined as a process in which an employee and their manager identify the goals of the employee and associate it to the strategic direction of the organization. By aligning these two items and assessing the employee's current knowledge,

skills, and ability, the manager and employee can develop a gap analysis. Through the gap analysis, short and long-term goals are identified to help the employee develop the identified skills that they need. The manager utilizes this information to inform the long-term organizational plan's succession needs with the timing of the employee's development plan (Sawyer, 2019; Yang & Chan, 2017).

Career Development Planning – Historical Overview

Career planning may have existed throughout recorded history evolving from forms of survival training to forms of crafts training; however, during the Middle Ages the apprenticeship model first became formalized into apprentice, journeyman, and master levels seen today (Swanson & Holton III, 2009). The history of career development planning shows the necessary skill sets a master needs to help an entry-level individual to obtain such skills. The identified development and training associated with these skills are the basic framework of career development planning. The literature found through the search can be divided into two categories: career development planning in schools and career development planning in organizations (Japor, 2021; Raduan, 2020; Shimazoe, 2021; Winterton & Cafferkey, 2019).

Results – Key Constructs of Career Development Planning

The theoretical constructs fell into two distinct categories: those provided through the organizations and those provided by the school system. Career development seemed to start within the school system and was later adopted by practitioners (Allen & Simpson, 2019; Banerjee-Batist, Reio, & Rocco, 2018). The key theoretical constructs found during the literature review include Mentoring, Leadership Training, On-the-Job Training, Talent Management, Competency, and Succession Planning. These key theoretical constructs related to career development planning are summarized in Table 2.3.

Determining Contributing Theories, Useful Theories, and Outliers

Swanson's (2007) model for theory framework for applied disciplines, illustrated in Figure 2.1 identifies core theories in order to develop a conceptual framework for the conceptual approach to guide the research of the hypothesis discussed earlier in Chapter 1. The contributing theories, useful theories, and outliers presented in Table 2.3 can be identified when the constructs of career development planning and the authors' key theoretical constructs in conjunction with Swanson's (2007) theory framework for applied disciplines (Figure 2.1) are aligned. Career development planning theoretical constructs have been duplicated in Swanson's model in Figure 2.3. As discussed earlier, the literature found in career development planning can be divided into two major categories: career development planning in school and career development planning in organization. However, the constructs of both of these categories have been combined in Figure 2.3 so that the underlying assumptions can be assessed and discussed.

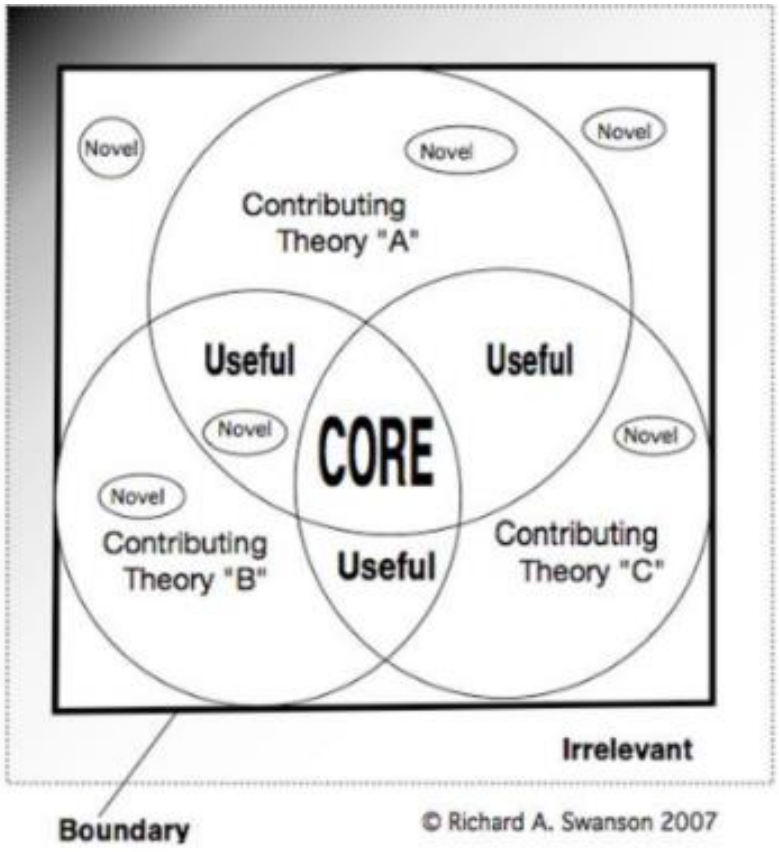


Figure 2.1.

From "Theory framework for applied disciplines: boundaries, contributing, core, useful, novel, and irrelevant components" by Swanson, 2007, Human Resource Development Review Vol. 6(3), pp. 321-339. Copyright 2007 by Richard Swanson

Table 2.2

Contributing Theories, Useful Theories, and Outliers

Contributing Theories	Useful Theories	Outliers
Mentoring	Talent Management	Mindfulness
Leadership Training	Competency	Inspiration
On-the-Job Training	Succession Planning	Communication Skills
		Routines

As illustrated in Figure 2.2, the common themes in the literature includes that the employee identifies that a path for career development planning is needed. The useful contributing themes in the literature include that the organization or education institution provide a map for these theories. Additionally, that the employee is able to obtain training on these competencies. The novel theoretical constructs include providing mentoring, organizational alignment with the employee's path, assessment tools for children, and educational intuition identification of the children's path.

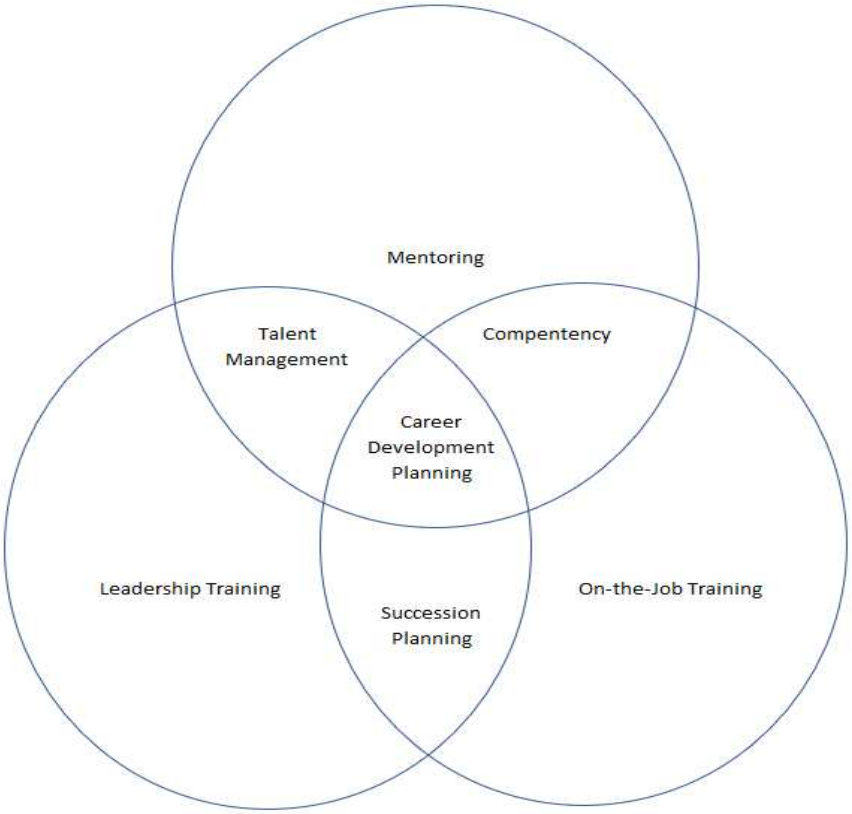


Figure 2.2.

Application of theoretical constructs to Swanson's (2007) model for theory framework for applied disciplines.

Mentoring

The origins of the word "mentor" can be traced back to Greek mythology when Odysseus chose a wise and trusted counselor for his son Telemachus (Thomas & Thomas, 2015). The concept of a senior leader advising a junior employee on their career is still a common misconception of mentoring (Gallo, 2011). Mentoring is (1) a relationship between two people; (2) a learning partnership; (3) involve the acquisition of knowledge; (4) is reciprocal yet asymmetrical as the goal is for the protégé to grow and develop; and (5) is dynamic and changes over the course of time (Eby, Rhodes, & Allen, 2007). A mentor provides career support, skills development, modeling, psychosocial support, and sponsorship and networking (Dominguez & Kochan, 2020).

Mentoring is found within organizations both as formal processes and as informal relationships (Galagan, Hirt, & Vital, 2019). Bushardt, Young, and Bari (2018) proposed a theoretical model that identifies 12 factors that are critical to the development of a new manager. In their framework, they propose that with proper training and mentoring, the young manager would develop self-awareness and understanding within their teams. This framework focuses the mentor on being transparent, a good listener, fair, and a cheerleader where the new managers should be focused on setting high standards, acknowledging mistakes, and focusing on goal achievement (Bushardt, Young, & Bari, 2018).

Hill and Wheat (2017) developed a theoretical model of how the role in mentors and role models play in women's professional advancement in higher education. The model argues that if women in high-powered positions mentor the women in key administrative positions, it can help their career path and their development. As part of the development of the model, there were 16 in-depth interviews conducted with 12 female key administrators and four presidents of

Universities in the United States. The interviews revealed four key themes: (1) the amount of time the mentors and role models need to invest; (2) that gender dynamics played a part in role models and mentoring relationships; (3) there are mentoring moments with non-traditional mentors that are beneficial in career growth as well; and (4) there were identified benefits in the relationship between mentor and role model (Hill & Wheat, 2017),

Leadership Training

Leadership training helps to identify high potential employees and utilizes training in both soft and hard skills to extend the capabilities and knowledge of individuals who are already performing leadership roles (Oragui, 2023). Criticisms of organizational leadership training programs include that there is a lack of differentiation between effective leaders and good managers (Barker, 1997); leadership cannot be taught, it is an inherent trait (Brungardt, 1996); without teaching communication skills across multiple diversity situations, a leader cannot truly lead (Jones, Gutherie, & Osteen, 2016); the leadership team must establish a strategic vision and implement a learning culture for leadership training to be effective (Beer, Finnstrom, & Schrader, 2016); that leadership is a journey, not a destination and skills must continually be developed (Russell, 2006); and that competency based training is more effective at shoring up the skills of leaders than a class that is not customized to the leader's needs (Brundrett, 2000). Proponents of leadership training associate the connection between effective leaders and employee satisfaction, arguing that training leaders to be effective will increase employee performance and satisfaction (Tesmer & Oxenford, 2020).

In 2022, a case study was conducted on female leaders at the Mayo Clinic where the leaders were given focused training on growth, resilience, inspiration, and tenacity as part of their leadership development (Renner, Borgwardt, Coyle, Moeschler, & Bhagra, 2022). Surveys

were sent via mail to participants in the training. Participation was voluntary and responses were received from 30 participants. The results of the survey was that the targeted training as been successful in establishing the knowledge, skills, and attributes that are needed by female health-care workers and that the Mayo Clinic has been successful in actively breaking down barriers that are perceived to prevent females from obtaining leadership roles (Renner et. al, 2022).

Smedick and Rice (2018) developed a theoretical framework for employers to utilize as part of a competency assessment for newly graduating students arguing that universities do not teach the core competencies that organizations expect students to have at graduation (Smedick & Rice, 2018). The researchers attempt to address the gaps between what organizations perceive as needed leadership education within colleges and universities and what colleges and universities see as necessary for preparing students for workforce success. The theoretical framework was not tested as part of this study, but it is identified that those would be appropriate next steps to see if the theoretical framework is successful (Smedick & Rice, 2018).

Another theoretical framework with a competency-based approach was published by Harper (2018). This approach focused more on organizations adopting competency-based approaches where they incorporate a competency inventory into a performance system and maintain the competency inventory to inform needed training and gain a competitive advantage (Harper, 2021). While this proposed approach could be more effective in adequately addressing the training needs of the employee, some potential issues could be developing and maintaining the inventory, providing the training at a frequency that would be beneficial to all of the leaders, and finding a way to objectively measure the leader's competency level in each of the identified areas (Harper, 2021).

Tesmer and Oxenford (2020) focused their theoretical framework around training leaders on Ryan and Deci's (2000) self-determination theory to cultivate a meaningful relationship between the leaders and the employees. They argue that the primary psychological needs of relatedness, competence, and autonomy leads to employees feeling more motivated and therefore happier and less likely to leave the organization (Tesmer & Oxenford, 2020). Fazzin (2019) makes similar claims in her theoretical framework where she argues that training leaders in emotional intelligence builds similar relationships to employees. Looking at the major components of emotion theory and understanding how the comprehensive history of emotion in the workplace helps leaders to understand how to build better relationships with their employees, leading to increased employee satisfaction (Fazzin, 2019).

On-the-Job Training

Rooted in the transferring of knowledge in the trades, on-the-job training is a practical, hands-on approach to teaching employees' new skills and competencies that are applicable to the work or tasks that they do in the workplace (Valamis, 2021). While the effectiveness of on-the-job training is debated in the research, there are many indicators that could affect the effectiveness such as self-efficacy, prior experience, and workload (Mincer, 1962; van der Klink & Streumer, 2002). One study measured turnover intention differences between on-the-job training and off-the-job training and found that employees are more likely to leave an organization that requires off-the-job training than an organization that offers on-the job training as it was more applicable to their career paths (Lynch, 1991).

Ognibene (2018) examined the need for more on-the-job training in clinical research. He discussed that there is a major gap in medicine, dentistry, nursing, pharmacy, epidemiology, bioinformatics, bioethics, and other areas of medicine after their primary degree is obtained

(Ognibene, 2018). While this theory was not tested in this publication, he did discuss what the National Institutes of Health both nationally and internationally have done to advance this need and to answer the question of how this can be built into a workforce that is already working longer hours in more stressful environments than most industries.

Oldham and Fried (2016) summarized research and theory found in how jobs are designed in organizations and utilized their findings to develop a theoretical construct that not only emphasized the design of jobs, but also how to train on jobs to best capitalize on an employee's personal characteristics. Some of the items that they emphasized can impact how jobs are designed and how to differentiate training based on generational differences, the work arrangement for the job, cultural differences, how the organization is structured, and how the employee feels about the job (Oldham & Fried, 2016).

Talent Management

Talent Management is a collection of human resource department practices, functions, activities that are focused on recruiting, developing, career planning, and succession planning within an organization (Lewis & Heckman, 2006). While talent management is an evolving topic that has become more prevalent in literature over the past decade (Cappelli & Keller, 2014; Collings, Scullion, & Vaiman, 2015), the importance of planning for and retaining talent remains critical for organizations (Cappelli, 2008). Having an effective talent management program helps to attract and retain talented employees (Ashton & Morton, 2005; Dries, 2013).

Oladapo (2014) conducted a survey of 200 organizations' Human Resource professionals in the United States regarding the importance of talent management and found that 69% of the organizations sampled that had a talent management program, the participants of the program found great benefit for job advancement and associated the talent management program with

improved retention rates. For the 31% of the organizations that did not have a formal talent management procedure, the reason for not having a formal program was lack of executive support (Oladapo, 2014). The study also found that job security, compensation, and opportunities for advancemnet were not found to have a predictive value for employee retention rates which counters other theoretical models around employee retention (Delery, Gupta, Shaw, Jenkins Jr., & Ganster, 2002; Grimm, 2017).

A prevalent model for systematically implementing and maintaining talent management was not found in the literature review. However, Tarique and Schuler (2010) proposed an integrative framework that touched on a lot of the concepts discussed in other literature. In their model, they identify the exogenous drivers of talent management challenges as being globalization, demographics, and demand-supply gap. They identify the endogenous drivers of talent management challenges as being egocentrism, international strategic alliances, and required competencies. These challenges feed into the Talent Management System of attracting, developing, and retaining talent. The output of this system is improving human resource's impact, developing a competitive advantage, and talent positioning. Though their model was not tested, they proposed methods for future research (Tarique & Schuler, 2010).

Competency

Competency are demonstrated tasks and skills with a required level of proficiency that is needed to perform a job (Lasse, 2013). Competencies are often broken down into categories of knowledge, skills, and abilities that can either be technical or behavioral in nature (Society for Human Resource Management, 2021). Some organizations identify competencies as part of mentoring, succession planning, on-the-job training, and leadership training (Harper, 2021; Smedick & Rice, 2018; Lee & Jacobs, 2021). The difference between a competency, a skill, a

value, and a personality trait is that a competency correlates with performance, can be measured, and can be improved (Parry, 1996).

There are several approaches to competency identification and assessment being utilized by organizations in various industries (Rothwell & Lindholm, 1999). However, the development of National Occupational Standards (NOSs) is becoming increasingly prevalent across the globe (Lee & Jacobs, 2021). National Occupational Standards (NOS) list the knowledge, skills, and ability that an individual must achieve when carrying out a function in the workplace (Law Insider, 2022). In their literature review, Lee and Jacobs (2021) discuss the evolution of the development of NOSs, the lack of adoption by organizations, and propose that human resource practitioners contribute toward adoption of NOSs and addressing the challenges that are commonly encountered when implementing NOSs. They propose that, with the involvement of more human resource professionals, NOSs could become more adopted and create a global phenomenon around the use of competency in job placement and development (Lee & Jacobs, 2021).

Gharouni and Korba (2021) conducted a study of civil construction projects and the competencies of the project managers on the projects. They developed a list of 14 critical project manager competencies based on their comprehensive literature review. From evaluation of the success of the projects, they found that project managers with strong communication skills were needed for successful small projects. Project managers with strong negotiation skills were needed on medium to large projects as it will increase the engineer's performance (Gharouni & Noorzai, 2021). Though the research does show that the use of competencies can be studied and correlated with project success through inventorying and comparison of profitability, it does not

account for many of the other variables of project success including labor, schedule, contractors and subcontractors, and other personnel that are on a project.

Succession Planning

Succession planning is the process of identifying key positions within the organization, the competencies associated with this position, and potential individuals who could assume these positions. Action plans are developed with the potential individuals with goals of them being able to assume these positions in 12 to 36 months (University of Washington, 2022; Society for Human Resource Management, 2022). However, though many tools and consultants can be found on how to do succession planning, a review conducted by Garman and Glawe (2004) found that there were varying planning processes and inconsistency in the few studies that have been published on succession planning (Garman & Glawe, 2004). Identified obstacles to implementing succession planning are resistance to change, financial, legal, equal employment opportunity, and lack of time (Society for Human Resource Management, 2022; Garman & Glawe, 2004).

One study interviewed 30 CEOs and human resource professionals from 15 organizations about their succession planning practices. They found that some of the best practices included utilizing a mentoring network, identifying high potential employees, establishing a succession planning process, and exposing high potential employees to project-based learning practices (Groves, 2007). It was also identified that a supportive organizational culture was needed for the succession planning process to be effective. One of the areas where Groves identified as research limitation was that all the organizations were in the same industry, which may limit the overall utilization of the findings (Groves, 2007).

Ibarra (2005) identifies that succession planning is an eight-step process that can be implemented within any organization. The first step of the process is to assess future service needs through strategic planning. This should include measurable goals and objectives as well as mission and vision. The second step is to identify critical positions and high-potential employees. In this framework, a high-potential employee is someone who can either be put into a critical position, a higher level or responsibility, or a higher level of technical proficiency (p.20). The third step is to identify competencies. Ibarra noted that this subject does generate frustration as job descriptions are continually written so that it reflects the current role. However, Ibarra identifies competency examples as coaching, decision-making, initiating action, managing conflict, and tenacity (p. 22). These examples do not align with the literature around competency discussed earlier in this chapter. The fourth and fifth step of Ibarra's plan are to conduct a gap analysis of the competencies and then conduct training. Up to the fifth step, Ibarra is aligned with the recommendations of University of Washington (2022) and Society for Human Resource Management (2022). His final three steps are where there is variation. Step six is identified as conduct management training. In this step Ibarra suggests that all managers should be trained on developing the skills and knowledge of their direct reports and that the managers should identify who their replacements from the pool of high-potential employees should be (p. 22). The seventh step of the process is for managers to determine development strategies and tactics aligned with the strategic plan and should communicate these to their employees before deployment. The final step of the process is to monitor and evaluate. Should items not be aligning, then the plan should be adjusted accordingly (Ibarra, 2005).

Another study looked at fire departments in the public sector and examined the succession planning for fire chiefs. Data were collected through interviews and analyzed using a

five-step approach. It was found that 21% of the fire chiefs do not have succession planning for their employees and 45% of fire chiefs do not have succession plans for their positions (Easley, 2019). There were also three themes that were identified through the interviews. The first theme was that is that monetary rewards improve employee performance. The second theme is that there is a need for a mentoring plan. The final theme that was identified is that recognition incentives would promote improved performance (Easley, 2019).

Common Themes of Career Development Planning in Schools

The focus of this research is career development planning within organizations. While schools are a type of organization, this research was more aligned with the development of children who are not working for the organization. The literature related to career development planning within schools was examined and is summarized in this section as it does inform development techniques. Career development planning theories have existed in publication since the 1950s. Originally, these theories were introduced to children through the concept of "what do you want to be when you grow up" (Ginzberg, 1952)? By utilizing mentors or role-models, the thought was that as the children grew and had a direction, they would be able to achieve these ambitions in adulthood (Engle, 1960/2003). Eventually, this led to schools administering career alignment tools that assisted students in identifying what careers they should choose based on their interests (Engle, 1960; Hackett, 1994; Holland, 1959; Miller-Tiedeman, 2011; Tiedeman, 1968; Tiedeman, 1999; Tiedeman & Lynch, 1983). The potential perceived weakness of this exercise is that while students do identify paths, there is not a commitment or an alignment with another party, like an organization, to keep the student on track (Organization for Economic Co-Operation and Development, 2004).

Common Themes of Career Development Planning in Organizations

For career development planning within an organization, the literature explained that this involved an employee identifying a career path that the employee intends to pursue. The adoption of utilizing career development plans within an organization came much later than the incorporation of them into schools. Early recognition that having these strategies within an organization could lead to employees identifying wants and needs for growth (Gottfredson, 1977; Locke, 1976). This information is then assessed so that a plan can be created to grow the employee over time and to address their needed skills and training to achieve the goals of their career choice (Diggin, 1974).

Organizations have increasingly adopted career development plans outside of the trades as a method for improving employee retention and performance. Initially, career development planning was determined as an exercise that the individual conducted, but it was later determined that organizations have the responsibility to the employee to create a career path (Feldman, 2000). These career plans must be flexible and agile so that, as employee interests grow and change, the plan for the employee can adjust accordingly (Briscoe & Hall, 2006; Lapointe, 2010). Hall (2004) argued that alignment between the employees' goals and the organizations' goals must exist for the career development plan to work. Hall (2004) further argued that when the organization has an understanding of the core competencies by position, and the work or training needed to teach these competencies, the organization can effectively create a career development plan. Cummings and Worley (2008) found/stated that providing this type of planning and utilizing better management to the planning can assist in attracting and retaining employees (Cummings & Worley, 2008).

Outcomes of Career Development Planning

Based on the theoretical constructs found in the literature, it would appear that the core construct for a career development plan is that the employees have agency in the decision-making process for their potential career development plan. Analyzing the interaction of the constructs showed that mindfulness, communication skills, inspiration, and routines are outliers in career development planning. Also of note is that an organization's alignment with the path chosen by the employee does not play a bigger factor in the success of a career development plan.

The assessment tools utilized within education present an interesting dynamic to these key theoretical constructs. Though the claim could be made that the assessment tools would operate under the assumption of identifying the likes and dislikes of the student and removing the dislikes from recommended jobs, this could potentially go against the core theoretical construct that an employee identifies his or her path. For instance, if the assessment tool recommended that a student be a nurse because of a caring nature and a desire to help others, it still may not be a good fit if the student faints at the sight of blood.

Another potential conflict within the constructs is that the theoretical constructs are largely assuming that the employee stays with the organization as the mapping of competencies and the training on competencies largely falls on the organization. However, without the organizational alignment to the employee's path, this could be a large expense for the organization without the actual opportunity made available to the employee. This could cause the employee to leave to pursue a chosen path elsewhere or could lead to little return on investment for the organization.

Career development planning is consistently represented in the literature as a way to create a focused approach with an end-goal of training and developing employees. Providing this

type of organizational intervention could, in theory, address the 83% of employees who want an organization focused on career development, the 86% of employees who want the organization to be committed to professional development, and the 83% of employees who want career advancement opportunities (SHRM, 2016). However, if the organization is not aligned with the paths laid out for employees, they may run the risk of losing the employee after putting the time and money into their development.

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is defined as an employee's affective commitment towards the goals and values of the organization, and their role within the organization as it relates to the achievement of the organization's goals and values (Buchanan II, 1974, p. 533). The term organizational commitment implies that the employee's role within the organization adds value, that the employee cares about the organization, and that the employee feels an intrinsic tie to the people and to the organization's mission and core values (Chang, Chiu, & Chen, 2010; Kim & Rowley, 2005; Whitley, 2003).

Meyer and Allen (1991) further separated commitment into three types of commitment: (a) affective commitment, (b) continuance commitment, and (c) normative commitment. Affective commitment is the emotional attachment that the employee has to the organization (Meyer and Allen, 1991). Continuance commitment is the employee's concern about the personal financial ramifications should they leave the organization (Meyer and Allen, 1991). Normative commitment is the employee's feeling of obligation to remain with the organization (Meyer and Allen, 1991). Utilizing this outline, Meyer and Allen created an instrument with which organizations could not only measure the employee's commitment, but also the type of

commitment that the employee is demonstrating (Fields, 2013). Affectively committed employees stay with organizations because they want to (Cohen, 1993).

Organizational Commitment – Historical Overview

Organizational commitment was originally perceived as being associated with a certain role and to largely be based on the personal values of the employee (Al-Jabari & Ghazzawi, 2020). Organizational commitment has been found to be higher in places where the employee identifies with the values and beliefs of the organization (Ali & Kashif, 2020). Additional factors found to positively influence organizational commitment are employee development, participation, compensation, supervision, and work environment (Adikoeswanto, Eliyana, Hamidah, Buchdadi, & Firda, 2020). Leadership has also been found to play a key role in organizational commitment and employee performance, linking to an employee's ability to develop or sustain organizational commitment (Asif & Rathore, 2021). Poor leadership, job insecurity, and job stress are examples of antecedents to organizational commitment (Bodjrenou, Xu, & Bomboma, 2019). Ali (2016) examined work engagement leading to higher organizational commitment levels and found that competencies could assist with Human Resource effectiveness and lead to sustained organizational performance. Ali theorized that leveraging personnel management tactics in Human Resource Management would lead to increased levels of commitment to the organization.

Results – Key Constructs of Organizational Commitment

The theoretical constructs fell into three contributing theories of Managerial Support, Change Management, and Affective Commitment. The useful theories Corporate Social Responsibility, Turnover Intention, and Meyer and Allen were also prevalent in the literature. While also prevalent in the literature but not as frequent were the outliers of Emotional

Intelligence, Virtual Teams, Servant Leadership, and Spiritual Leadership. The key theoretical constructs related to organizational commitment are summarized in Table 2.4.

Determining Contributing Theories, Useful Theories, and Outliers

Swanson's (2007) model for theory framework for applied disciplines, illustrated in Figure 2.1 identifies core theories in order to develop a conceptual framework for the conceptual approach to guide the research of the hypothesis discussed earlier in Chapter 1. The contributing theories, useful theories, and outliers presented in Table 2.4 can be identified when the constructs of organizational commitment and the authors' key theoretical constructs in conjunction with Swanson's (2007) theory framework for applied disciplines (Figure 2.1) are aligned. Organizational commitment theoretical constructs have been duplicated in Swanson's model in Figure 2.4.

Table 2.3

Contributing Theories, Useful Theories, and Outliers

Contributing Theories	Useful Theories	Outliers
Managerial Support	Corporate Social Responsibility	Emotional Intelligence
Change Management	Turnover Intention	Virtual Teams
Affective Commitment	Meyer and Allen	Servant Leadership
		Spiritual Leadership

As illustrated in Figure 2.3 and Table 2.3, the common themes in the literature include that managerial support and affective commitment for organizational commitment is needed. The useful contributing themes in the literature include turnover intention and corporate social responsibility to provide a map for these theories. Additionally, Meyer and Allen's research was

referenced frequently in the literature found. The novel theoretical constructs include emotional intelligence, virtual teams, and types of leadership.

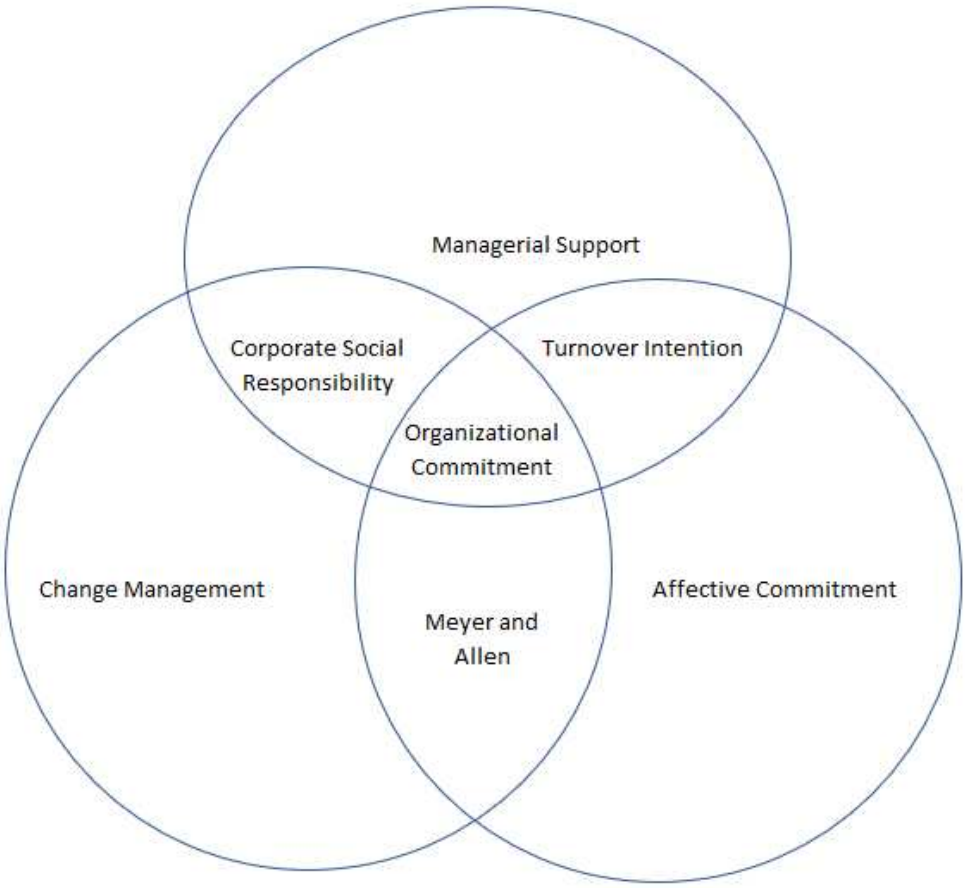


Figure 2.3.

Application of theoretical constructs to Swanson's (2007) model for theory framework for applied disciplines.

Managerial Support

Managerial Support is the perception that the employee has of their supervisor being supportive in their ideas and their work (Oldham & Cummings, 1996). Managerial support can include effective communication, workers being involved in making decisions, providing clear feedback to workers on their performance, and assisting workers in overcoming challenges in the

workplace (Ogbonnaya, 2019). Businesses lose between $200 and $300 billian dollars a year in lost productivity due to stress that could be mitigated by managerial support (Sawang, 2010).

In a survey of 811 organizations, the researchers found that managerial support was the most important contributor to the perception of overall organizational support but only 14% said that their managers were held accountable to improve well-being within the organization (Hamill, 2018). Another study found that examining perceived managerial support found that there were direct positive relationships between managerial support and affective, normative, and continual types of engagement (Ogbonnaya, 2018). A third study surveyed 171 employees from two manufacturing facilities and found that positive, non-controlling managerial support was a factor in producing the most creative work (Oldham & Cummings, 2017). It was also found in a survey of 1065 white-collar employees that managerial support moderated the relationship between workaholism and presenteeism, such that workaholism is more positively related to presenteeism for employees with low managerial support compared to colleagues who perceived themselves to have high managerial support (Mazzetti, Vignoli, Schuafeli, & Guglielmi, 2017).

Kumar et al (2018) further explored the relationship between managerial support and turnover intention and hypothesized that the relationship would be explained through the level of the organization's support for development. A cross-sectional survey was administered to 5,088 service industry employees within a single organization. It was found that the hypothesis was correct and that the organization's support for development could, in fact, serve as mediation between managerial support and turnover intention. It was also found that worker engagement levels were also mediated by managerial support. The researchers did point out that a limitation of this research was that it occurred in one business unit of an organization (Kumar, Jauhari, Rastogi, & Sivakumar, 2018).

Finally, Dublin (2022) sought to examine the effects of managerial support during COVID-19 disruptions to workplace norms and how the transferring of leadership information to non-managerial employees would affect organizational commitment. 252 non-managerial participants were surveyed through an online survey. Through a hierarchical regression analysis and mediation analysis of the survey data, the results showed that affective organizational commitment as well as perceived organizational support are significant predictors of knowledge sharing. Dublin suggests that these findings could be used by practitioners to understand how transfer of knowledge as part of managerial support can directly lead to affective commitment from the worker (Dublin, 2022).

Change Management

Change management is a systemic approach and application of knowledge, resources, and tools to deal with change. Effective change management evaluates the people side of the change initiative to increase the likelihood of success (Society for Human Resource Management, 2022; Iverson, 2006; Herold, Fedor, & Caldwell, 2007). Management of change is a dynamic and challenging process that cannot be consistently applied. (Paton & McCalman, 2008). Utilizing a strategic change process can lead to a positive relationship between participants organizational commitment and goal achievement. However, it can also lead to a negative relationship with resistance (Lines, 2006; Jaros, 2010). Each of the different types of commitment identified by Meyer and Allen discussed earlier in this chapter prove different types of relationships and antecedents to change initiatives (Parish, Cadwallader, & Busch, 2008).

In a study of employee's support of change intentions and how it is influenced by the employee's level of commitment, it was found that the two are directly related. In this study 667 people in a production facility of a manufacturing company were surveyed. Not only was

commitment found to be a factor in the support of the change initiative, but also perceived behavioral control of the change was found to be a large factor. The researchers also noted that the recipients age and occupational status were noted as factors in the acceptance of change (Straatmann, Nolte, & Seggewiss, 2018).

While positive change management is associated with better adoption and positive correlation with employee commitment, Bordia et al. (2011) hypothesized that poor change management history in an organization would lead employees to have distrust in the organization and cynicism about organizational change. This could ultimately lead to employees having increased turnover intention and then ultimately leaving the organization. 155 employees at a property and development firm were surveyed. The employees surveyed had some employees that had been exposed to poor change management in the past and some that had not had previous negative experiences. Their findings partially confirmed their hypothesis. A poor change management history led to poor change management history beliefs. This leads to distrust in the organization and cynicism about organizational change. The results on turnover intention were not statistically significant. The same test was then run on 200 teachers using the same methodology. The results reinforced the previous findings. However, with this group, the likelihood of turnover intention was statistically significant which was not the case with the first group. The researchers did identify that an opportunity for future research would be to measure the actual turnover against the turnover intention (Bordia, Restubog, Jimmieson, & Irmer, 2011).

Self, Arkmenkas, and Schraeder (2007) worked with a telecommunications organization that had recently undergone a lot of change to examine the employees' reaction to the change. 1,150 managers were sampled, and 467 usable surveys were returned. They surveys obtained information related to (a) recent organizational changes and related information; and (b) other

socio-psychological dimensions which included support, communication, and organizational commitment (p. 217). Using procedures suggested by Aiken and West, the researchers performed hierarchical multiple regression analysis to examine the impact of the communication and organizational commitment variables on the acceptance of change variable. The results indicated that those who felt supported within the organization felt that the changes were justified; those who felt that the communication of the change was adequate, felt the changes were justified; and those with high organizational commitment, felt that the changes were justified (Self, Arkmenkas, & Schraeder, 2007).

Supporting what has been discussed in the research, Rothermel and LaMarch, consultants specializing in effective organizational change from LaMarch & Associates, Inc. published an article (2012) for practitioners using some of the concepts that have been found through research and to apply it to their change management processes within their organizations. Some of the key ideas that are pointed out is that everyone who is involved with the change process must understand the change; manage the change; and deal with the people issues that the change is going to cause (p. 19). They also discuss that resistance to change is natural if the people who are affected by the change do not understand how to get from before the change to after the change, and what that specifically means for them (p. 23). Another great tool that is pointed out are sample questions to help employees overcome their resistance to change. Some of the themes of these questions are: (a) understanding how their roles and responsibilities are impacted; (b) understanding how to get information; (c) understanding what to do if they do not receive the information that they requested; and (d) understanding all of the resources that they have available to them (Rothermel & LaMarsh, 2012).

Affective Commitment

Affective commitment is the emotional attachment that the employee has to the organization (Meyer and Allen, 1991). Affective commitment is developed when an individual identifies with the organization and are intrinsically motivated by and aligned with the organization's mission and objectives (Mercurio, 2015). Affective commitment leads to increased retention, greater profitability, better customer service, and less absenteeism (Goldsmith, 2008). While a search for increasing affective commitment did not yield scholarly articles, it did yield three blogs and one practitioner consultant article. Sabell (2021) recommends five steps to increase commitment: (1) create career growth opportunities; (2) create workplace flexibility; (3) provide consistent feedback; (4) clearly communicate; and (5) encourage team building (Sabell, 2021).

Rhodes, Eisenberger, and Armeli (2001) conducted a study on the effects of perceived organizational support on affective commitment and turnover intentions. 438 alumni from a university were randomly selected and mailed surveys. 367 surveys were returned that were usable. A second sample was conducted of 1,249 employees at eight sites of a sales organization. Of this sample, 1,124 usable surveys were returned. Using confirmatory factor analysis, it was found in both samples that procedural justice impacted perceived organizational support the most, followed by supervisor support, and then organizational rewards. It was also found that perceived organizational support had a very strong correlation with affective commitment. These results support other organizational support and social exchange theories that positive support with employees increases organizational commitment and performance (Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001).

Tan and Gempes (2020) examined the effects of affective commitment on organizational issues such as employee ineffectiveness, turnovers, disloyalty, conflict of interests, and employee fraud in a mixed methods study. For the quantitative portion of this study, 418 Certified Public Accountants (CPAs) were selected through simple random technique. An 87-item survey was developed that measured work engagement, quality of life, and organizational commitment utilizing a 5-point Likert scale. Interviews were conducted and the transcripts were coding utilizing NVivo methods which resulted in five organizational themes. The majority agreed that work engagement and quality of life are predictors to organizational commitment (p. 633). Other themes included the importance of work engagement, the importance of quality of life, the importance of affective commitment, and the unimportance of self-efficacy (p. 633). Following the interpretation of the qualitative data, the data from the quantitative and qualitative parts of the research were integrated. The integration confirmed that the quantitative findings were confirmed by the qualitative results. The study found that both work engagement and quality of life are a causal link to organizational commitment. The researchers recommend that human resource practitioners utilize this information to design relevant work-life balance programs that foster a spirit of belonging and teamwork within organizations where CPAs are employed (Tan & Gempes, 2020).

In a 2011 study by Gardner, Wright, and Moynihan, it was found that affective commitment mediates the negative correlation between motivation and empowerment-enhancing practices and voluntary turnover. It also found that increasing competence of an employee (knowledge, skills, and ability) without affective commitment is positively associated with voluntary turnover. The researchers attributed this differentiation to be due to the psychological bond that employees with affective commitment have towards the organization. The study

evaluated 1,738 employees in 20 different business units of a food product company. A survey was sent to the Human Resource manager of the business unit at the same time a survey was sent to the randomly sampled employees. A second survey was sent to both groups 12 months later. Additionally, two multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVA) compared profitability, productivity, and quality between the time of the initial survey and the time of the second survey and found no significant differences. Both the organizational commitment questionnaire by Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulin, 1974 and the Three-Component Model by Meyer and Allen, 1991, were administered to the employees (Gardner, Wright, & Moynihan, 2011). While the study did reveal that affective commitment would negate voluntary turnover and discussed how some human resource practices could potentially increase voluntary turnover, it did not discuss how to generate affective commitment in an employee that does not have affective commitment.

Corporate Social Responsibility

The International Organization for Standardization describes corporate social responsibility as a balanced approach that organizations can use to address environmental, economic, and social issues in a way that will benefit people, communities, and society (Leonard & McAdam, 2003). Corporate social responsibility largely evolved from people turning to corporations to solve environmental, social, and human rights issues rather than depending on the government (Auld, Bernstein, & Cashore, 2008). Some of the issues with implementing corporate social responsibility within organizations include lack of communication around the initiative, unclear expectations from stakeholders, conflicting opinions of stakeholders, and lack of measurement of benefit of the initiatives (Lindgreen & Swaen, 2010). However, when interviewed by Forbes in 2013, dozens of corporate executives discussed the benefits of corporate social responsibility to client attraction, employee attraction, triple-bottom line

increase, and improved engagement for the employees both at work and in the community (Thorpe, 2013).

Tilt (2016) discussed the lack of research around corporate social responsibility and stated that it is inconclusive. She attributed this to the inconsistencies on studying corporate social responsibility efforts as organizations do not always report them. Additionally, the socio-political environments differ greatly. Corporate characteristics can also have varying impacts on the effectiveness of corporate social responsibility efforts. In a 2012 literature review intended to understand the micro foundations of corporate social responsibility and the methodical approaches, 533 journal articles for corporate social responsibility were analyzed and the researchers' findings reinforce Tilt's comment. Only 11% of the articles used quantitative methods. While qualitative methods were utilized, the researchers found that there were not unified approaches to creating and implementing corporate social responsibility strategies and efforts in the research (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012).

In a study of the effects of corporate social responsibility on an employee's affective commitment to an organization, it was hypothesized that corporate social responsibility would improve organizational trust and organizational identification, which would lead to affective commitment to an organization. Eleven companies were selected, and surveys were distributed to ta total of 609 employees. The employees were given one week to return the survey. 378 usable responses were analyzed. After establishing convergent and discriminant validity, the data were analyzed using confirmatory factor analysis and SEM modeling. It was found that perception of corporate social responsibility is a predictor of affective organizational commitment, but not a direct correlation. The researchers credited this to the employee already having a psychological

connection and trust in the organization as the reason for the correlation (Farooq, Payaud, Merunka, & Valette-Florence, 2013).

In another study of the relationship between corporate social responsibility and organizational commitment, it was hypothesized that employees with affective organizational commitment would more likely participate in corporate social responsibility activities, such as volunteering. 4,712 employees were surveyed from a financial services company. The survey measured both organizational commitment as well as perceptions of the corporate social responsibility activities and their involvement. The researchers confirmed their hypothesis and found that those who are affectively committed to the organization have higher perceptions and contribution to the corporate social responsibility efforts. Interestingly, the researchers also found that females are more likely to support and participate in these efforts as well. Finally, the study found that contribution to the corporate social responsibility activities is as impactful as job satisfaction on organizational commitment levels (Brammer, Millington, & Rayton, 2007).

In a third study examining the relationship between corporate social responsibility and organizational commitment, it was hypothesized that corporate social responsibility is positively related to employee engagement and organizational commitment. Additionally, the researchers hypothesized that employee engagement mediates the relationship between corporate social responsibility and organizational commitment. A survey was sent to 500 employees in a technology company, 290 of the surveys were returned and usable. This study found that there is a causal relationship among corporate social responsibility, employee engagement, and organizational commitment. Employee commitment and organizational commitment were also found to be antecedents and consequence of employee engagement. The researchers suggest that engagement issues can be addressed through corporate social responsibility. They also suggest

that that employee will be more engaged and committed if they are participating in corporate social responsibility activities (Gupta, 2015).

Turnover Intention

Turnover intention is the intention of employees to quit their organization, it is not the actual rate at which employees leave organizations (Ali, 2008). Turnover intention costs can be disengagement, low-productivity, and absenteeism (Bothma & Roodt, 2013). Turnover intention and actual are distinct concepts with different variables (Cohen, Blake, & Goodman, 2015). Turnover intention can often be a symptom of lack of job satisfaction or organizational commitment (Slattery & Selvarajan, 2005; Pitts, Marvel, & Fernandez, 2011; Ali, 2008). Job stress can lead to job dissatisfaction and lack of organizational commitment. Employees with higher levels of job stress are more likely to think about leaving the organization than those who perceive fairness within the organization (Chen, Lin, & Lien, 2009). In one study, it was found that pay, promotion, contingent rewards, and fringe benefits are all correlated to reasons why turnover intention does not lead to actual turnover (Ali, 2008).

In a study of newly graduated nurses in pediatric residencies, 889 nurses were surveyed. The survey included four subscales: opportunity, job activities, coaching and support, and information. The survey then asked on a Likert scale of one to seven, if the participant was planning on leaving in the next year. The results of the analysis indicated that 66% did not have turnover intention. The younger respondents were more likely to have turnover intention. Respondents with a higher level of education were also more likely to have turnover intention. Nurses with turnover intention scored lower on all four subscales compared to those without turnover intention. The researchers also found that lower scores on skills self-confidence and perceptions of competency within their position also contributed to turnover intention. The study

discussed that satisfaction with pay was prevalent in the literature, but their study did not find a correlation with monetary satisfaction and turnover intention (Beecroft, Dorey, & Wenten, 2005).

In a study of predictors for turnover attention among United States government employees, data from the 2006 Federal Human Capital Survey that was administered by the United States Office of Personnel Management and was completed by more than 200,000 federal employees was analyzed. The researchers conducted a literature review and found that common causes of turnover were organizational commitment, job satisfaction, demographic characteristics of the employee, employee perception of management, and the work environment. While the researchers could not measure actual turnover because of data restrictions, they did theorize that turnover intention and actual turnover are highly and positively correlated. The results of their analysis showed that workplace satisfaction played the largest role in predicting turnover intention followed by demographic variables and organizational commitment. The researchers suggest that this information should be utilized by managers to understand their employees' job satisfaction levels and drivers. They suggest that addressing job satisfaction will decrease turnover intention (Pitts, Marvel, & Fernandez, 2011).

In a study on workplace mindfulness and its relation to job performance and turnover intention, 102 servers working for seven chain restaurants in the American Southwest, the servers were surveyed, and their managers also were surveyed on the servers' performance. The researchers hypothesized that workplace mindfulness would be positively related to job performance and negatively related to turnover intention. The analysis of the data show that server experience is positively correlated to job performance. It also found that workplace mindfulness is positively and significantly correlated with job performance. Workplace

mindfulness was negatively and significantly correlated with turnover intention. The researchers suggest that more attention needs to be paid to workplace mindfulness by organizational scholars as it can significantly impact performance and turnover intention (Dane & Brummel, 2013).

Meyer and Allen

Organizational commitment is a concept in literature with many different definitions, tools, constructs, and theories. Organizational Commitment became a focus of business literature after the development of the Three-Component Model by Meyer and Allen in 1991 (Gutierrez-Broncano, Jimenez Estevez, & Rubio-Andres, 2016). Meyer and Allen theorized that organizational commitment can be broken down further to three types of commitment: affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Allen & Meyer, 1996). Meyer and Allen stated that affective commitment is how much the individual identifies with the organization and is involved with the organization; normative commitment is when the individual is with the organization out of feeling of obligation; and continuance commitment is when individual is with the organization out of fear of the costs of leaving the organization (Allen and Meyer, 1990; Meyer and Allen, 1991, 1997).

More recent studies have utilized Meyer and Allen's definitions and have examined how comprehensive human resource development (HRD) practices can impact the type of commitment employees display (Cummings, et al., 2018; Eliyana, Anis, Alvin, & Sridadi, 2020; Kim, Kim, & Woo, 2017). Yet a keyword search to review research in the oil and gas industry specific to interventions has highlighted the dearth of information to further inform practice. Allen and Meyer (1990) also examined antecedents to affective, continuance, and normtive commitment finding that affective and normative antecendents are somewhat related but affective and continuance antecedents are distinguishable. The Three-Component Model (TCM)

discussed earlier in this chapter is the survey tool that Meyer and Allen developed to measure the type of commitment and the questions from the three-component model are attached in Appendix B.

Meyer and Allen are credited with changing the dynamic of understanding organizational commitment from being a psychological attachment to a multidimensional approach (Ghosh & Swamy, 2014; Mercurio, 2015). The TCM survey tool has been utilized in many studies in order to understand the types of commitment, and the effects of the types on commitment on job performance, engagement, attendance, and turnover intention (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Jaros, Jermier, Koehler, & Sincich, 1993; Shore & Wayne, 1993; Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993). Additionally, studies have been conducted looking for correlations and causations between other characteristics, such as demographics or work environment, and increased commitment levels (Karrasch, 2003; Cohen , 1996; Jaros, 1997). Additionally, the TCM survey tool itself has been studied, with some studies associating the tool with high validity and reliability (Jaros, 2007; Allen and Meyer, 1996) while others found that the terminology is difficult to understand across cultures (Ford, 2021).

In their seminal article, Meyer and Allen (1990) discuss the importance of commitment and that it is known to be liked to turnover. They discuss the different types of commitment, introduce the three-component model which can be utilized to measure types of commitment, and demonstrate how these types of commitment can lead to different types of behavior (p. 2). In the review of literature, the types of commitment are introduced as affective attachment, perceived costs, and obligation. The article discusses the studies that were conducted to develop the TCM survey. In the first study, 500 questionnaires were distributed at two manufacturing firms and a university. The survey had 51 items on it for the purpose of scale development.

Included in the 51 items were the 15 questions from the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) by Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979). The selection of the final questions done by eliminating items that (a) the endorsement proportion was greater than .75; (b) the item correlated with the wrong scale or more than one scale; and (c) the item was redundant with another item on the scale. Eight items were selected for each of the scales: Affective Commitment Scale, Continuance Commitment Scale, and the Normative Commitment Scale (p. 6). Meyer and Allen then tested their three-component model. A total of 634 questionnaires were distributed to three organizations: a department store, a hospital, and a library. In total, 337 were completed and 250 were usable. Through the analysis, three specific roots became apparent – one for each of the types of commitment. The correlations associated with these were .81, .56, and .38 (p. 11). This was enough to solidify their scale. They went on to explain the implications of this model and how it could be further used in practice including using the scales separately. They did point out that the Normative Commitment Scale needed further research before it could be used with confidence (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Meyer and Allen (1990) went on to publish another article the same year studying recent undergraduate and graduate students six months into their new jobs after graduating. Utilizing six five-item scales developed by Jones (1986) on socialization tactics, 207 questionnaires were sent, 170 were returned, and 132 were usable. The respondents were resurveyed with the same scales at their twelve-month mark as well. Of that second survey, 105 of the returned surveys were usable. It was found that each of the socialization tactics were significantly correlated with organizational commitment at the sixth month mark. The investiture-divestiture dimension was the only commitment scale that correlated highly at six months and then again at one year (p. 853). Meyer and Allen discussed that the lack of correlation between socialization measures and

commitment after one year suggests that other factors that were not measured as part of this study are responsible for shaping commitment (Allen & Meyer, Organizaitonal Socialization Tactics: A Longitudinal Analysis of Links of Newcomers' Commitment and Role Orientation, 1990).

In 1993, Meyer, Allen, and Smith tested the generalizability of the three-component model on occupational commitment. There were two samples of participants, both of which were nurses. The first sample were nursing students, and the second sample were registered nurses with extensive experience in nursing. Surveys were administered to 366 of the student nurses and mailed to 1,000 registered nurses. 296 of the student questionnaires were completed and 603 of the registered nurses' surveys were returned. In addition to the three-component model, 30 questions specific to nursing were included on the surveys to assess potential questions for inclusion to test commitment to an occupation (p. 542). The results of the research showed that the three-component model was generalizable enough to be used as a measure of occupational commitment (p. 546). An interesting aspect of this research was that continuance commitment was strongly correlated with affective commitment. The researchers rationalized that this is because it is related to the occupation, not the organization. Therefore, it would make sense that they feel obligated to stay within their occupation and would fear leaving it (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, Commitment to organizations and occupations: Extension and test of a three-component conceptualization, 1993).

In 1998, Meyer, Irving, and Allen tested the hypothesis that early work experiences have an impact on organizational commitment where desirable work experiences will be positively related to affective and normative commitment and work values will moderate the relation between experiences and commitment (p. 34). Two different studies were conducted to test these

hypotheses. In the first study, four questionnaires were utilized. A group of 334 individuals who had recently graduated from undergraduate and graduate programs at a large university and had accepted full-time employment agreed to participate in the study. The three-component model scales comprised of three of the surveys and Manhardt's (1972) work values inventory was utilized to assess values prior to entry. The participants were surveyed at one month, six months, and one year of employment. The results of the study supported the hypothesis that positive work experiences were more prevalent with those who had affective commitment. There was some support for the second hypothesis that strong work values would moderate experiences and affective commitment. In the second study, 306 recently graduated undergraduate students agreed to participate. The participants were surveyed at the same increments as the first study (p. 41). The findings were similar as the first study. Additionally, this study showed that competence-related experiences were rated most important and comfort-related experiences were rated least important (Meyer, Irving, & Allen, Examination of the combined effects of work values and early work experiences on organizaitonal commitment, 1998).

Outcomes of Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment has consistent theoretical constructs within the existing literature surrounding loyalty to an organization, valuing oneself within the organization, and having pride within the organization. However, the existing literature does pose some opportunities for further discussion around how organizational commitment can exist with lower-level employees, with newer employees, and with employees who would like to see change within the organization. Organizations examining how they attract, retain, and engagement employees will continue to be important as the job market becomes less about employees competing for jobs and more about organizations competing for employees (Gallup,

2017). The research has shown both the positive effects of demonstrating affective and continuance commitment on turn-over intentions (Jaros, 1997; Wagner, 2007) as well as the negative effects of continuance commitment versus affective commitment where Ali found that affective commitment was found to be positively related to job performance and continuance commitment is negatively related (Ali, 2016). Further, Shore and Wayne found in a study of 383 participans that affective commitment and perceived organizationl support were positively related to organizational citizenship but continuance commitment was negatively related to organizational citeznship (Shore & Wayne, 1993). Commitment is linked to work ethic (Cohen, 1996; Hackett, Bycio, & Hausdorf, 1994); ability to telework based on commitment level (Piper, 2004); an increase in promotions, personal relationships, and favorable work conditions (Eslami & Gharakhani, 2012).

The common themes identified in the literature related to organizational commitment include loyalty, self-efficacy, belief in the organization, pride in the organization, obligation to the organization, fear of leaving the organization, commitment to the strategic plan, and positions as a stakeholder in the decisions (Buchanan II, 1974; Mercurio, 2015; Meyer & Allen, 1991). Other themes found in the literature argued that in order for employees to support and believe in the organization as a whole, the employees need to understand and believe in the direction of the organization (Jaskyte & Lee, 2009; Rahimić, Resić, & Kožo, 2012). This was further expanded with the concept that organizational commitment to the strategic direction and the goals of the organization would deepen further if the employees were to participate in the decision-making and problem-solving involved with setting direction and goals (Guillon & Cezanne, 2014; Lines & Selart 2013). The potential problem with this theme is that not all employees are involved in

the strategic decision making, especially the group of employees that this review of literature was specifically targeting – those who would benefit from career development planning.

The potential benefits found in the literature of having committed employees suggested that organizational commitment leads to increased productivity, reduced turnover, and overall happier employees (Elegido, 2012; Masakure, 2016). Additional potential benefits discussed in the literature suggested that if employees understand how their career path aligns with the strategic direction of the organization that employees and the organization create a mutual sense of commitment to this future (Lui & Wong, 2005; Zheng, Kaur, & Jun, 2010). These key theoretical constructs related to organizational commitment are summarized in Table 2.2.

Utilizing this information on the authors' key theoretical constructs in conjunction with Swanson's (2007) theory framework for applied disciplines (Figure 2.1), core theories, useful theories, and outliers can be easily identified. These theoretical constructs have been inserted into a duplication of Swanson's model in Figure 2.2. This application of the theoretical constructs found in the literature allows for a better understanding of the similarities and contrasts found within the literature. As illustrated in Figure 2.2, the core theories center on the employee's self-efficacy and the employee's pride in the organization as main catalysts toward organizational commitment. The useful contributing theories include the employee's loyalty to the organization, the employee's understanding of the strategic direction of the organization, and the employee as stakeholder in decisions. The novel theoretical constructs include the employee's fear of leaving the organization, the employee's belief in the organization, and the employee's feeling of obligation toward the organization.

Discussion of the Interaction of Themes Related to Organizational Commitment

Based on the theoretical constructs found in the literature, it would appear that an employee who is happy with the organization understands the future direction of the organization, understands his or her role within the organization, and participates in making decisions about the future of the organization would have the highest level of organizational commitment. However, many of these characteristics are more specific to the role of a manager or leader within an organization. These theoretical constructs are not addressing a large population of the organization who may be in the entry level of the organization, who may not participate in the strategic planning sessions, and who may not be a key stakeholder regarding decisions that will drive the future of the organization.

Another interesting argument on these theoretical constructs in relation to commitment is that the measurement of organizational commitment would also likely exclude employees who are new to an organization. Newer employees may not know their value yet or have loyalty or pride for the organization. Their opinions may not be driving factors in decisions, and they may not completely understand the strategic direction of the organization if they do not have a background on the organization nor a clear understanding of the organization's industry.

Finally, it is worth pointing out two potentially conflicting theories. The core key theoretical constructs that drive organizational commitment are pride in the organization along with self-efficacy. These suggest that the employee is proud of the current state of the organization and his or her role within that current state. However, two theoretical constructs suggest future and change through understanding the strategic direction as well as through understanding stakeholder in decisions. Although Senge (2006) argued that fear and aspiration are the two motivators for change within an organization. If the employees are already proud of

the organization and their role within the organization, they may have less fear or aspiration to change the organization in any way. This could further negatively affect those employees who are not currently committed but could potentially become committed if there were hope for change in the future.

Instrument Comparison

Four primary instruments to measure organizational commitment were found in the review of research literature. The literature informing each of the four survey instruments researched were examined separately. The background on each survey instrument is discussed below and then the research found is synthesized. Finally, a summary of the research and the implications for future study is discussed. As mentioned in the Research Methods, a total of 36 articles were determined to be relevant research on the basis of utilizing these instruments and the guidelines of quantitative research study. The examination of these articles and analysis of the results allowed for a synthesis of the existing research to answer the research questions and inform future research. This synthesis is discussed in the conclusion.

Comparison of Instrument Intention

Though all four instruments researched measure organizational commitment, the intention of the questionnaire and the application of the questionnaire varied (Fields, 2002). To better understand each questionnaire, the intent of the instrument as defined by the authors of the instrument and others who have researched the instrument is summarized below. The intention of this summary is to provide a better basis of understanding for future research. The questions found in each questionnaire are found in Appendices A through D at the end of this document.

Organizational commitment questionnaire

Mowday, Steers, and Porter's (1979) organizational questionnaire (OCQ) is the primary method for measuring organizational commitment (Commeiras & Fournier, 2001). Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) were among the first to suggest that when employees are committed to the organization, employees will improve productivity. The OCQ utilizes 15 questions to measure the employee's affective and behavioral commitment to the organization. The nine positively worded questions measure affective commitment and six negatively worded questions measure the employees' behavioral commitment (Commeiras & Fournier, 2001). The questions found in the OCQ are included in Appendix A of this document. Within the intent of this survey instrument, organizational commitment is characterized by three factors: (a) the employee believes in the goals of the organization, (b) the employee is willing to work for and on behalf of the organization, and (c) the employee has a strong desire to remain with the organization (Mowday et al., 1979). The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire, developed by Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) measures the affective commitment to an organization by assessing care for the organization, pride in the organization, alignment with the organization's goals, and willingness to do additional work for the organization (Mercurio, 2015).

Three-Component Model

Meyer and Allen (1990) developed the three-component model (TCM) of workplace commitment which studies affective, continuance, and normative commitment (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). The three-component model assesses the psychological state of the employee's commitment to the organization and the potential impacts this will have on an employee's performance (Allen & Meyer, 1991). Allen and Meyer (1991) found that an affectively committed employee demonstrated the type of work ethic, such as attendance and effort, which positively correlated with organizational commitment. A normatively committed employee did

what is obligated, and this employee stayed with the organization because of obligation. A continuance committed employee did the minimum requirements to keep his or her job (Allen & Meyer, 1991). The first set of questions in the three-component model, published in 1991, produced results inconsistent with empirical findings, and the model was later revised in 1993 (Solinger, van Olffen, & Roe, 2008). The questions found in the most recent three-component model are included in Appendix B of this document.

Organizational Commitment Scale

Balfour and Wechsler (1996) developed the organizational commitment scale (OCS). This scale was specifically designed to measure the commitment of public sector employees (Balfour & Wechsler, 1996). The organizational commitment scale uses nine items to measure three dimensions of organizational commitment identified as pride in the organization, identification with the organization, and the employee's perceived level of appreciation received from the organization (Fields, 2002). The questions found in the organizational commitment scale are included in Appendix C of this document.

Psychological Attachment Instrument

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) developed the psychological attachment instrument to assess the three levels of commitment to an organization that they identified as internalization, identification, and compliance (Fields, 2002). This instrument found that the overall organizational commitment level correlated highly with the employee's perception of their job importance, the process of performance appraisals, and their perceived fairness of pay (Martin & Bennett, 1996). Overall, this survey contains 12 questions which form two subscales: (a) identification and internalization and (b) compliance (Sutton & Harrison, 1993). The questions found in the psychological attachment instrument are included in Appendix D of this document.

Comparison of Instrument Reliability

Fields (2011) reported the reliability of each of the four instruments based on studies published by researchers who used the instruments. These reported reliabilities are summarized in Table 2.4. All four instruments' ranges of reliability were typically above the .70 standard, which showed that the instrument demonstrated consistency (Song & Chermack, 2008). However, Gliner, Morgan, and Leech (2009) pointed out that when using the same instrument for pretest and posttest, the participants may gain knowledge of the questions and may alter their score. For this reason, Gliner et al. recommended a coefficient of at least a .80 for parallel forms reliability. The reliability of these instruments provide input, in association with the intent of the research instrument, to better inform future research.

Table 2.4

Reliability by Instruments Researched in Research Articles

Survey Name	Reliability	Cited Studies
Organizational commitment questionnaire	Coefficient alpha values ranged from .81 to .93.	Becker (1992); Brett, Cron, and Slocum (1995); Cohen and Hudecek (1993); Gunz and Ungz (1994); Hackett, Bycio, and Hausdorf (1994); Hochwater, Perrewe, Ferris, and Gercio (1999); Johnston and Snizek (1991); Kacmar, Carlson, and Brymer (1999); Lee and Johnson (1991); Marsden, Kalleberg, and Cook (1993); Mathieu (1991); Mathieu and Farr (1991); Millward and Hopkins (1998); Riggs and Knight (1994); Sommer, Bae, and Luthns (1996); Zeffane (1994)
Three-component model	Coefficient alpha values ranged from .77 to .88 for affective commitment, .65 to .86 for normative commitment, and from .69 to .84 for continuance commitment.	Allen and Meyer (1990a); Cohen (1996, 1999); Cohen and Kirchmeyer (1995); Hackett et al. (1994); Meyer and Allen (1997); Meyer, Irving, and Allen (1998); Somers (1995); Somers and Birnbaum (1998)
Organizational commitment scale	Coefficient alpha values ranged from .72 to .83.	Balfour & Wechsler (1996); Kacmar et al. (1999)
Psychological attachment instrument	Coefficient alpha values ranged from .86 to .91.	Harris, Hirschfield, Field, and Mossholder (1993); Martin and Bennett (1996); Pillai, Schriesheim, and Williams, (1999); Sutton and Harrison (1993)

Note. Adopted from Fields (2011).

Summary of Instruments

The instruments found to measure organizational commitment appear to be consistent in the questions, the research reliability, and the findings. Many questions found in these instruments utilized the following words: pride, friends, and value. This suggests that perhaps the survey creators felt that an employee's commitment centered on the ability to connect with the organization and to feel a sense of belonging. O'Reilly & Chatman (1986) argued that

commitment reflects the psychological bond that the employee feels towards the organization. By measuring that level of attachment, organizations can better understand where their shortcomings may be in providing the level of connection for the employee.

Research Literature Related to Organizational Commitment Instruments

As shown in Table 2.1, 100 articles were originally examined during the review of research literature related to organizational commitment. Of these 100, 36 of the articles were research articles that used one of the survey instruments for measuring organizational commitment. The additional 30 articles identified by Fields (2011) in Table 1.2 were also examined. This brought the total number of research articles related to measuring organizational commitment to 66.

Organizational Commitment Questionnaire Research Literature

The research literature found related to the OCQ showed strong positively correlated trends between organizational commitment and high-performance work practices (HPWP; Macky & Boxall, 2007; Taylor, Levy, Boyacigiller, & Beechler, 2008), as well as organizational commitment and satisfaction in career (Mowday et al., 1979; Naqui & Bushir, 2008; Burhani, Jalali, Abbuszadeh, & Haghdoost, 2013). However, the literature also showed a negative correlation with organizational commitment and tenured employees (Wright & Bonett, 2002; Nijhof, 1998), revealing that the survey was not multidimensional enough to accurately conclude a level of organizational commitment for an employee as it needed considerations of attitudinal and behavioral implications (Ghosh & Swamy, 2014; Nijhof, 1998). Two studies focused on a manager's ability to predict the levels of affective and continuance commitment found in their employees (Shore, Barksdale, & Shore, 1995; Mahajan, Bishop, & Scott, 2012) and found that

the managers were able to accurately predict the employees who would score highly in affective commitment and those that would score highly in continuance commitment.

The literature showed varied applications of the OCQ and though the coefficient alpha values were consistently between .81 and .95, the discussion in the research results largely highlighted the need for more depth than the survey provided (Ghosh & Swamy, 2014; Nijohof, 1998; Shore et al., 1995). Macky and Boxell (2007) found that the four work attitude variables varied in degrees with the strongest between job satisfaction: r (367) = .766, p = .000. The weakest variables were with behavioral commitment: r (367) = .623, p = .000. For this reason, Macky and Boxell ran the results using multivariate analyses of covariance (MANCOVA) which resulted in a clear distinction that job satisfaction, trust in management, and organizational commitment are not independent of organizational commitment (p. 551). The discrepancies in the OCQ research literature revealed that perhaps there is more to organizational commitment than an employee's current situation within their role, tenure, and work ethic (Nijhof, 1998).

One study used the OCQ as a way to measure turnover intention. Surveyed two groups of people: 158 engineers at an aerospace company and 158 MBA students who were employed full time at various organizations. Found that continuance commitment has a significant, negative effect on turnover intentions when normative commitment is low but not when normative commitment is high. Normative commitment predicts turnover intnetions when continuance commitment is low, but not when it is high (Jaros S. J., An Assessment of Meyer and Allen's (1991) Three-Component Model of Organizational Commitment on Turnover Intentions, 1997). One study surveyed 270 employees in order to examine the commitment-turnover relationship utilizing the withdrawl process as a linear process of when an employee thinks about leaving until ultimate turnover and found that the type of commitment is associated with turnover intent

but did crticize that the overall turnover at the organizaation studied was low (9% respectively), so there may be other reasons why turnover intention was not found to be directly associated with the type of commitment (Jaros, Jermier, Koehler, & Sincich, 1993).

Three-Component Model Research Literature

The research literature found that the three-component model (TCM) was reliable for measuring affective, normative, and continuous commitment (Lingard & Lin, 2003; Meyer et al., 2004; Yuan & Le, 2012). Much of the research literature that utilized the TCM examined other relationships to predict affective commitment (Shore et al., 1995; Zopiatis, Constanti & Theocharous, 2013), to correlate commitment with performance (Pinho, Rodrigues & Dibb, 2014; Wright & Bonett, 2002) and to identify what other dimensional relationships have a correlation with an employee's type and level of commitment towards and organization (Mignonac & Richebe, 2013; Solinger et al., 2008).

Some of the research challenged that the TCM needs to consider other factors such as performance, absenteeism, and job satisfaction in order to enhance the accuracy of measuring commitment (Jaros, 2007; Shore et al., 1995). Pinho et al. (2014) explored the relationships between culture, market orientation, organizational performance, and organizational commitment and found that though culture did not seem to impact commitment, there was as significant impact on both organizational commitment and organizational performance by market orientation. Pinho et al. (2014) found in this same research that organizational commitment did not have a correlation with performance; however, Wright and Bonett (2002) found that the two were directly correlated, but that the relationship between performance and commitment decayed exponentially as a function of tenure.

Other research focused on the relationships between an employee's personal lives (Lingard & Lin, 2003), the relationship between employees at work (Meyer et al., 2004), and the level of involvement from management (Mignonac & Richebe, 2013) with an employee's level of commitment. These respective studies found that work-family interface did not correlate to commitment (Lingard & Lin, 2003). A strong correlation existed between an employee's level of commitment and the use of goal setting as a method of accountability (Meyer et al., 2004) there was a positive correlation between labor relations on affective commitment (Yuan & Li, 2012). Furthermore, research showed that decreased involvement from management, was positively correlated with organizational commitment and negatively correlated with levels of turnover (Mignonac & Richebe, 2013).

Perhaps one of the most consistent constructs found in the research using the TCM was the relationship with job satisfaction on an employee's level of organizational commitment (Jaros, 2007; Wright & Bonett, 2002; Zopiatis et al., 2013). Overall, the research that looked at the relationship between job satisfaction and affective commitment showed a strong correlation (Jaros, 2007; Wright & Bonett, 2002). However, Zopiatis et al. (2013) posited that this correlation was positive if the job satisfaction was intrinsic and not extrinsic. Zopiatis et al. stated that if the job satisfaction was extrinsic, or being done for someone else, there was a negative association with affective correlation and an increase in turnover intention.

Organizational Commitment Scale Research Literature

Research that utilized the OCS added independent variables, such as work-family conflict, antecedents to commitment, age, gender, marital status, tenure, job satisfaction and union management. (Benligray & Sonmez, 2012; Kacmar et al., 1999; Steinhaus & Perry, 1996) in order to identify correlations with these independent variables and their effect on the level of

organizational commitment from the employee. As such, the Cronbach's alpha values varied widely amongst the literature ranging from .68 to .87.

Studies that focused on the relationship with leadership behavior and the level of organizational commitment were highly correlated (Kacmar et al., 1999; Tatlah, Ali & Saed, 2011; Steinhaus & Perry, 1996;). Though hypothesized, the results show consistency with the research conducted utilizing other survey instruments. Belingray & Sonmez (2012) found that job dissatisfaction was significantly correlated with lowering organizational commitment levels and that amongst the seven state hospitals that participated in the research, both doctors and nurses reported that long hours led to job dissatisfaction and lower motivation.

Steinhaus and Perry (1996) utilized the OCS in a study where they utilized data from the 1991 General Social Survey from the University of Chicago. During this survey, data were collected from 1,517 individuals through a 1 ½ hour interview. The information collected from these interviews was then applied to the OCS. Utilizing hierarchical multiple regression allowed the researchers to enter independent variables in blocks and prioritize toward predicting their dependent variable. The researchers then explored whether industry or public vs. private sector played a part in commitment to an organization. Their analysis concluded that public vs. private sector did not make a difference. However, industry did play a difference. Those in wholesale manufacturing and finance and insurance were more positively correlated with organizational commitment. However, those in professional services such as education and health care were more negatively correlated with organizational commitment (Steinhaus & Perry, 1996).

Research utilizing the OCS correlated personal characteristics and organizational commitment (Kacmar et al., 1999; Liou, Tsai & Cheng, 2013; Steinhaus & Perry, 1996). The researchers concluded that age, gender and marital status were not found to have a statistically

significant impact on organizational commitment (Kacmar, et al., 1999; Steinhaus & Perry, 1996); however, tenure with the organization was found to be highly correlated (Steinhaus & Perry, 1996). It should be noted that Liou et al. (2013) explored differing demographic backgrounds on the use of the survey and concluded that further research needed to be conducted on the Asian population, as the results were inconclusive for this demographic.

The last prevalent topic found in the research literature that used the OCS was the independent variable of job satisfaction and how strong the correlation was to the level of organizational commitment (Arogundade Odunayo & Arogundade Ayodeji Oladipo, 2014; Benligray & Sonmez, 2012; Kacmar et al., 1999; Steinhaus & Perry, 1996). Research showed that the higher the employee's commitment to his or her career, the higher the commitment to the organization (Arogundade et al, 2014). Research found that the employee's perceived sense of justice within the organization directly impacted the level of job satisfaction, and the level of organizational commitment (Kacmar et al., 1999).

Psychological Attachment Instrument Research Literature

The psychological attachment instrument (PAI) is credited for finding positive relationships between organizational commitment and compensation or reward (Hollman, 2008; Fields, 2002). Malhotra and Galletta (1999) assessed the acceptance and use of new technology in an organization. The PSI was chosen for the study because it assessed three processes that affect individual behavior: compliance, identification, and internalization (Malhotra & Galletta, 1999). Each process was characterized by a distinct set of antecedent conditions which could cause the behavior of the employee to either accept and use the new technology, or to reject the technology (Malhotra & Galletta, 1999). Malhorta and Galletta (1999) found that the principal component analysis with varimax yielded two distinct factors instead of the instrument's

intended. Identification and internalization were grouped together in one factor and compliance in the other. The alphas ranged from .7043 to .8010. The study concluded that identification and internalization had a direct positive impact on the employee's acceptance of the technology, and that compliance had a direct negative impact on the employee's acceptance of the technology (Malhotra & Galletta, 1999).

In another study, Caldwell, Chatman, and O'Reilly (1990) utilized the PAI to assess the link between firm recruitment and socialization practices to individual commitment. Data were collected from 323 employees across 47 firms. 196 of the employees were in 39 high technology companies and 127 of the employees were entry level accountants in eight public accounting firms. The researchers hypothesized that (1) recruitment processes that provide individuals with a realistic understanding of what day-to-day life will be like will have higher levels of commitment; (2) socialization processes that are strongly associated with organizational values with be associated with higher levels of commitment; and (3) socialization processes that have high reward systems with be associated with higher levels of commitment. Overall, the findings of the study supported the hypotheses. Interestingly, the researchers found that these recruiting and socialization practices led to higher levels of normative commitment (p. 256). According to the researchers, the study highlights that commitment comes both from intrinsic and extrinsic underlying factors. The proposed implications for practice are that reward and onboarding systems are important for aligning new employees with the organizations values and developing commitment (Caldwell, Chatman, & O'Reilly, 1990).

Summary

The current research literature reflects existing research centered on implementing human resource development practices that could potentially have a direct impact on organizational

turnover and organizational commitment (Guthrie, 2001; MacDuffie, 1996; Wood, 1995). However, Appelbaum et al. (2000, p.127) concluded that there has been insufficient evidence; thus, further research is needed around the synergistic interaction effects among human resource development efforts and the effect on turnover and organizational commitment. Understanding and measuring the effects of these development efforts can be as important as measuring the financial results of an organization; however, measuring development efforts is not a standard practice for all organizations (Swanson & Holton III, 1999).

Evaluation of the intention of the instruments found that these survey instruments are intended to measure organizational commitment and could be used as a pre-test and post-test instrument to measure the effects of career development planning on organizational commitment to the organization. The existing research also reflected that the existing survey instruments range in alpha values. This could be due to the additional aspects that the researchers were assessing in addition to using the survey instrument. Finally, the existing research shows strong correlations between leadership, job satisfaction, and career commitment to commitment to an organization (Arogundade et al, 2014; Burhani et al, 2013; Mowday et al, 1979).

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

This chapter discusses the methods used to conduct this study. Based on the review of literature, there was a basis for developing the research questions and hypotheses to determine if conducting career development training would improve organizational commitment. With the turnover rates increasing, retirement rates increasing, and costs of training and turnover at all-time highs, there is a need for additional empirical research to provide human resource practitioners with information about mitigating this issue and increasing organizational effectiveness. The data were collected to analyze the effectiveness of career development training being used as an intervention to increase or create affective commitment to the organization. The goal of this research is to add to the scholarly research and to provide organizational leaders with information to create or improve affective commitment in order to improve the workplace environment and to achieve organizational objectives while reducing turnover.

The purpose of this quantitative, randomized experimental design was to explore the relationship between career development planning and the potential correlation of an employee's affective commitment at a large gas organization in the United States. The study measured: (1) affective commitment levels, (2) continuance commitment levels, (3) normative commitment levels, and (4) overall commitment levels towards the organization. Affective commitment is experienced when employees have positive emotional ties to the organization and is associated with high job satisfaction. Continuous commitment is experienced when an employee does not leave the organization out of fear of costs associated with leaving and finding a new job. Normative commitment is experienced when an employee is staying with the organization out of obligation or not wanting to break the norm (Jaros, 2007; Allen & Meyer, 1996).

Significance of the Study

This study intended to contribute new knowledge to the Human Resource Development (HRD) literature through investigating the causal relationship between career development planning and organizational commitment in the workplace. As shown in the conceptual framework, an employee's commitment to the organization is predicted to be positively impacted by implementing a career development plan. The more that the employee feels that the organization is investing in their training, and development, the more likely the employee is to display commitment toward the organization. If the relationship is found to be significant, then career development planning could answer many of the believed struggles with the job satisfaction and increase retention and engagement in the workplace. Additionally, career development planning could be determined to serve as an important antecedent of organizational commitment. This study will provide future researchers with additional theoretical background to conduct further research on the effects of career development planning on organizational commitment. Finally, this study strives to contribute new knowledge to United States oil companies by informing: 1) how to improve affective commitment, and 2) how to convert normative or continuance commitment to affective commitment.

Research Design

This study was a quantitative, randomized experimental design to examine the relationship between career development planning and participants affective commitment to the organization, as measured by the Mowday et al.'s (1979) Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) and Meyer and Allen's (2004) Three Component Model (TCM). As discussed in Chapter 2, the OCQ is effective in associating organizational commitment and high-performance work practices. However, it lacks the ability to measure behavioral practices. The

TCM is effective in measuring levels of commitment and job satisfaction but does not measure work practices. By utilizing both, the research aimed to analyze the effects of the career development training through both lenses of research and better understand affective commitment as it relates to job satisfaction and high-performance work practices.

The proposed research design sought to measure how a career development planning intervention affects measures of organizational commitment. The study utilized a quantitative experimental design to test the effects of the intervention on both active and non-active (control group) participants' affective commitment to the organization. The OCQ and the TCM were utilized as a pre-test (T1) and post-test survey (T3) instrument for both participants in the intervention and the control group at approximately the same time interval as shown in Table 3.1. As illustrated in Table 3.1, the control group did not receive any type of intervention during the participants career development training intervention (T2).

Table 3.1

Experimental Design

Group	T1	T2	T3
Experimental Group	OCQ and TCM Pre-Test	Career Development Training Intervention	OCQ and TCM Post-Test
Control Group	OCQ and TCM Pre-Test		OCQ and TCM Post-Test

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The purpose of this quantitative experimental study was to examine the relationship between career development and organizational commitment among employees working in the customer service department in a large natural gas organization in the United States. The level of

commitment change for control group participants was also assessed. The research questions and subsequent hypotheses are as follows:

RQ1. What is the relationship, if any, between career development planning and an employee's level of affective commitment to an organization as measured by the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) and the Three Component Model (TCM)?

$H1_0$. A career development intervention will positively increase an employee's affective commitment to an organization.

$H1_a$. A career development intervention will have no statistically significant effect on an employee's affective commitment to an organization.

RQ2. What is the relationship, if any, between career development planning and an employee's level of continuous commitment to an organization as measured by the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) and the Three Component Model (TCM)?

$H2_0$. A career development intervention will positively impact employees currently experiencing continuous commitment and will transition the employees to affective commitment to an organization.

$H2_a$. A career development intervention will have no statistically significant effect on an employee's continuous commitment to an organization.

RQ3. What is the relationship, if any, between career development planning and an employee's level of normative commitment to an organization as measured by the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) and the Three Component Model (TCM)?

$H3_0$. A career development intervention will positively impact employees currently experiencing normative commitment and will transition the employees to affective commitment to an organization.

$H3_a$. A career development intervention will have no statistically significant effect on an employee's normative commitment to an organization.

RQ4. What is the relationship, if any, between career development planning and the ability to increase an employee's level of affective commitment to an organization as measured by the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) and the Three Component Model (TCM)?

$H4_0$. A career development intervention will impact an employee's level of commitment to the organization.

$H4_a$. The control group that does not have the career development intervention will have no impact on their level of commitment to the organization.

Population and Sample

A large natural gas organization with approximately 4,300 employees based in the United States Mid-West provided access to the selected population for this study. The study was conducted within the customer service group which included 430. The participants were comprised of customer service specialists and customer service managers. The participant's work locations were dispersed across the United States, however, the participants primarily worked remotely. The participants were randomly assigned into two groups: those who received the training intervention (experimental group) and those who did not receive the training intervention (control group). 215 participants were assigned to the control group and 215 participants were assigned to the experimental group. The control group did not receive any treatment but did receive the pre-test and the post-test (see Table 3.1) at approximately the same time as the experimental group.

Recruitment emails were sent to all employees within the customer service group letting them know if they had been selected for the experimental group or the control group. Those who were selected for the experimental group received a link to an online training where they received access to the pre-test which had to be completed before they could begin the career development training. Access to the training was granted for three months. Once they completed the pre-test, they had access to the intervention training. Those who were not selected for the intervention received a link to survey-monkey that administered the pre-test. Three months after receiving the first link to the survey, they received a second link to the post-test.

Intervention Training

The intervention training was set up as on online in an online training conducted by the organization and focused on career development specific to the organization and to the customer service department. Within the training, there were career discussions and opportunities within the organization. Employees learned about the investment by the organizations in their employees, their career path, and the training that is available to help employees perform at a higher level. The training was required for all customer service personnel. The training took approximately three days to complete. The employees were randomly assigned to the first group (experimental group) or to the second group (the control group).

Informed consent was essential to ensure that the participants in both the experimental group and the control group were aware of any perceived risks from participating in the research. The informed consent form was included at the beginning of the survey for both the experimental group and the control group. Each participant had to indicate agreement to the consent form or decline to participate before the internet-based system would allow the

participant to proceed to the survey. The logic within the online survey system prevented a participant from proceeding without agreeing to consent.

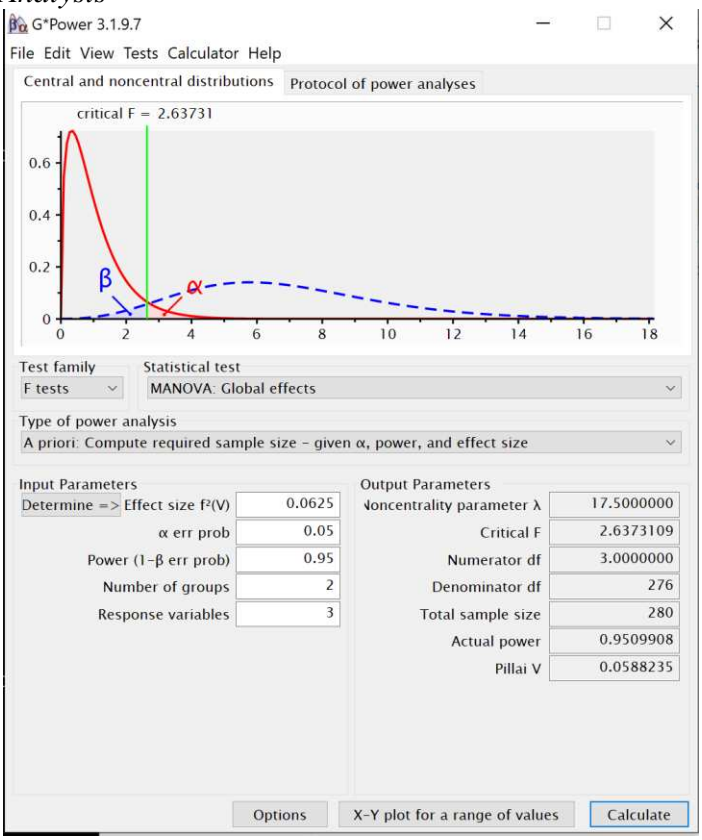
To protect the confidentiality of the participants, the survey account were private accounts to which only the researcher had access to see the results of the survey answers and training answers. A private, locked, computer was utilized to store the data. Survey respondents were given randomized user-numbers so that the pre-test could be analyzed against the post-test. The randomized numbers had no personal identifier information included where it could be linked back to the respondent by anyone other than the researcher.

Power Analysis

Using G* Power (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007), a power analysis was conducted and revealed that 280 total participants would be required for the research study. The calculation was conducted using F-tests and MANOVA Global effects. The analysis considered two groups with three response variables. This number of participants would achieve a power rating of 0.95 with alpha of 0.05and the effect size of $f^2 = 0.0625$ as shown in Figure 3.1. The customer service group consisted of 430 people which exceeded this requirement.

Figure 3.1

Power Analysis



Instruments and Measurement

To measure the level of commitment that an employee felt towards the organization before they received their career development training and after receiving their development training, the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) and the Three Component Model (TCM) were administered as a pre-test and a post-test. While both the OCQ and the TCM measure commitment, they have each been credited with strengths and weaknesses of their measurements. Both are widely used in measuring and understanding commitment. As discussed in Chapter 2, the OCQ is effective in associating organizational commitment and high-performance work practices although it lacks the ability to measure behavioral practices. The TCM is effective in measuring levels of commitment and job satisfaction but does not measure

work practices. By utilizing both, the research aimed to analyze the effects of the career development training through both lenses of research and better understand affective commitment as it relates to job satisfaction and high-performance work practices.

Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

Mowday et al. (1979) developed the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) as a measurement tool for understanding the employee's attitude, the employee's affective commitment to the organization, and the employee's participation in decision-making and work practices (Fields, 2002). The literature showed varied applications of the OCQ and though the coefficient alpha values were consistently between .81 and .95, the discussion in the research results largely highlighted the need for more depth than the survey provided (Ghosh & Swamy, 2014; Nijohof, 1998; Shore et al., 1995). The OCQ consists of 15 questions and a seven-point Likert scale (1 – strongly disagree and 7 – strongly agree) measurement tool. The survey can be reviewed in Appendix A of this document.

Three Component Model (TCM)

Meyer and Allen (1991) developed the Three Component Model to measure affective, continuous, and normative commitment to the organization arguing that each different type of commitment has different performance implications (Meyer & Allen, A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment, 1991). The literature showed varying coefficient alpha values for each of the elements of the TCM. Coefficient alpha values ranged from .77 to .88 for affective commitment, .65 to .86 for normative commitment, and from .69 to .84 for continuance commitment (Fields, 2002). The TCM consists of 24 questions and a seven-point Likert scale (1 – strongly disagree and 7 – strongly agree) measurement tool. Each of the types of commitment have eight questions associated with them. This breakout is shown in Table

3.2 for affective commitment, Table 3.3 for continuance commitment, and Table 3.4 for normative commitment. Appendix B contains the actual survey questionnaire completed by the participants.

Table 3.2

Affective Commitment Statements

I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization
I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it
I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own
I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one (-)
I do not feel like 'part of the family at my organization (-)
This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me
I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization (-)
I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up (-)

Table 3.3

Continuance Commitment Statements

I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up (-)
It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to
Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now
It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organization now (-)
Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire
I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization
One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives
One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice – another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here

Table 3.4

Normative Commitment Statements

I think that people these days move from company to company too often
I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization (-)
Jumping from organization to organization does not seem at all unethical to me (-)
One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain
If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere, I would not feel it was right to leave my organization
I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization
Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organization for most of their careers
I do not think that wanting to be a 'company man' or 'company woman' is sensible anymore (-)

Data Collection Method

The data were collected through online platforms due to the participants being located all over the United States and primarily teleworking during the time of the intervention. An online survey administration tool, survey monkey (www.surveymonkey.com), facilitated the collection of the data for the control group using a seven-point Likert scale (1 – strongly disagree and 7 – strongly agree) for both the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire and for the Three Component Model. Data were collected through the online career development training intervention for the experimental group participants. The training platform offered a "quiz" module which allowed for the same seven-point Likert scale to be used for both survey instruments and for both the pre-test and the both-test. Both platforms offered the ability to ensure that the survey was only completed once per each participant. There was not a time-limit

to complete the survey. The demographical information of age, gender, level within the organization, and tenure with the organization were included in the surveys to assess if there are any other correlations with type of commitment and demographical information.

Data Analysis Procedures

The data were analyzed using a one-way MANOVA because of the one independent variable and four dependent variables. The active, independent variable was the Career Development Training intervention, which had two levels: participant and control group. "The one-way multivariate analysis of variance (one-way MANOVA) is used to determine whether there are any differences between independent groups on more than one continuous dependent variable. In this regard, it differs from the one-way ANOVA, which measures only one dependent variable" (Laerd Statistics, 2018, para. 1). First, exploring the groupings of the variables to understand the relationship and any outliers. Second, to test the hypothesis utilizing MANOVA and understand the type of organizational commitment in both the pre-test and post-test. Finally, comparing the organizational commitment levels by control group and experimental group.

Assumptions

There are nine assumptions that had to be verified to ensure that a one-way MANOVA could be applied (Laerd Statistics, 2018). Assumptions one through four can be confirmed based on the research design. Assumptions five through nine can be checked utilizing SPSS Statistics.

- Assumption 1 was that there are two or more dependent variables that are continuous. Performance or score is an example of a continuous variable, so this assumption was validated.

- Assumption 2 was that the independent variable consisted of two or more independent groups. The population sample was divided into a test group and a control group, so this assumption was validated.
- Assumption 3 was that there was independence of observations. There were no participants participating in both the control and the test group, so this assumption was validated.
- Assumption 4 was that there was an adequate sample size. Based on the Q*Power results discussed earlier in this chapter, there were adequate participants in the sample size.
- Assumption 5 was that there are no univariate or multivariate outliers. Outliers are often found when t-tests are conducted but were measured utilizing Mahalanobis distance and any found were discussed.
- Assumption 6 was that there was multivariate normality. While this is difficult to measure, it could be tested for using SPSS Statistics using the Shapiro-Wilk test of normality.
- Assumption 7 was that there was a linear relationship between each pair of dependent variables for each group of the independent variable. This could be tested for by plotting a scatterplot matrix using SPSS Statistics.
- Assumption 8 was that there was homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices. This could be tested for utilizing Box's M test of equality of covariance in SPSS Statistics.
- Assumption 9 was that there was no multicollinearity. While this can be problematic for a MANOVA showing low correlation, each dependent variable

can be run separately as a one-way ANOVA and discussed in the results of the research.

The research design met all nine necessary assumptions to run a one-way MANOVA and there were adequate plans for testing any abnormalities in the data and discuss the results for any assumptions that could not be verified prior to the research.

Limitations

Potential limitations with this research design are generalizability and contamination. As the intervention is self-paced, and interaction with the participants is limited to the online class format, there is potential for the participant to not go through each of the exercises thoroughly and receive the complete intervention as intended (Kapp, Blair, & Mesch, 2014).

Generalizability

Potential threats to validity of this study are that it is a case study within one department of one organization. Furthermore, although the participation in either the control group or the experimental group was randomly assigned, the generalizability of findings may be limited to similar populations and industries (Yin, 2003).

Contamination

Potential contamination could have occurred during this study as the participants in the control group and the experimental group work in the same organization and the same department. Any discussion between experimental group participants and control group participants may create a bias.

Summary

This chapter described the research design, methodology, and associated issues related to the administration, instrumentation, and confidentiality of the described intervention. The

research sample was 430 customer service and customer service managers of a United States gas company. The measurement tools used for this study were the Three-Component Model (Meyer & Allen, A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment, 1991) and the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979), designed to measure the commitment of the participants in the experimental and control groups. The surveys were completed online, and informed consent was stated that the company would not have access to the responses and assured confidentiality of the participants. Participants were placed into either the experimental group or the control group through random sampling. The next chapter describes the findings of the research, the outcome of the data analysis procedures, and the association between the variables.

Chapter 4: RESULTS

The purpose of the study was to a) explore the impact of career development planning on the employee's commitment to the organization of employees in a large natural gas organization in the United States; b) investigate the impact of having a career development plan on the employee types of commitment to the organization; c) measure affective commitment levels, continuance commitment levels, and normative commitment levels towards the organization. In this chapter, the various data preparation operations are described first, followed by the descriptive statistics which give one insight into the utilized dataset. This description of the data includes not only tabular information, but also graphical information depicting the distributions of the study's variables. Following the descriptive statistics, the inferential statistical subsections have the results related to testing the study's hypotheses, ascertaining whether one can ascribe the sample's differences to the target population. Detailed inferential statistical results are provided in tabular form, and key aspects of those results are highlighted in the accompanying text. Following these subsections, wording is included that unambiguously states whether each of the study's hypotheses was upheld or not upheld.

Data Acquisition

As described in Chapter 3, two organizational commitment surveys were administered as a pre-test and a post-test using an electronic survey tool. The data was exported from the survey instrument to excel. Within that file each respondent's data was provided as two separate lines: a pre-test line and a post-test line (provided the respondent completed the process). These lines were paired by email address (IDs were always different for pre-test and post-test responses, and respondents had different IP addresses for their pre-test and post-test responses. Hence, neither of these variables could be used to pair a respondent's input). In the research design, respondents

were divided into two groups: an experimental group and a control group. Both the experimental and control groups were given the pre-test and post-test. The key differentiator between the handling of the experimental group and the control group was the insertion of a treatment phase between the pre-test and the post-test for just the experimental group. The control group received the same treatment following the completion of the study.

The exported datafile contained 239-line items. Of those line items 140 responses were pre-test responses; Ninety-four were post-test responses and five were uncharacterized as pre- or post-test responses. The five uncharacterized lines included test items and other fragmentary data items and were eliminated from the analysis. Hence, the maximum potentially usable number of respondents was 94, assuming every post-test response could be paired with a pre-test response. The determination of the actual usable responses is detailed below in the Data Conditioning section of this report.

Data Conditioning

Preparation of the data for analysis included several pre-analysis operations described in the subsections below. This preparation included construction of a single SPSS data file from the data obtained in the above-described Excel file. Then results were checked for accuracy by examination for potentially erroneous values.

Data Reorganization and Conditioning

The exported dataset was comprised of individual response items from the two utilized instruments. Both instruments utilized a seven-point Likert scale. The values for each item were reverse coded if the wording associated with the item had the reverse sense of the construct being measured.

A number of steps were performed on the exported data to condition it for statistical analysis. First, pre-and post-response sets had to be matched and combined into a single line item per respondent in the SPSS file. Second, categorical variables were coded for easier processing. Throughout these processes and all the subsequent data conditioning, the obtained demographic material was maintained in the datafile along with all the data items needed for the variable construction (described in the next subsection). After the above matching, there were 56 respondents with at least some pre- and post-data. Thirty-one of those respondents were in the control group and 25 of the respondents were in the experimental group. (Since there were 94 post-test responses in the received dataset, the above matching reduced the potentially usable data by 40%.)

Importantly, there was a sizeable number of the responses paired above that nevertheless were missing a high percentage of the response items, primarily in the post-test portion of the data. There were also a number of cases where responses were relatively randomly missing. This resulted in a final usable dataset of 41 cases: 25 control group respondents and 16 experimental group respondents (an additional 16% reduction).

Scale Development and Other Coding. At this juncture it is important to note that, although pre- and post-data were part of this study, it is not a longitudinal data study. The study analyzed differences between the experimental and control groups with respect to the changes observed pre- and post-treatment. Hence, the study utilizes a cross-sectional design.

As the Variable Construction and Operationalization subsection of the Methods chapter explains, a variable *Affective Change* is needed to test *Hypothesis 1*. In this chapter's text and tables this variable is labeled *AffectCommitDelta*. It was constructed by differencing the pre- and

post-treatment Affective Commitment scores such that a positive result would mean the post-treatment score was higher than the pre-treatment score.

As the same section of the Methods Chapter explains, a variable *AffectContRatio Change* is needed to test *Hypothesis 2*. In this chapter this variable is labeled *AffectContRatioDelta*. It was constructed as the difference between the *ratio* of Affective Commitment to Continuous Commitment Pre-treatment, and the *ratio* of Affective Commitment to Continuous Commitment Post-treatment. A positive result for *AffectContRatioDelta* means that the post-treatment value was higher than the pre-treatment value.

Again, as the Methods chapter explains, a variable *AffectNormRatio Change* is needed to test *Hypothesis 3*. In this chapter this variable is labeled *AffectNormRatioDelta*. It was constructed as the difference between the *ratio* of Affective Commitment to Normative Commitment Pre- treatment, and the *ratio* of Affective Commitment to Normative Commitment Post-treatment. A positive result for *AffectNormRatioDelta* means that the post-treatment value was higher than the pre-treatment value.

Finally, as the Methods chapter explains, a variable *Overall Change* is needed to test *Hypothesis 4*. In this chapter this variable is labeled *OverallCommitDelta*. It was constructed by differencing the pre- and post- treatment Overall Commitment scores such that a positive result would mean the post- treatment score was higher than the pre- treatment score.

Data Validity Checks. The utilized cases were subjected to general checks designed to ferret out invalid responses due to malingering or due to respondents' misinterpretations. In this category were checks for out-of-range or extreme answers (outliers). Histograms (with normal curves overlaid) and boxplots were constructed for the variables utilized in the MANOVA as

well as some related metric variables. Figures 4.1 through 4.8 below are the histograms (with normal curves overlaid) and boxplots of all the ordinal variables in the study.

Since one of the assumptions of MANOVAs and ANOVAs is that variables are approximately normally distributed (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2019), the histograms of the variables were examined for approximate normality. The variables analyzed in this regard were all four of the dependent variables of this study. In addition, two variables tangential to this study were included in this analysis to provide information that could enhance one's understanding of the environment studied. These two additional variables were *ContCommitDelta* and *NormCommitDelta*. These variables were the pre- and post-treatment changes of Continuous Commitment and Normative Commitment respectively.

Most of the histograms exhibited gaps where no cases were present: a not unexpected result, given the small sample size of the utilizable data. Likewise, a few of the histograms showed "spikes" in the distributions which disrupted an otherwise roughly normal distribution. Hence, given the small sample size, the distributions were not otherwise considered abnormal enough to suggest problems with the analysis. Naturally, caution should be used in drawing hard conclusions from this study, given the small sample size.

A *Shapiro-Wilks* test was performed on all four of the dependent variables. Whether measured overall or by the experimental and control groups individually, the *Shapiro-Wilkes* test was always insignificant ($p>.05$). Though this insignificance tends to indicate that these variables are normally distributed, the *Shapiro-Wilks* test is quite sensitive to sample size, so it is not providing any *additional* assurance the distributions are normal.

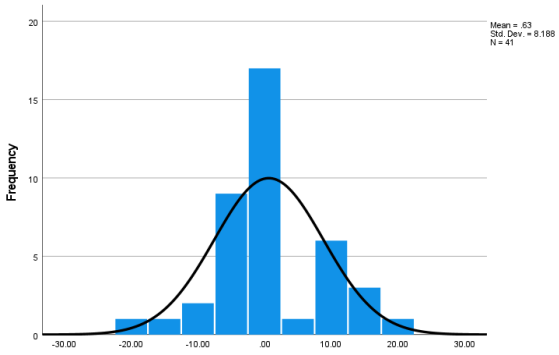


Figure 4.1: Histogram, OverallCommitDelta

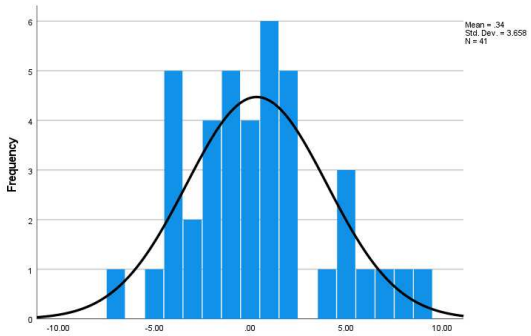


Figure 4.2: Histogram, AffectCommitDelta

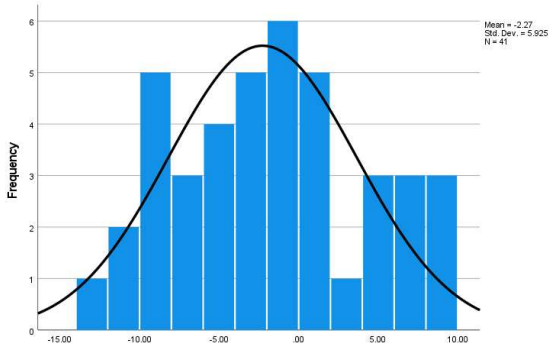


Figure 4.3: Histogram, ContCommitDelta

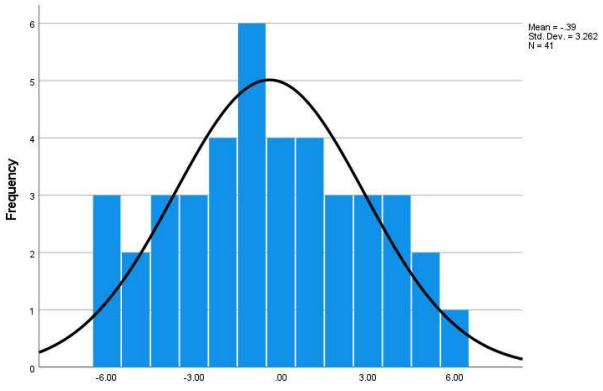


Figure 4.4: Histogram, NormCommitDelta

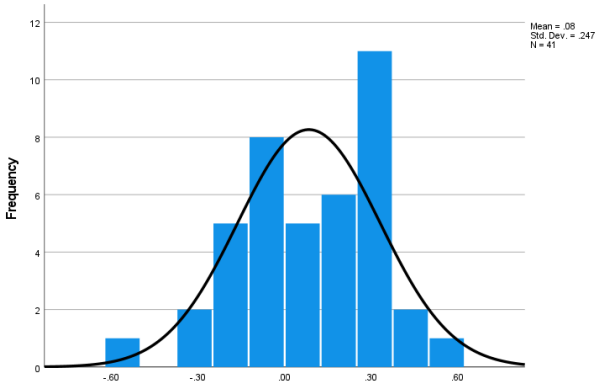


Figure 4.5: Histogram, AffectContRatioDelta

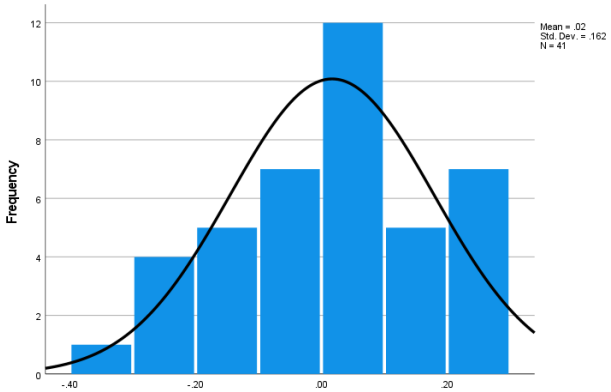


Figure 4.6: Histogram, AffectNormRatioDelta

In addition to the above histograms, boxplots of the variables were examined for outliers and malingering responses since outliers could also bias the study's results to the extent that they represent misunderstanding of survey questions or malingering actions. To test for outliers boxplots were developed for the same six variables used to develop the histograms above.

Overall, there were very few outliers evident in the six boxplots. For all but one of the six variables there was no more than one outlier. *OverallCommitDelta* merely had two outliers (one on each side of the distribution). Overall, none of this was unusual, and no pattern was found that suggested malingering or systematically extreme responses. Hence, no respondents were removed based on the boxplot analysis.

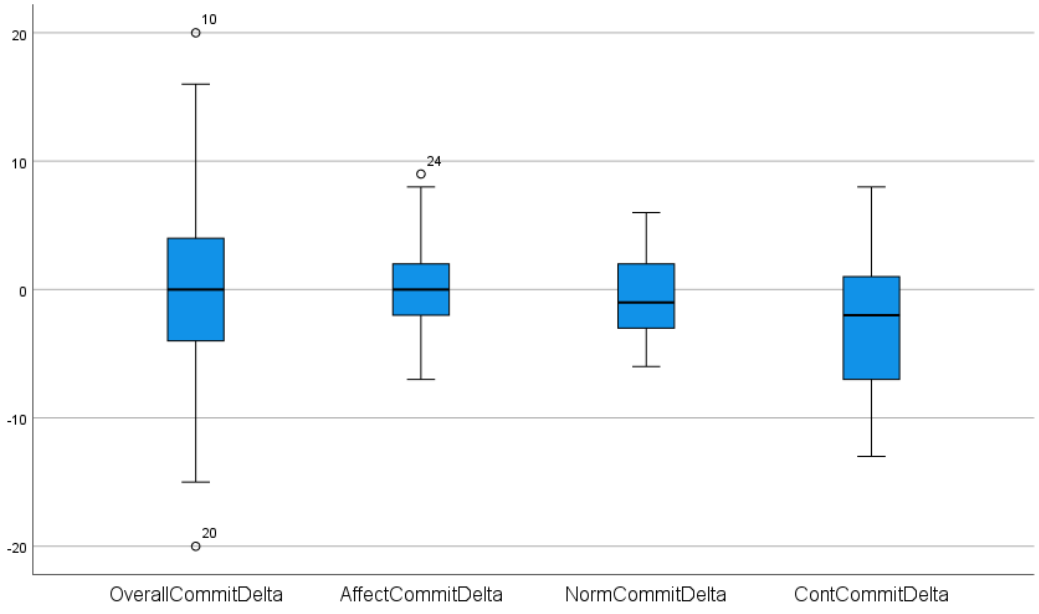


Figure 4.7: Boxplots for Dimensions of Commitment

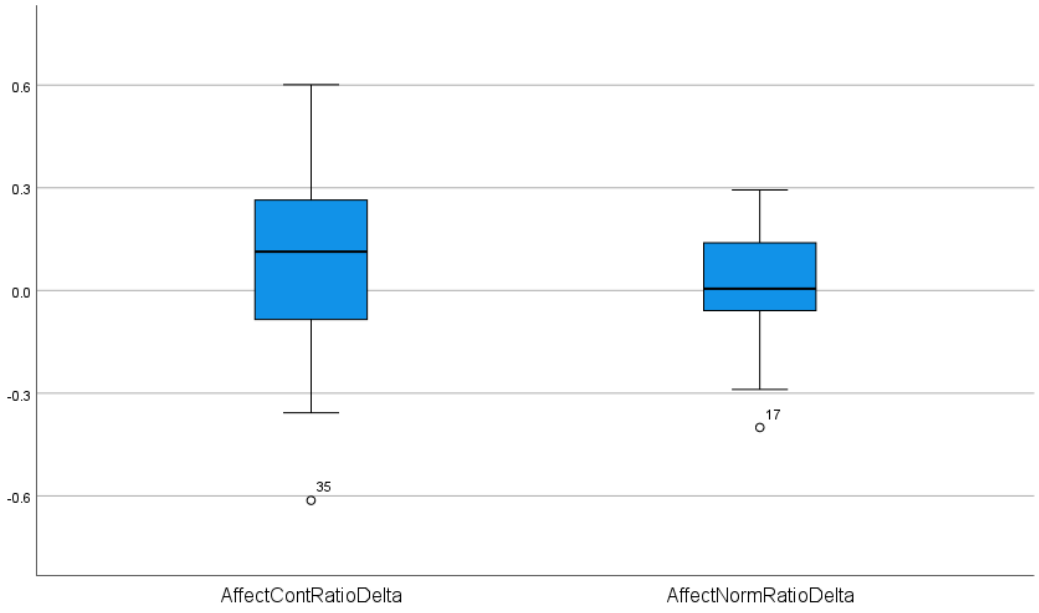


Figure 4.8: Boxplot of Ratio Variables

Descriptive Statistics

This subsection provides descriptive statistics pertaining to the sample's data. *Table 4.1* below provides the means, medians, and standard deviations of the key variables for the study's 41 utilized cases. *Table 4.2* provides the same means, medians and standard deviations, broken down by experimental vs control group. *Table 4.3* through *Table 4.7* provide details pertaining to the demographics of the utilized sample.

Table 4.1 shows that, though most of the variables had positive means, *NormCommitDelta* and *ContCommitDelta* had negative means. Hence, the mean of all four of the variables directly related to the hypotheses of this study increased after the treatment phase. However, the Normative Commitment change and the Continuous Commitment change *decreased* after the treatment. Median values (the middle value of the distributions) for all six of the variables follows the same pattern as the means.

To provide a more detailed examination of the above results, the sample was broken down by experimental and control groups in *Table 4.2*. *Table 4.2* shows that

OverallCommitDelta's mean was positive in both the control and experimental groups and was more positive in the experimental group, indicating a positive effect from the treatment. *AffectCommitDelta* was positive in the experimental group and negative in the control group, again indicating a positive effect from the treatment. *AffectContRatioDelta* was positive in both groups and more positive in the experimental group, indicating a positive effect of the treatment. Additionally, *AffectNormRatioDelta* was negative in the control group and positive in the experimental group also indicating a positive effect of the treatment. Hence, the sample exhibited a positive change after the treatment for each hypothesized construct. (Testing whether these effects found in the sample can be inferred to the studied population is discussed in the subsections under the heading of Inferential Statistical Results later in this reporting.)

The two variables included in *Table 4.1* for a broader understanding of the sample, *ContCommitDelta* and *NormCommitDelta*, were also broken down in *Table 4.2*. *ContCommitDelta* was negative in both the control and experimental groups but less negative the experimental group, indicating a positive effect from the treatment. *NormCommitDelta* was negative in both the experimental and control groups, and more negative in the experimental group, indicating a negative effect from the treatment.

Table 4.1

Descriptive Statistics by Variable

Variable	N	Mean	Median	Std. Deviation
OverallCommitDelta	41	0.63	0.00	8.19
AffectCommitDelta	41	0.34	0.00	3.66
NormCommitDelta	41	-0.39	-1.00	3.26
ContCommitDelta	41	-2.27	-2.00	5.93
AffectContRatioDelta	41	0.08	0.11	0.25
AffectNormRatioDelta	41	0.02	0.01	0.16

Table 4.2

Descriptive Statistics by Group

Variable	Group	Mean	Median	Std. Deviation
OverallCommitDelta	Control	0.40	0.00	8.95
	Experimental	1.00	-1.00	7.09
AffectCommitDelta	Control	-0.72	-1.00	2.56
	Experimental	2.00	2.00	4.52
ContCommitDelta	Control	-3.20	-3.00	6.39
	Experimental	-0.81	-1.00	4.96
NormCommitDelta	Control	-0.12	0.00	3.24
	Experimental	-0.81	-2.00	3.35
AffectContRatioDelta	Control	0.07	0.11	0.27
	Experimental	0.11	0.10	0.21
AffectNormRatioDelta	Control	-0.03	-0.01	0.15
	Experimental	0.08	0.10	0.17

Demographic information was also available for the respondents. *Table 4.3* shows that almost all of the respondents were female. The utilized sample contained only a single male.

Table 4.3

Respondent's Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	1	2.43
Female	40	97.56
Total	41	100.00

Table 4.4 provides information on the US state where each respondent resided. The sample was quite diverse with respect to where the respondents resided. A total of 17 different states were represented in the sample.

Table 4.4

State of Residence

State	Count	Percent
FL	5	12.19
MA	4	9.75
MI	4	9.75
NC	4	9.75
CA	3	7.32
IN	3	7.32
LA	3	7.32
MO	3	7.32
AZ	2	4.88
CO	2	4.88
IL	2	4.88
AR	1	2.43
IA	1	2.43
NV	1	2.43
OH	1	2.43
PA	1	2.43
TN	1	2.43
Total	41	100.00

Table 4.5 breaks down the sample by age range. Somewhat over half of the respondents (56.10%) were middle aged (i.e., between 41 and 55 years of age.).

Table 4.5

Age Range of Respondents

Age Range	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
18-24	1	2.43	2.43
25-30	2	4.88	7.31
31-35	3	7.32	14.63
36-40	2	4.88	19.51
41-45	8	19.51	39.02
46-50	7	17.07	56.09
51--55	8	19.51	75.60
>55	10	24.39	100.00
Total	41	100.00	

Table 4.6 breaks down the sample by the length of time a respondent has been with her or his organization. Slightly over half of the respondents had been with the organization for five years or less.

Table 4.6

Time in Organization

Years in Organization	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
<1 yr.	3	7.32	7.32
1-5 yrs.	21	51.22	58.54
6-10 yrs.	7	17.07	75.61
11-15 yrs.	5	12.20	87.81
16-20 yrs.	3	7.32	95.13
>20 yrs.	2	4.88	100.00
Total	41	100.00	

Finally, with respect to the descriptive statistics, *Table 4.7* breaks down the respondents by their various levels within the organization. Almost 60% of the respondents were entry level employees. Another 24% were generalist grade. Rounded, 83% of the respondents were below professional grade employees.

Table 4.7

Type of Position in Organization

Org. Level	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Entry Level	24	58.54	58.54
Generalist	10	24.39	82.93
Professional/SME	6	14.63	97.56
Manager	1	2.44	100.0
Director	0	0	
Executive	0	0	
Total	41	100.00	

Summing up the above demographics, the obtained sample was almost exclusively female, broadly distributed across the country, predominantly middle-aged, quite new to the organization, and mostly in the non-professional ranks.

Inferential Statistical Results

As described in the Methods chapter, this study's theory, and the hypotheses, this study is operationalized as a single one-way MANOVA. Those hypotheses are repeated here for the reader's convenience.

Hypothesis 1: A career development intervention will positively increase an employee's affective commitment to an organization relative to any change were there no intervention.

Hypothesis 2: After a career development intervention, one will exhibit a higher increase in the ratio of one's affective commitment to one's continuous commitment than one would without an intervention.

Hypothesis 3: After a career development intervention, one will exhibit a higher increase in the ratio of one's affective commitment to one's normative commitment than one would without an intervention.

Hypothesis 4: A career development intervention will positively increase an employee's overall commitment to an organization relative to any change were there no intervention.

Variable Correlations. Prior to any analysis of the MANOVA results, the bivariate Pearson correlations of all four of the dependent variables were obtained. These cross correlations are documented in Table 4.8 below. As Table 4.8 shows, a few of the bivariate correlation pairs are significant at least at the p<.05 level. *AffectContRatioDelta* is correlated with *AffectCommitDelta* at the .05 level. *AffectNormRatioDelta* is correlated with both *AffectCommitDelta* and *AffectContRatioDelta* at the .01 level. The Pearson Correlation of 0.76 between *AffectNormRatioDelta* and *AffectCommitDelta* is noteworthy because of the strength of the correlation, but not surprising in that both variables were constructed from Affective Commitment. An assumption of a MANOVA is that the dependent variables are independent of each other. These correlations are discussed further in the MANOVA results.

Table 4.8

Pearson Correlations

	OverallCommit Delta	AffectCommit Delta	AffectCont RatioDelta
OverallCommitDelta			
AffectCommitDelta	-0.04		
AffectContRatioDelta	-0.02	.36*	
AffectNormRatioDelta	-0.05	.76**	.51**

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

MANOVA Omnibus Results

As the Methods chapter explains, a MANOVA formulation was to be employed to determine which, if any, of the hypotheses of this study were upheld. The MANOVA simultaneously tests each of the study's four hypotheses. A key reason for employing the MANOVA formulation rather than a series of ANOVAs is that repeated ANOVAs within the same study will elevate Type I error probability. The MANOVA avoids such an error without elevating the Type II error probability. Utilizing a series of ANOVAs with the use of a procedure like the Bonferroni Correction would eliminate the Type I error but would greatly increase the probability of a Type II error. The MANOVA avoids this dilemma (but note the MANOVA results discussion below).

In a MANOVA the four omnibus significance statistics have varying levels of stringency (from *Pillai's Trace* to *Roy's Root*). But, as *Table 4.9* shows, all four measures provided the identical level of significance in this study. This is normal when there are only two groups (the experimental and control groups for this study). *Pillai's Trace* and the other omnibus significance statistics show that across the four variables as a group the results were insignificant (p>.05).

Since the omnibus statistic was not significant, one cannot rule out that any significance found at the individual variable level is the product of a *Type I* error elevation. There are other methods of removing the possibility of a *Type I* error in this situation, such as the Bonferroni Correction and the Homl-Sidak method. However, these methods are not recommended because they remove the high *Type I* error probability but at the expense of creating a high *Type II* error probability. Nevertheless, their use was deemed to be the best alternative, given the insignificance of the MANOVA at the omnibus level. These two methods were run on the

individual variable results discussed in the next subsection, and this resulted in no significance from using either of the methods (a not unexpected result because of their high probability of creating a *Type II* error). Hence, these problems at the omnibus level, lead to the possibility of an elevated *Type I* error related to the individual results reported in the next subsection.

Table 4.9

MANOVA Omnibus Statistics

Effect		Value	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	0.13	1.29[a]	0.29	0.13
	Wilks' Lambda	0.88	1.29[a]	0.29	0.13
	Hotelling's Trace	0.14	1.29[a]	0.29	0.13
	Roy's Largest Root	0.14	1.29[a]	0.29	0.13
Group	Pillai's Trace	0.15	1.57[a]	0.20	0.15
	Wilks' Lambda	0.85	1.57[a]	0.20	0.15
	Hotelling's Trace	0.18	1.57[a]	0.20	0.15
	Roy's Largest Root	0.18	1.57[a]	0.20	0.15

Another assumption of a MANOVA is that the covariances of the matrices of the dependent variables are equal across groups (here, the experimental group and the control groups). That equality was tested by the *Box's M* test. A significant result from the *Box's M* test means that the matrices are *not* equal; hence, getting an insignificant result on this test is the desired outcome. *Box's M* is a very sensitive test, and so most statisticians suggest that an *alpha* of 0.01 be used as the threshold for his test (Hair, et al., 2019, p. 372). *Box's M* was insignificant (p>0.05), and so the matrices were sufficiently equal.

Earlier in the *Variable Correlations* subsection it was noted that there were some high correlations between some of the dependent variables. They demonstrate some lack of

independence across some of the dependent variables which could have confounded the results of the MANOVA's *omnibus* results. Another statistic frequently used in conjunction with a MANOVA to test for lack of independence is *Bartlett's Test of Sphericity*. Like with the *Box's M* test discussed above, significance means that an intercorrelation issue is present. *Bartlett's Test of Sphericity* was significant (p<.001), confirming the results of the Pearson Correlations discussed in the previous subsection. Hence, the interdependence of the four tested variables may have affected these MANOVAs omnibus results. Summing up the results at the omnibus level, the lack of omnibus significance means that any significant results found at the individual variable level could be the result of an elevated of a *Type I* error probability.

MANOVA Results for Each Dependent Variable

The MANOVA group differences (akin to individual ANOVA results) are detailed in Table 4.10. That table shows that *AffectCommitDelta* and *AffectNormRatioDelta* were significant at the p<.05 level. *AffectContRatioDelta* and *OverallCommitDelta* were not significant (p>.05). The Partial Eta Squared for both significant variables is indicative of a small effect size.

An important assumption of both MANOVAs and ANOVAs is that the variances of the experimental and control groups are equal. The *Box's M* test done at the omnibus level (and reported above in the omnibus results subsection) provided confidence that there was no overall inequality between the experimental and control groups. A *Levene's Test* checks the equality of variances at the individual variable level. Like the *Box's M* test, a significant result means that inequality is present. That test was significant for *AffectCommitDelta* (p<.05), and insignificant for *AffectNormRatioDelta* (p>>.05). Hence, there is some question about the significance of *AffectCommitDelta* related to an unequal variance.

However, there are tests at the individual variable level that are *not* sensitive to unequal variance, specifically the Welch and Brown-Forsythe tests. They were performed on the *AffectCommitDelta* variable. Both of those tests run on the *AffectCommitDelta* variable showed significance ($p<.05$). Since the results of the Welch and Brown-Forsythe tests can be used to determine *AffectCommitDelta*'s significance without considering the unequal variance situation, the difference related to *AffectCommitDelta* is considered significant irrespective of the unequal variance.

Table 4.10

Variable Differences Across Groups

		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	AffectCommitDelta	72.18[a]	1	72.18	6.08	0.02	0.14
	AffectContRatioDelta	.02[b]	1	0.02	0.31	0.58	0.01
	AffecNormRatioDelta	.11[c]	1	0.11	4.56	0.04	0.11
	OverallCommitDelta	3.51[d]	1	3.51	0.05	0.82	0.00

Summary of the Results

Firstly, the inescapably small sample size resulted in a situation where this study's results cannot be considered conclusive. Rather, these results should be considered suggestive of the effect of the study's treatment.

Secondly, another caveat: Without an omnibus significance in the MANOVA (or success with the Bonferroni Correction or Homl-Sidak method) one cannot rule out an elevation of *Type I* error, inferring that the significance found related to *AffectCommitDelta* and *AffectNormRatioDelta* might be the product of a *Type I* error.

With the above caveats in mind, *AffectCommitDelta* and *AffectNormRatioDelta* were significant in the MANOVA's individual variable analysis. Moreover, the lack of sufficient equality of variance regarding *AffectCommitDelta* was not a problem because the tests that are not sensitive to unequal variances also showed that *AffectCommitDelta* was significant.

Therefore *Hypothesis 1 can be conditionally upheld*. *Hypothesis 2 was not upheld. Hypothesis 3 can be conditionally upheld.* And *Hypothesis 4 was not upheld*. The conditionality related to hypotheses 1 and 3 is based on the small sample issue, and the unfortunate lack of omnibus significance from the MANOVA, creating the possibility of an elevated *Type I* error.

Chapter 5: CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The purpose of the study was to a) explore the impact of career development planning on the employee commitment to the organization in a large natural gas organization in the United States; b) investigate the impact of having a career development plan on the employee's type of commitment to the organization; c) measure affective commitment levels, continuance commitment levels, and normative commitment levels towards the organization. Meyer and Allen discussed three different types of commitment: affective, continuance and normative (Meyer & Allen, A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment, 1991). Utilizing this definition, Meyer and Allen go on to explain that even with the three elements of commitment, employees will display better attendance, better work-related behavior and more of a willingness to do more than is asked of them (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Affective commitment is experienced when employees have positive emotional ties to the organization and is associated with high job satisfaction. Continuous commitment is experienced when an employee does not leave the organization out of fear of costs associated with leaving and finding a new job. Normative commitment is experienced when an employee is staying with the organization out of obligation or not wanting to break the norm (Jaros S. , 3, 2007).

This chapter provides a discussion of the findings in the context of existing literature. The chapter includes a discussion of limitations of the study, recommendations for future research and implications for theory and practice. The chapter concludes with a summary of the research study.

Discussion of Findings

The goal of this study was to understand how to increase an employee's affective commitment towards an organization. The literature shows that affectively committed employees

help organizations as they have increased performance, less absenteeism, less turnover, and increased well-being (Eisenberger, et al., 2010; Herrbach, 2006; Kim, Eisenberger, & Baik, 2016; Stazyk, Pandey, & Wright, 2011). However, it is unclear in the studies how to convert uncommitted employees-into committed employees.Literature indicated that career development could help to increase commitment towards an organization. 86% of employees surveyed by SHRM stated that the organization's overall commitment to professional development was important or very important and the current level of satisfaction was reported at 59% were very satisfied with their current organization's efforts in this area. 83% stated that career development opportunities are important or very important and the current level of satisfaction was reported at 58% with their current organization's efforts in this area (Society for Human Resource Management, 2016).

Though the sample size was low which leads to the inability to conclude the career development planning increased the affective commitment of an employee, the study did suggest that those employees who participated in the experimental group did have an increase of affective commitment after the treatment that was greater than those employees who were in the control group. This suggests that *Hypothesis 1 can be conditionally upheld*. *Hypothesis 2 was not upheld. Hypothesis 3 can be conditionally upheld.* And *Hypothesis 4 was not upheld*. The conditionality related to hypotheses 1 and 3 is based on the small sample issue, and the unfortunate lack of omnibus significance from the MANOVA, creating the possibility of an elevated *Type I* error.

Research Question and Hypothesis Discussion

The study was guided by the following research questions:

RQ1. What is the relationship, if any, between career development planning and an employee's level of affective commitment to an organization as measured by the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) and the Three Component Model (TCM)?

RQ2. What is the relationship, if any, between career development planning and an employee's level of continuous commitment to an organization as measured by the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) and the Three Component Model (TCM)?

RQ3. What is the relationship, if any, between career development planning and an employee's level of normative commitment to an organization as measured by the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) and the Three Component Model (TCM)?

RQ4. What is the relationship, if any, between career development planning and the ability to increase an employee's level of affective commitment to an organization as measured by the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) and the Three Component Model (TCM)?

In the following sections, the results from each hypothesis are described and implications of the results are provided.

$H1_0$. A career development intervention will positively increase an employee's affective commitment to an organization.

The MANOVA showed that hypothesis one was conditionally upheld with the acknowledgement of a small sample size which likely resulted in an elevated Type 1 error. The variable did show a significance level of less than .05. This indicates that a career development plan could positively increase an employee's affective commitment to an organization as measured by the Three Component Model. Affective commitment is experienced when employees have positive emotional ties to the organization and is associated with high job

satisfaction (Jaros S., 2007). This could indicate that by having a career development plan, it may increase the emotional ties to the organization and increase an employee's satsifaction with their jobs.

$H2_0$. A career development intervention will positively impact employees currently experiencing continuous commitment and will transition the employees to affective commitment to an organization.

The MANOVA did not find that hypothesis two was upheld. The variable did not show a significance level of less than .05. This indicates that a career development may not increase the affective commitment levels of employees who are continuously committed as measured by the Three Component Model. Continuous commitment is experienced when an employee does not leave the organization out of fear of costs associated with leaving and finding a new job (Jaros S., 2007). This could indicate that having a career development plan does not increase the emotional ties of employees who are only staying because they fear leaving and finding a different job.

$H3_0$. A career development intervention will positively impact employees currently experiencing normative commitment and will transition the employees to affective commitment to an organization.

The MANOVA showed that hypothesis three was conditionally upheld with the acknowledgement of a small sample size which likely resulted in an elevated Type 1 error. The variable did show a significance level of less than .05. This indicates that a career development plan could positively increase the affective commitment levels of employees who are normatively committed. an employee's affective commitment to an organization as measured by the Three Component Model. Normative commitment is experienced when an employee is

staying with the organization out of obligation or not wanting to break the norm (Jaros S., 2007). This could indicate that by having a career development plan, it may increase the emotional ties to the organization and increase an employee's satsifaction with their jobs with employees who had previously been staying with the organization out of obligation.

$H4_0$. A career development intervention will impact an employee's level of commitment to the organization.

The MANOVA did not find that hypothesis four was upheld. The variable did not show a significance level of less than .05. This indicates that a career development may not increase the overall commitment levels as measured by the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire. The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire measures the affective commitment to an organization by assessing care for the organization, pride in the organization, alignment with the organization's goals, and willingness to do additional work for the organization (Mercurio, 2015). This could indicate that a career development plan does not impact an employee's care, pride, and alignment with the organization.

Conclusions

The findings for hypotheses one, two, and three were measured using the Three Component Model developed by Meyer and Allen in 1990. The three-component model assesses the psychological state of the employee's commitment to the organization and the potential impacts this will have on an employee's performance (Allen & Meyer, 1991). The three component model measures the type of commitment and, based on the responses, determines if employees are more affectively (hypothesis one), continuously (hypothesis two), or normatively (hypothesis three) committed to an organization. Hypotheses four was measured using the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire developed by Mowday, Steers, and Porter in 1979.

Mowday et al. describe organizational commitment as being characterized by three factors: (a) the employee believes in the goals of the organization, (b) the employee is willing to work for and on behalf of the organization, and (c) the employee has a strong desire to remain with the organization (Mowday et al., 1979).

Hypotheses one and three were conditionally upheld which could indicate that by developing a career development plan, employees who are already engaged and affectively committed could become more affectively committed and that employees who are committed to the organization out of obligation could develop more of an emotional tie to the organization and increase their job satisfaction. This is supported by the Society for Human Resource Management survey (2016) where 83% of those surveyed stated that career development opportunities are important or very important to them. Hypotheses two and four were not upheld which could indicate that a career development may not increase the affective commitment of those who are staying with the organization out of fear of finding a new job. It also indicates that career development does not seem to change the levels of commitment as measured by Organizational Commitment Questionnaire.

The results from this study may indicate that organizations should consider utilizing career development as part of their employee commitment strategy. The types of employees that appear to benefit from career development are those that are with the organization either because they already are satisfied with the organization and their jobs or because they feel obliged to stay with the organization. Initially, career development planning was determined as an exercise that the individual conducted, but it was later determined that organizations have the responsibility to the employee to create a career path (Feldman, 2000). Hall (2004) argued that when the organization has an understanding of the core competencies by position, and the work or training

needed to teach these competencies, the organization can effectively create a career development plan. Therefore, it could be summarized, that an organization needs to understand the core competencies of a position, have the training necessary in place, and develop a career development plan for employees and that this may increase their job satisfaction and loyalty to an organization if they are already affectively committed or are still with the organization out of obligation.

It must be acknowledged that these results are only indications due to the small sample size and the elevation of a Type 1 error. It is also worth noting the demographics of the respondents. 97.6% of the respondents were female, there was only one male respondent. 61% of the respondents were over the age of 45 years old. 51.2% of the respondents had been with the organization between 1 and 5 years. Additionally, 58.5% of the respondents were entry level employees. The sample size is quite restricted with respect to gender, to age, to time in the organization, and to rank in the organization.

Recommendations for Future Research

Implications and recommendations for future research, theory, and practice are discussed in this section. Two of the hypotheses were conditionally upheld and two of the hypotheses were not. Additionally, one of the survey instruments showed changes in commitment and one of the survey instruments did not. Future research is needed in order to overcome the small sample size and the increased probability of a Type 1 error. The implications for theory address the issue of the lack of research around how to increase affective commitment within an organization. The implications of practice provides guidance for research and practitioners who are seeking to overcome turnover and lack of engagement within the organization and increase employee commitment towards and organization. Finally, the significance of two of the hypotheses and the

lack of significance of the other two hypotheses may help to inform why the two different survey instruments had different results.

Implications for Future Research

Half of the four hypotheses were rejected indicating that career development may increase affective commitment in those who are already affectively committed and those who stay with the organization out of obligation, but may not have job satisfaction. Future researchers should seek to expand on the potential of this research study as there is a need in literature to understand if career development could increase an employee's affective commitment to an organization. Additionally, future researchers should examine if there is a reason why one commitment survey would indicate a change in commitment, but the other would not. Another potential research study would be to explore the different types of career development to determine if one is more effective than another. It is also worth noting that there were 140 responses to the pre-test and 94 responses to the post-test. However, after looking at the response sets and matching the respondents to the pre-test and the post-test, there were only 56 that completed both. Of that 56, only 41 completed all of the questions. It is recommended to future researchers that a more reliable way of collecting the pre-test and the post-test surveys is implemented.

Implications for Theory

The results from this study are not conclusive due to the small sample size and the increased probability of a Type 1 error. However, the results do indicate that career development may increase and employee's affective commitment to an organization if the employee is already affectively committed or an employee stays with an organization out of a feeling of obligation

towards the organization. What the study does not show is if career development would be beneficial in making an employee with no commitment to the organization committed.

The results suggest that there may be benefit in using career development in order to improve affective commitment in an organization. It is evident in the existing literature that committed employees help organizations as they have increased performance, less absenteeism, less turnover, and increased well-being (Eisenberger, et al., 2010; Herrbach, 2006; Kim, Eisenberger, & Baik, 2016; Stazyk, Pandey, & Wright, 2011). What was unclear in the research was how to improve affective commitment through a researched method. The results to indicate, however, that this will only beneficial to some of the employees. Those who are staying out of fear for looking for another job and the cost associated with the transition may not benefit from career development.

Implications for Practice

Practitioners should partner with researchers to coproduce research that will further examine the effects of career development on affective commitment to the organization. While literature is ample that employees value career development, a large percentage of employees surveyed by the Society for Human Resource Management (2016) were satisfied with the results of their organization's career development. Through this study, there are indicators that not only do employees value career development as espoused by the Society for Human Resource Management survey, but it could also lead to an increase of affective commitment to an organization. An increase of affective commit to an organization could increase productivity, decrease absenteeism, and decrease turnover (Elegido, 2012; Masakure, 2016).

Summary

The purpose of the study is to a) explore the impact of career development planning on the employee's commitment to the organization of employees in a large gas organization in the United States; b) investigate the impact of having a career development plan on the employee's type of commitment to the organization; c) measure affective commitment levels, continuance commitment levels, and normative commitment levels towards the organization. The study utilized an experimental group and a control group, two different commitment scales, and an intervention for the experimental group to see if the intervention had an effect on the employee's type of commitment.

The study found indications that career development could increase affective commitment on employees who are already affectively committed to the organization and on employee who are normatively committed to the organization, or staying out of a feeling of obligation. Because of the small sample size of 41 usable datasets, these results are conditionally upheld because of the possibility of an elevated Type 1 error. However, literature supports the want for career development (SHRM, 2016) and the benefits of affectively committed employees (Meyer & Allen, 1991). The research found that there may be an opportunity to combine the two to benefit both the employee want for development and the organizational want for increased productivity and reduced turnover.

This study provided explanations and ideas for future research that could be explored to better understand the effects of career development on affective commitment. Affective commitment has been found to positively increase productivity and decrease turnover. Finding a way to increase affective commitment could benefit an organization that is suffering from turnover, which has been unprecedented in the United States in what is being referred to as "the

great resignation" (Cook, 2021). While it may not increase the affective commitment of those who are staying out of fear of the cost to find another job, it does appear that career development would increase the affective commitment of those who are already affectively committed and those who are currently staying out of a feeling of obligation.

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APPENDIX A

OCQ SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort and beyond what is normally expected in order to help this company be successful.
2. I talk up this organization to my friends as a great company to work for.
3. I feel very little loyalty to this organization (-)
4. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this company.
5. I find that my values and the company's values are very similar.
6. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this company.
7. I could just as well be working for a different company as long as the type of work were similar (-)
8. This company really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.
9. It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this company (-).
10. I am extremely glad that I chose this company to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.
11. There's not too much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely (-).
12. Often, I find it difficult to agree with this company's policies on important matters relating to its employees (-).
13. I really care about the fate of this company.
14. For me this is the best of all possible companies for which to work.
15. Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part (-).

APPENDIX B

THREE-COMPONENT MODEL SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization
2. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up (-)
3. I think that people these days move from company to company too often
4. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it
5. I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization (-)
6. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me
7. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization (-)
8. Jumping from organization to organization does not seem at all unethical to me (-)
9. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own
10. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now
11. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain
12. I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one (-)
13. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire
14. If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to leave my organization
15. I do not feel like 'part of the family at my organization (-)
16. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization

17. I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization
18. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up (-)
19. One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives
20. Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organization for most of their careers
21. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to
22. It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organization now (-)
23. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice – another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here
24. I do not think that wanting to be a 'company man' or 'company woman' is sensible anymore (-)

APPENDIX C

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT SCALE

1. Someone else decides both what I do and how I do it (-).
2. I can work independently
3. I have a lot to say over what happens on my job.
4. My job allows me to take park in making decisions that affect my work
5. I am willing to work harder than I have to in order to help this organization succeed
6. I feel very little loyalty to this organization (-)
7. I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar
8. I am proud to be working for this organization

APPENDIX D

PSYCHOLOGICAL ATTACHMENT INSTRUMENT

1. What this organization stands for is important to me
2. I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for
3. If the values of this organization were different, I would not be as attached to this organization
4. How hard I work for the organization is directly linked to how much I am rewarded
5. In order for me to get rewarded around here, it is necessary to express the right attitude
6. Since joining this organization, my personal values and those of the organization have become more similar
7. My private views about this organization are different from those I express publicly (-)
8. The reason I prefer this organization to others is because of what it stands for, that is, its values
9. My attachment to this organization is primarily based on the similarity of my values and those represented by the organization
10. Unless I'm rewarded for it in some way, I see no reason to expend extra effort on behalf of this organization (-)
11. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization
12. I feel a sense of 'ownership' for this organization rather than being just an employee