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## THE ROLE OF ORGANIZATIONAL TRAINING ON ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT. THE CASE OF PRIVATE SECURITY EMPLOYEES WORKING REMOTELY

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### ABSTRACT

**T**his study aims to evaluate the impact of organizational training on the degree of organizational commitment of employees, and the impact of organizational commitment on turnover intentions. The empirical work is focused on the private security sector in Portugal, with a sample of 182 validated questionnaires applied to private security guards who were active at the time. Organizational training and the turnover intentions were studied as single constructs, while the organizational commitment has been studied separately: affective organizational commitment, continuance organizational commitment and normative organizational commitment. Results support the existence of a direct and positive relationship between organizational training and the three components of organizational commitment (affective, normative and continuance). Results show a direct and negative relationship between affective and continuance organizational commitment and turnover intentions.

**Keywords:** Organizational training; Organizational commitment; Affective organizational commitment; Continuance organizational commitment; Normative organizational commitment; Turnover intentions.

## 1. Introduction

Understanding the degree of commitment or employees' link to organizations, as well their maintenance and enhancement, plays an important role within organizations, since a committed workforce probably has a better performance and a lower rate of turnover. It also reduces costs associated with recruiting and training, so managers should make every effort in order to retain committed employees and increase their degree of commitment (Huang and Chen, 2013).

The organizational training is closely linked to the acquisition and development of skills of employees. These skills are managed and coordinated by the organization and contribute to the overall success (Jehanzeb, Rasheed and Rasheed, 2013). Besides the improvement and development of employees' skills, the investment in training permits organizations to directly interact with their teams. Recognizing employees as a valuable resource for organizations, we decided to study their link to the organization - the organizational commitment. This commitment refers to a psychological state which connects the individual to organization. As such it contributes to reduce the turnover probability (Allen and Meyer, 1990).

We further decided to study turnover intentions, and a consequent construct of organizational commitment. The interest in organizational commitment also arises when the concept appears linked to other constructs, including employee retention (Barrett and Kang, 2004). Thus, another motivation for our study focused on organizational commitment is the possibility to study the relationship with turnover intentions, in this case, the employee leaving voluntarily.

In order to reduce intentions turnover or even the effective and real turnover, one of the possible organizational strategy is to invest in employee training and development (Dysvik and Kuvaas, 2008). Organizational training and its managerial form can be a factor influencing employee motivation. Consequently it impacts in their connection to the organization and their willingness or not to remain in the current situation.

The interesting characteristics of the concepts in question, lead us to apply this study to the private security sector in Portugal, by security guards, with the expectation to contribute to decision making in relation to issues of organizational training, organizational commitment and turnover intentions.

## 2. Framework

### 2.1 *Organizational training*

Training should be seen as a factor of human resources development, which gives advantages and benefits both for employees and organizations (Aguinis and Kraiger, 2009). In this context, there is preponderance and a central relief within the activities of human resource management (Bulut and Culha, 2010). Training has been identified as an example as a practice of human resource management that contributes to competitive advantage (Schuler and MacMillan, 1984), gaining an important role in organizational strategy in order to compete with direct competitors (Jehanzeb et al., 2013). Among the several possibilities of addressing organizational training, in this study, we address it considering the training provided to active employees, as a part of labor market, in an organizational context.

Despite being a valuation tool, many organizations still do not seem to understand how investment in training can create value (Swati, 2013), focusing mainly on direct costs (associated to providing training) and indirect costs (loss of productivity and wage costs since the employee ceases to work when in training) (Balkin and Richebé, 2007), it is therefore not surprising that this practice is still in development in a significant percentage of organizations.

Scholars who support their work on the human capital theory to explain the decisions on Organizational training, see it as an investment, and should be justified according to the expected financial returns (Balkin and Richebé, 2007). Thus, the analysis of organizational training should be not be limited only to financial vision, despising employees' skills and productivity enhancement development, developing the originality of human resources (Castellanos and Martin, 2011). Among other advantages, the training stands out among other processes in the human resource management area as a tool to increase employee productivity (Madera, Steele and Beier, 2011).

The training investment is sometimes shrouded in uncertainty, not only to the extent that this investment contributes to competitive advantage, but also for the risk that the trained employee can leave and apply the new knowledge in a competitor, as the organization that invested in their training may lose the new acquired skills (Balkin and Richebé, 2007). The employees are a very important asset in organizations, and everything is done to potentiate them should be valued, seen as an investment that will give future returns. Although different from physical and financial investments, training gives a competitive advantage for organizations, since training improves organizational performance (Bulut and Culha, 2010).

The training evaluation is of extreme importance both in the academic field and in the organizational context, it is fundamental to enhance the value of organizational training (Ritzmann, Hagemann and Kluge, 2014).

Sometimes characterized as expensive and essential for organizations, training has to be optimized and managed under a variety of perspectives, including talent retention. As such, organizations that improve planning and training programs implementation obtain better levels of performance and lower employee turnover (Jehanzeb et al., 2013).

Training cannot be analyzed independently as it belongs to a more complex system, and its relationship with organizational commitment is critical for organizations to reduce costs in the human resources area, such as recruiting, hiring and training (Al-Emadi and Marquardt, 2007). Besides the contribution on cost reduction, other author reinforces training contribution on human capital development, contributing to obtain advantage over direct competitors, defending that human resources management should promote opportunities for employee participation on training courses (Ashar, Ghafoor, Munir and Hafeez 2013), increasing the commitment to the organization (Bulut and Culha, 2010).

Sparrow (1998) considers that training as a methodology that organizations can use to develop employee's attitudes and behaviors, especially organizational commitment. As such, organizations should prepare for the future, seeking the organizational competencies development that are fundamental to survive and contributes to obtain better levels of performance on the global markets. Organizational training increases employees individual competences, defined by organizations in order to reach their objectives (Jehanzeb et al., 2013), defining employees path both in specific technical areas and horizon development, promoting new competences.

The importance of organizational training has been discussed and evaluated in a multidimensional structure. Among other factors, can be considered the support for organizational training; motivation for training; access to training; benefits from organizational training (Bulut and Culha, 2010); availability of training; motivation to learn; manager support for training (Jehanzeb et al., 2013); perceived availability of training; perceived supervisor support for training; motivation to learn; perceived co-worker support for training; perceived benefits of training; and perceived availability of training (Newman, Thanacoody and Hui, 2013). In this research, we decided to follow Bulut and Cunha (2010) proposal. As such we will develop the four dimensions considered by the authors.

### 2.1.1 Motivation for training

Employee motivation to participate on training courses is an important factor for training success as an instrument to enhance individual and organizational performance. This motivation is materialized by the perseverance efforts of employees before, during and after participating on training courses (Salas and Cannon-Bowers, 2001), as well the enthusiasm and real desire to acquire new knowledge.

On situations of mandatory participation on training courses, motivation is not on discussion, since it is related to the level of employee effort towards their own competence development and consequently their professional development, through training courses (Robinson 1985). Motivated employees are more whiling to have a better perception of the importance organizational training (Newman at al., 2013). Motivation for training can be understood on a direct and simple way through employee intention to participate on training courses (Noe, 1986).

### 2.1.2 Access to training

The access to training can be analyzed by the employees perception relative to the possibility to participate on training courses defined by organizations, independently of that participation be based on objective and fair criteria, and the employee assignment is clear and formally communicated (Bulut and Culha, 2010). The access to training can be evaluated as the training availability perception, viewed by employees in order to be assigned on training plans (Newman at al., 2013).

Employees perception of the training access or availability is closely related to the effective participation on training courses, suggested and supported by the organization (Ashar et al., 2013), and can result on two situations: (i) from the degree of freedom to choose and participate on the training courses of their interest, and (ii) the reduction of organizational barriers which allows the participation on training courses (Bartlett, 2001). According to this it is understandable that the training access perception positively affects organizational commitment (Bulut and Culha, 2010).

### 2.1.3 Benefits of training

Training originates benefits both employees and the organization (Aguinis and Kraiger, 2009). For the employee, training as several benefits, such as jobs, careers and personal development objectives (Bulut and Culha, 2010), personal, career and job-related benefits (Nordhaug, 1989), career development, job safety, self-importance, job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Geale, 1995).

For organizations the benefits are mostly related to performance (profitability, effectiveness, productivity, operating revenue per employee), but also to other benefits like cost reduction, improved quality and quantity, employee turnover, and organization's reputation (Aguinis and Kraiger, 2009).

### 2.1.4 Support for training

The support for training can be vertical through the hierarchy (leaders and more experienced colleagues), or horizontal by colleagues that give support and incentive the implementation of new forms of problem resolution. (Bulut and Culha, 2010). The support for training is very important for employees, since it as a strong contribute on the development of a positive environment for the development of the organizational training. The perception of this support is an facilitating element of an positive and committed attitude of the employees towards their work, which results from the participation in training courses (Madera et al., 2011). The support offered by more experienced colleagues comes as an example to follow and results as a

motivational factor on the involvement on organizational training (Noe and Wilk, 1993).

In summary, from the several forms of supporting the organizational training, three major groups can be considered: (i) work colleagues, (ii) family and friends (Ganster, Fusilier and Mayes, 1986), and (iii) direct coordinator (Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski and Rhoades, 2002).

Besides all the possible support, another important factor is the employees attitude towards training courses. In several cases it is built on past experiences, principally if they were negative, becoming a barrier and a dissuasive factor to participate in training courses. This situation can be overcome with social support and career encouragement (Tharenou, 1997).

The training support perception materialized by the way the organization values and incentives organizational training can change the employees' relevance of training courses (Madera et al., 2011). This perception is also important because it can shape the link to organizational commitment. In fact, employees tend to become more committed to the organization if they feel the leaders and more experienced colleagues support to participate in training courses (Bulut and Culha, 2010). On a broader perspective, a supportive working environment has significative implications on organizational performance (Newman et al., 2013). This support has a higher influence the closer are the factors to the employee, including his direct colleagues and leaders.

Organizations whose employees have a higher support perception tend to use innovative and challenging methodologies to execute tasks. They count with the participation of motivated persons, incentivized to overcome working problems and show evidence of higher functional performance (Butcher, Sparks and Kennedy, 2009).

## *2.2 Organizational commitment*

Organizational commitment is part of recent academic research agenda (Giauque, Resenterra and Siggen, 2014), focusing the attention of several authors which presented various definitions (Allen and Meyer, 1990). The distinct contributions offered an evolution of the concept that confronted different theoretical approaches concerning its origin and definition (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001). In fact, a significant part of the visibility of the concept results from the research around its several antecedents and the growing interest in these matters showed on the most studied topic in the 1990 decade (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch and Topolnysky, 2002). Even today, it still has an relevant position among research in the human resources area (Kheirkhah, SeyedAliAkbar and Fathi, 2014).

Besides its relevance, the high quantity of research focused on organizational commitment and some controversies around its concept, we can define in a simple and direct way as the psychological link created between the employee and his organization (Nicol, Rounding and MacIntyre, 2011).

In 1960, Becker introduced the idea of organizational commitment, contributing with a perspective that employees are committed and remain in their actual organizations, because they have totally hidden or somewhat hidden investments, 'side-bets' (Cohen, 2007). Becker's work was also important by the 'side-bet' concept, associating the investments made by employees who remain in the initial organizations. With the objective of satisfying their personal interests, employees align their performance with the organization. When they feel that the psychological contract is not being accomplished, they start to think that the organization is not fulfilling their compromises and adjust their degree of commitment in order to rebalance the exchange trade (Guerrero, Bentein and Lapalme, 2014).

Another approach was proposed by Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian (1974). They considered commitment as an attitude, contributing significantly to the creation of an attitudinal perspective of organizational commitment.

### 2.2.1 Unidimensionality and multidimensionality

In the line of unidimensionality line of the concept, besides Becker's (1960) work, several other authors made their contribution. Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) considers that the organizational commitment is based on three pillars: (i) strong desire, acceptance and involvement on the organization objectives and values, (ii) willingness for self-sacrifice and to make individual efforts in behalf of global benefits for the organization, and (iii) desire to protect his job.

Mowday at al., (1982) underlines also the individual, organizational and society advantages. On a vision employee centered, the maintenance of links to the organization creates long term economic revenues, such as salaries and other incomes, and also psychological rewards: job satisfaction and colleague support. From the organization point of view, the authors considers that organizational commitment can be a fundamental factor, since it tends to reduce absenteeism and personnel turnover and to increase potential employee involvement with organizational objectives. Increasing productivity and product and services quality can also be considered as advantages.

In the multidimensionality field we will develop Meyer and Allen's (1991) model of organizational commitment.

### 2.2.2 Multidimensional model of Meyer and Allen

As previously referred organizational commitment there are several definitions to the concept and a vast quantity of researchers from many different areas and interests. In this section we will develop his model known as the 'Three-Component Model of Organizational Commitment'.

Meyer & Allen (1991) in their literature review divided the theme in three groups: (i) affective attachment, (ii) perceived costs associated with leaving the organization, e (iii) obligation to remain with the organization.

On the field of affective attachment, Meyer and Allen (1991), integrated works of Kanter in 1968; Buchanan in 1974, and Porter and colleagues (with Steers, Mowday and Boulian in 1974; with Crampon and Smith, in 1976; and with Mowday and Steers, in 1979).

In the approach of organizational commitment considered as perceived costs, the authors considered the researches of Becker in 1960; Kanter in 1968; and Stebbins in 1974.

For organizational commitment associated as an obligation, Meyer and Allen (1991) included the works of Marsh and Mannari in 1977; and Wiener in 1982.

According to this framework it is recognized the existence of three core groups in their model: (i) affective, (ii) continuance e (iii) normative (Ko, Price and Mueller, 1997). Each one can be characterized as:

- Affective – employee emotional involvement that leads to the identification and commitment with the organization. Employees with strong affective commitment remain in the organization because they wish so;
- Continuance - the perception that employees have related to the cost of leaving the organization. Employees with strong continuance commitment remain in the organization because they need and its more advantageous;
- Normative – feeling of obligation to remain in the organization. Employees with strong normative commitment remain in the organization because they feel they have an obligation and a duty linking them.

Thus:



**Hypothesis 1.** There is a direct and positive link between organizational training and employee affective commitment.

**Hypothesis 2.** There is a direct and positive link between organizational training and employee instrumental commitment.

**Hypothesis 3.** There is a direct and positive link between organizational training and employee normative commitment.

### *2.3 Turnover Intentions*

Modern labor markets are characterized by instability has consequences on employees offering more precarious jobs, with wage changes and the creation of new job, but also a high rate of extinction of working places (Burdett, Carrillo-Tudela and Coles, 2011). Ferreira and Siqueira (2005) considers that the talent and knowledge loss in a high competitive environment creates additional difficulties for decision makers in human resources. There is a growing concern about the lack of capabilities to address human attitudes and behaviors, especially those related with sustainability. As such, the adoption of active politics to retain most valuable employees is a matter of survival and growth in the global markets.

Changes, especially the unexpected or uncontrollable, are not well received in the business world, because there is no benefit on uncertainty, on the contrary, it can lead to losses and high costs, perhaps even decisive for the continuation or closure of an organization, with increased economic and psychological costs in organizations, leading to several studies on staff turnover in the last two decades (Boros & Curseu, 2013, p. 1554).

Turnover intentions, identified as convictions to leave the organization (Nicol et al., 2011), voluntary departure of employees, or as the deliberate and conscious will of an employee to leave the organization (Matz, Woo & Kim, 2014) is one of the important issues for the academic and professional point of view, which has a considerable impact on the performance of organizations, with real consequences, as potential costs, loss of skilled human resources and possible stoppages and interruptions in performing tasks or jobs.

The study of the causes of turnover intentions, has assumed great importance in the most recent approaches on turnover (Ciftcioglu, 2011) because the turnover intentions are the best variable to predict the turnover in organizations (Griffeth, Hom and Gaertner, 2000).

Expressed the strong link between turnover intentions and real and effective turnover, it gains considerable interest the analysis of this issue, its origins and causes, such as knowing the motivations or reasons that are the basis of the voluntary withdrawal decision employee, causing no so surprise that the attention and interest in determining the causes of the intentions of employees for staying or leaving, is one of the most recent approaches in the literature on organizational turnover (Ciftcioglu, 2011). Identifying the antecedents of turnover conditions is important to his comprehension and control (Vandenberg and Nelson, 1999), thus mitigating the significant losses resulting from losing key people in the organization.

For Maertz and Campion (2004), the issue of a voluntary exit does not arise much in the way employees leave organizations, but from the origin of the reason for his decision to leave.

Voluntary turnover has at its base the labor relations, factors directly related to the functions performed or to the organization and their leadership (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand and Meglino, 1979). Voluntary departures may have more than a specific source, referred previously, or may even be linked to the motivation and satisfaction of employees, wages and benefits, or result from a process of recruitment and selection poorly managed.

In the current literature, organizational commitment and job satisfaction are singled out as antecedents of both turnover intentions and absenteeism (Ahmad and Rainyee, 2014). Job satisfaction is thought in order to limit the desire to exit and has played a key role in almost all theories involving turnover (Steel and Lounsbury, 2009).

Currently employees have different aspirations when compared with past times, aspiring jobs and challenging functions, seek personal fulfillment, career prospects, balance and compromise between work and family, good organizational climate and support of leaders (Huang, Lawler and Lei, 2007) .

The turnover of employees represents a significant loss of productivity and a consequent disadvantage to competitors, hence it is essential to understand that the loss of good employees can negatively affect the competitive advantage of an organization, in that it may lead to reduced productivity and quality (Juhdi, Pa'wan and Hansaram, 2013).

One of the most relevant issues in the field of human resources is turnover. According with Boros and Curseu (2013), the expectable cost of a current employee, who leaves the organization resembles about a year of his salary. It must also equate the loss of skills and capabilities of employees who left as well as the costs of finding and training new employees, the substitute.

To attract and keep motivated, decisive contributors to the success of an organization that is knowledgeable of internal processes is a task of extreme importance in the area of human resources, since the attraction, development and retention of qualified employees is critical to organizations (Tanova and Holtom, 2008).

The retention of valuable employees has always been important for organizations. It is even more important today, in a market where human capital is also presented as one of the few resources that can provide a sustainable competitive advantage (Barney, 1991). The turnover of employees doesn't bring, as a rule with few exceptions, any benefit to the organization, on the contrary, turnover brings almost always associated costs, it is widely recognized that the organization, staff turnover originates both tangible and intangible costs (Tanova and Holtom, 2008).

The recruitment and selection, represent consumption of resources, such as training and the host of new elements, and also very significant time required for new employees achieve performance levels desirable (Gamble and Huang, 2008). The loss of knowledge and experience accumulated over the course of employees is often very penalizing for the organization, as with this output, in addition to the recruitment process costs to find a replacement, there is still to take into account the loss of capital human (Chow, Ng and Gong, 2012).

This research addresses the voluntary turnover, ie, employees linked to an organization who decide to leave of their own will, a job for which they are receiving salary and benefits (Griffeth et al., 2000). We can analyze the turnover intention as the employee willingness to leave the current organization for another job or even its intention to start looking for a new job (Mobley et al., 1979).

The research of March & Simon in 1958 is the source of many of the current work on turnover (Tanova and Holtom, 2008). The authors emphasized that the degree of perception of employees mobility ability in the labor market determines the probability of look for a new job. The desire of turnover depends on attitudes towards work and the internal opportunities, while the ease of rotation depends on external factors such as the existence of alternative employment and unemployment. For the authors, the situation or the state of the economy, constitutes one of the most reliable factors that anticipates turnover, as against a great job, voluntary turnover tends to be high, and the opposite side, when no job opportunities available, voluntary turnover will tend to be lower.

Faced with similar situations, not all employees take the same decisions regarding the leaving or staying in the organization. Mobley et al. (1979) introduce in its analysis the personal characteristics such as skills and



the length of stay in the organization as factors that influence the intention to turnover, which in turn also determines the effective turnover.

It seems, by the references previously analyzed in this construct of turnover intentions, there is a common basis relatively wide or even certain unanimity among the several authors either on the concept definition and his relevance, the loss of human capital when the intention of turnover goes for an effective exit. In addition to the definitions already referenced, we can add some more contributions in this line, where turnover intentions refer to the anticipation of leaving the job, and if perceived may result in loss of human talent and leakage of knowledge to direct competitors (Khanin, 2013). It is also of major interest to address the link between intentions and actual output, since the intention of turnover is also can be understood as a plan or turnover trend. The intention of turnover is a behavioral tendency of employees to leave your organization, which can lead to an effective turnover (Chen, Su, Lo, Chiu, Hu and Shieh, 2013). We can also analyze the employee's behavior before the departure of your organization, as an abandonment of behavior that is seen as the completion of a working relationship of an individual with your organization (Matz et al., 2014).

Thus,

**Hypothesis 4.** There is a direct and negative link between employee affective commitment and turnover intentions.

**Hypothesis 5.** There is a direct and negative link between employee instrumental commitment and turnover intentions.

**Hypothesis 6.** There is a direct and negative link between employee normative commitment and turnover intentions.

### **3. Methodology**

#### *3.1 Method*

A survey method was used for data collection. Data were collected from security guards with legal authorization to practice the profession and with employment contract with private security entities. The questionnaire was available online in the period between March 2013 and February 2014. The total number of security guards which comply with the conditions of this study was about 36,100.

#### *3.2 Sample*

Our sample has the following distribution. Considering gender, 96.7% of respondents were male and 3.3% female. With regard to age, 8.2% of respondents had less than 25 years, 19.8% between 26 and 30 years, 22.0% between 31-35 years old, 26.4% between 36-40 years 13.2% between 41-45 years, 4.9% between 46 to 50 years, 5.5% between 51 to 55 years, with no respondents with 56 or more years. Given the marital status, 44.0% were married, 28.0% single, 15.9 divorced, 12.1 consensual union, with no respondents widowers. About schooling, 45.6% have the 12th grade, 28.6% the 9th grade, 17.6% 6th year, 4.9% college or higher, 2.2%, the 4th year, and 1, 1% had bachelor. On the labor situation, 64.8% of respondents had permanent employment contracts and 35.2% had fixed-term contract. On the duration, 97.8% worked full time and 2.2% were part-time. Regarding the length of time in current company, 46.7% are in the company for 3 years or less, 23.1% between 4-6 years, 12.1% between 7-9 years, 4.9% between 10 to 12 years, 5.5% between 13 to 15 years, 3.3% between 16 to 18 years, 0.5% between 19 to 21 years, and 3.8% worked in the

current company for 22 or more years. Given the experience as security guard, 18.7% have professional experience of 3 years or less, 17.0% between 7-9 years, 15.9% between 4-6 years, 13.7% between 13-15 years, 12.1% between 10 to 12 years, 9.9% between 16 to 18, 4.9% from 19 to 21 years, 4.4% between 22 and 24 years, 2.2% between 25 to 27 years, and 1.1% with experience as security guard less than 28 years.

### 3.3 Measures

All survey questions were adapted from existing literature, using of a 7-point Likert scale, where 1 '*strongly disagree*' and 7 '*strongly agree*'.

To measure organizational training we decided to consider it as a single construct. However Bulut and Culha (2010) proposed a division in four dimensions: (i) motivation for training, with nine items, (ii) access to training, with three items (iii) benefits of training, with twelve items, which was also divided in three sub dimensions: (a) personal-related benefits of training, with five items, (b) career-related benefits of training, also with five items, and (c) job-related benefits of training, with two items, and at last, the dimension (iv) support for training, with six items.

To measure organizational commitment we adapted the proposal of Meyer and Allen (1997), validated to the Portuguese context by Nascimento, Lopes and Salgueiro (2008). It was divided in three dimensions: (i) affective organizational commitment, with six items, (ii) continuance organizational commitment, with seven items, and, (iii) normative organizational commitment, with six items.

For turnover intentions we used the scale of Chawla & Sondhi (2011) with five items.

### 3.4 Results

For descriptive analysis we used the mean and standard deviation for each item of scales as well as the values of skewness and kurtosis. We used the limits proposed by Kline (2005), whereby the acceptable limits of each variable in regard to the asymmetry lie in the value 3, after which the variables have problems, and the kurtosis 10th threshold value, after which the variables can be problematic. For analysis of reliability of the scales, we used Cronbach's alpha as a measure of reliability, with a lower limit of 0.7. Additionally, we examined the item-total correlations, or correlations between the values assigned to each item and the total value for all the items (Hill & Hill, 2012), assuming the value minimum of 0.3 as a minimum acceptable value in the correlation between each item and the total scale and all values have to be positive. To evaluate the sample adequacy ratio, used the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO), which analyzes the data fitting, and that this work will consider the reference values used by Pereira (2004), to below 0.5 indicate an improper fit, values between 0.5 and 0.6, a poor fit, values between 0.6 and 0.7, a reasonable fit, values between 0.7 and 0.8, a good fit, and values above 0.9 for optimal fit. Bartlett sphericity was used to test the hypothesis that the correlation matrix is an identity matrix, with no correlation between the variables (Pereira, 2004). We will take as a criterion, the significance value below 0.05. We also analyzed the values of commonalities, rejecting values below 0.5 (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson and Tatham, 2009), eigenvalues, the rotation and the number of components to retain for explaining the construct. We used the principal component analysis and extraction method with varimax rotation to present a clearer separation of the factors (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson and Tatham, 2009), and to determine the number of components to extract we use the criterion of auto-values, retaining only components with eigenvalues superior to 1.

After applying these procedures, the final scale of organizational training, has a Cronbach's alpha of 0.927 (excellent reliability), maintaining the four dimensions, which explain the total variance of 65.48%, the final scale of organizational commitment, presented the value of 0.937 (excellent reliability) and maintained the

initial three dimensions, representing a total variance of 71.51% and turnover intentions, scored an alpha value of 0.925 (excellent reliability) with a variance total of 81,81%.

The scale of organizational training, presented the following values: ( $\chi^2=291.780$ ,  $df=140$ ,  $\chi^2/df=2,084$ ,  $NFI=0.874$ ,  $CFI=0.929$ ,  $RMSEA=0.077$ ,  $SRMR=0.0668$ ). The scale of organizational commitment, presented the following values: ( $\chi^2=101.371$ ,  $df=48$ ,  $\chi^2/df=2,112$ ,  $NFI=0.926$ ,  $CFI=0.959$ ,  $RMSEA=0.078$ ,  $SRMR=0.0627$ ). The scale of turnover intentions, presented the following values: ( $\chi^2=0.010$ ,  $df=1$ ,  $\chi^2/df=0.010$ ,  $NFI=1.000$ ,  $CFI=1.000$ ,  $RMSEA=0.000$ ,  $SRMR=0.0004$ ).

### 3.5 Discussion

The values of linear regression analysis showed that the organizational training has a direct positive effect on all dimensions of organizational commitment. It was in the organizational continuance commitment that this effect got a greater expression ( $\beta=0.659$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), followed by affective organizational commitment ( $\beta=0.390$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), and finally, in the descending order of the regression value the normative organizational commitment ( $\beta=0.293$ ,  $p<0.05$ ).

It was not possible to analyze the effect of normative organizational commitment on turnover intentions, the other two dimensions of organizational commitment, had a negative effect on turnover intentions. The affective organizational commitment, has a significant negative effect on turnover intentions ( $\beta=-0.364$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), and the continuance organizational commitment has a greater effect ( $\beta=-0.597$ ,  $p<0.05$ ).

These results allow us to validate five of the six cases initially presented, not only validating the H6. There is an inverse direct relationship between normative commitment and turnover intentions.

The results of this study, the direct positive effect of organizational training in organizational commitment, are in line with some of the previous studies, stressing, however, that there is no consensus in the results achieved in previous work that studied the two concepts, either while single concepts or subdivided.

Newman et al. (2011) established a strong positive relationship between perceived availability of training, supervisor support for training and co-worker support for training, and affective organizational commitment. They found that only perceived availability of training was found to be significantly related to continuance commitment.

Al-Emadi and Marquardt (2007) studied the training benefits (personal benefits and career benefits) and organizational commitment (affective, continuance and normative) found positive and significant relationship.

Barrett and Kang (2004), validated the organizational commitment (affective and normative) is related to participation in training, motivation to learn from training, perceived benefits of training and perceived supervisory support for training.

Bulut and Culha (2010) found a positive relationship between all dimensions of training and organizational commitment

Regarding the relationship between the three dimensions of organizational commitment and turnover intentions, in two dimensions as we could manage to validate the connection, our results are in line with all the studies referenced in this work. In order to enhance the invariance of the results over time, we mention four examples in the period between 1997 and 2013.

Jaros (1997) found a significant negative correlation between the three components of organizational commitment and turnover intentions.

Meyer et al. (2002), also validated the existence of a negative relationship between the three components of organizational commitment and turnover.

Barrett and Kang (2004), validated that organizational commitment (affective and normative) is related to participation in training, motivation to learn from training, perceived benefits of training and perceived supervisory support for training.

Newman et al. (2011), confirmed the strong inverse relationship between both components of organizational commitment and employee turnover intentions.

Jehanzeb et al. (2013) also validated their hypothesis originally advanced on the existence of a negative relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions.

#### **4. Conclusions**

This work allowed us to test the relationship of the constructs organizational training and organizational commitment and this with turnover intentions.

The results obtained with a sample of 182 questionnaires completed by private security guards, allowed us to characterize the private security sector in Portugal, that is, its workers at the base of the pyramid of various companies for the three concepts under study. These results followed previous work carried out in other countries and other sectors.

The first conclusion of the relationship between the concepts is divided into two points:

- (i) there is a positive relationship between training and the three components of organizational commitment (affective, normative and continuance); and
- (ii) there is a negative relationship two of the components of organizational commitment (affective and continuance) and turnover intentions.

Based on the results we can conclude that:

- (i) the determinants characteristics of the connection of private security guards to their company (organizational commitment) are relevant in relation to turnover intentions as regards the size affective and continuance because it was not possible to support the link between the normative organizational commitment and turnover intentions;
- (ii) between the two dimensions of organizational commitment where it was possible to validate a connection to turnover intentions, the component continuance is one that has values that support a stronger negative relationship with turnover intentions. The security guards that have a connection to your company based on investments and costs associated with an exit are the ones less likely to abandon;
- (iii) organizational training positively affects all components of organizational commitment, stressing that the impact is greater in the continuance organizational commitment, followed by affective organizational commitment and finally the normative organizational commitment.

##### *4.1 Managerial implications*

This study is of great importance for decision makers, making a practical contribution to staff turnover thematic analysis.

In this work we studied the relationship between organizational training and organizational commitment, and between this and turnover intentions, or the voluntary exit intentions of employees.

For the decision makers of private security companies in Portugal, this study supported on data collected at the bottom of the pyramid of companies in the sector, the security guards, showed:

- (i) that there is a positive, significant link between organizational training and organizational commitment, and that investment in training will strengthen the bond of security guards to their companies;
- (ii) that there is a negative relationship between organizational commitment and intention to leave the company, except normative component, which indicates that the stronger the link between employee and

company, the less likely to leave the organization; and

(iii) to retain the best employees, companies must act to strengthen the bond of security guards to their organizations and that, in addition to other obvious advantages, organizational training is crucial to strengthen this link.

### **5. Limitations and future research**

A limitation of our study concerns the sample. Although we know the population and the sample we collect present identifying characteristics on the possible parameters to analyze the fact we decided to just provide the online questionnaire, not using the traditional paper version. In future works, the use of online questionnaires and paper should allow to collect a more representative sample.

Another limitation of the study was not using moderating variables. It will be interesting to analyze the effect of moderating variables such as age, education, professional experience, length of service, for example, the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions.

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