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UNRAVELING THE NEXUS: EXPLORING JOB STRUCTURE'S IMPACT ON AFFECTIVE ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

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Abstract

The concept of organizational commitment, a subject of academic intrigue and exploration, can be traced back to the seminal work "The Organizational Man" penned by W. H. Whyte in 1956. Within this influential book, Whyte elucidated that commitment materializes when a member of an organization opts to remain primarily due to the auxiliary gains tethered to their vested interests. This notion of enduring organizational allegiance founded on the advantages derived from associated commitments was further investigated in the scholarly contributions of Becker in 1960, harmonizing with the foundational insights articulated by Whyte concerning organizational commitment.

1. Introduction and Review of Literature

Arguably, organizational commitment, as an area of academic and intellectual pursuit originated with the book, ―The Organizational Man‖ by W. H. Whyte (1956). In the book, Whyte explained that commitment occurred when an organizational member remained with an organization mainly on the account of side-bets on his/her interests. This idea of staying with an organization based on the benefits of side-bets was also explored in the intellectual work of Becker (1960) consistently with the assertions of Whyte on the topic of organizational commitment.

Since Whyte (1956) and Becker (1960), organizational commitment has been extensively studied for several decades (Pais et al., 2014) with increasing clarity and distinctions made among job commitment— a decision to commit to specific jobs or duties performed in an organization (Koslowsky, 1990), career commitment— a decision to remain in a particular profession or vocation (Liou, 2008), and organizational commitment— the decision to persist in staying with a particular organization and making sacrifices for the good of the organization (Morgan & Hunt,1994; Wiener, 1982). As discerned in Wiener and Vardi (1980), a lack of distinction, which compromised knowledge of these concepts, was common in early studies on organizational commitment, despite empirical evidence that indicated their differences.

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The lack of distinction among the various measures of commitment was not the only problem that plagued early studies in organizational commitment since the early works of Whyte (1956) and Becker (1960). Meyer and Allen (1991) also observed that it was difficult from early studies to synthesize findings on organizational commitment, because of a lack of consistence in operational measures. This inconsistence may, perhaps, still be found in some studies (Huang & Hsiao, 2007; Kiyak, Namazi & Kathana, 1997; Rusbult & Farrell, 1983) that provided only indirect explanations of organizational commitment through turnover analyses. Without doubts, employee commitment influences turnover intentions and actual turnover rates (Pais et al., 2014).

This is especially strong in certain organizations like call centers that traditionally have high turnover rates, thereby making commitment an important issue for such organizations (Pais et al., 2014). While the variables in studies that inferred commitment from turnover data (Huang & Hsiao, 2007; Kiyak et al., 1997; Rusbult & Farrell, 1983) might demonstrate the contributions of commitment to changes in turnover intentions and actual turnover rates, a low turnover rate does not necessarily demonstrate intent to commit to an organization. That is, while if A, then B, may be true (modus ponens), to then, equally conclude that, therefore, if B, then A, is also true, may be an invalid inference tantamount to converse error or the fallacy of affirming the consequent.

Today, due to the various works of several scholars of organizational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1984, 1988, 1991, 1997; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982; Mottaz, 1988; Somers, 2009; Wasti, 2005; etc.), the topic has gained significant clarity in conceptual definition, and to a large extent, on operational definition. In this regard, the dominant definition of organizational commitment and its three variants (affective, normative and continual) developed by Meyer and Allen (1991) appear to have been widely accepted and popular among scholars (Wasti, 2005).

In the various works of Allen and Meyer (1990) and Meyer and Allen (1984, 1988, 1990, 1991, 1997), organizational commitment was explained as the psychological state of mind that bound members to their organizations, and, hence, reduces members' turnover (Allen & Meyer, 1990) before retirement. Commitment is a form of focused relationship that members have with their organizations. That is, when one is committed, there is a target to which the commitment is focused or directed. A target may be an entire organization, but it may also be a team, a supervisor or other entities or things in an organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001). As explained by Meyer and Allen (1991), the reasons for commitment may be found in the three variants of commitment they indicated. Affective commitment to a target is produced from feelings of love and affection for the target, normative commitment is derived from the mindset that one is obligated to remain with a target due to a sense of indebtedness to the target, while continual commitment is the outcome of a member's side-bet about sunk costs to an organization, and the availability of desirable alternative jobs (Meyer & Allen, 1991, 1997). While knowledge of employee commitment still remains a challenging issue in management, organizational behavior and human resource management (Cohen 2003; Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005), the three dimensions of commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991, 1997; Meyer et al., 2002) remain the dominant theme in the analysis of organizational commitment and its outcomes (Jaros, 2007; Ghosh & Swamy, 2014).

Of the three variants of organizational commitment established by Meyer and Allen (1991, 1997), affective commitment was the focus of this study. When one is affectively committed to a target, in this case, an organization, one maintains a relationship of affection, love, loyalty and a strong sense of belonging with the organization, aside from any instrumental benefits one may derive from the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Bloemer & OdekerkenSchroder, 2003).

The decision to become affectively committed to an organization develops over time through positive organizational experiences. As explained by Ghosh and Swamy (2014) ―in the early stages of one's employment, the dominant commitment is the instrumental one. However, with passage of time and more information and understanding of the workplace, a deeper level of commitment, the affective one develops. This commitment will be characterized by feelings of identification, belonging and emotional involvement akin to affective commitment. Affective commitment develops more slowly, and generally later than the instrumental one, but it emphasizes the deep psychological attachment of the highly committed individuals‖ (p.9). According to Allen and Meyer (1990) and Meyer and Allen (1991) affective commitment elicited in the employee, a strong emotional attachment, a strong identification and a high involvement with a target (such as an organization). Jaros (2007) added that affective feelings for an organization developed primarily through positive work experiences in the organization. The affective feelings, in turn, produced the desire to willingly remain with the organization (Jaros, 2007), and to contribute to the welfare of the organization in a mutually benefitting exchange relationship (Meyer & Allen 1991).

In similar manner as Meyer and Allen (1991) established the tripartite canon of framework (affective, normative and continual) for analyzing commitment, Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) established the framework for analyzing antecedents of affective organizational commitment. The framework consisted of four categories of antecedent factors, namely: personal characteristics, job related characteristics, job experiences and structural characteristics (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982).

In some studies (Glisson & Durick, 1988; Mottaz, 1988; Morrow & McElroy, 1987; Pierce & Dunnham, 1987), demographic characteristics such as age, tenure, education and gender were classified as personal characteristics, and they were found to have low correlations with, as well as not consistently predict, affective organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). However, in Kaptijn (2009), personal (i.e. demographic) characteristics, were collectively found to consistently predict affective organizational commitment to two commitment targets; the organization and colleagues. Also, person-organization fit (congruence), the similarities or consistencies between an employee's personal dispositions (values, attitudes, beliefs, interests) and the employee's organization, had been analyzed as a personal characteristic that predicted affective commitment in some studies (Hulin & Blood, 1968; Kaptijn, 2009; Sirdeshmukh, Singh, & Sabol, 2002). In these studies, congruence between the employee and the organization produced a direct relationship with affective commitment.

Like personal characteristics, several job-related characteristics have also been consistently found as significant antecedents of affective organizational commitment in a range of studies. Ogilvie (1986), for example, found perceived equity in the distribution of organizational resources as a strong predictor of affective organizational commitment. Other job-related factors that had been found to antecede affective organizational commitment include organizational support (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-Lamastro, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer et al., 2002), role clarity and freedom from conflict (Blau, 1988; Glisson & Durick, 1988), supervisory considerations (Glisson & Durick, 1988), interactive justice (Meyer et al., 2002) and starting salary (Bobocel, Meyer & Allen,1988).

A variety of factors classified as job experiences have also been found to antecede affective organizational commitment. Among them, Kaptijn (2009) found the perception of positive work experiences to predict affective commitment to work (β = .48, R^2 =.23, p > .05), to colleagues (β = .50, R^2 =.25, p < .05) and to the entire organization (β = .50, R^2 =.26, p > .05). Similarly, in an earlier study, Meyer and Allen (1991) indicated that work experiences that were consistent with achievement of employee needs (in addition to congruence with

employee's values) produced affective commitment to the organization. In addition, trust for the organization (Sirdes hmukh, et al., 2002), perceptions of organizational dependability, freedom from conflict and opportunities for self-expression (Meyer & Allen 1991) had been found to predict affective commitment to the organization.

Several organizational design factors have also been found as antecedents of affective organizational commitment. Kaptijn (2009), for example, found organizational structure as a positive predictor of affective commitment to work ($\beta = .37$, $R^2 = .14$, $p < .05$), equally to colleagues ($\beta = .37$, $R^2 = .14$, $p < .05$), and to the entire organization ($\beta = .46$, $R^2 = .21$, $p < .05$). Other antecedent structural factors of affective commitment to an organization include decentralization of decision making (Brooke, Russell & Price, 1988; Morris & Steers, 1980), formalization of policy and procedure (Morris & Steers, 1980; Podsakoff, Williams & Todor, 1986), job challenge (Meyer & Allen 1987, 1988), job autonomy (Colarelli, Dean & Konstans, 1987; DeCotiis & Summers, 1987), decisionmaking processes (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Rhodes & Steers, 1981) and job accomplishments (Angle & Perry, 1983). In addition, Meyer et al. (2002) found role ambiguity as an inverse predictor of affective organizational commitment.

2. Objective

While various past studies (Brooke et al., 1988; Kaptijn, 2009; Meyer et al., 2002) had produced evidence of the roles of organizational design variables in promoting affective commitment, no known concerted efforts, if any, had been directed, specifically, to job structure as a predictor of affective organizational commitment. Consistently with the common premise in previous studies that factors of organizational structure produced affective organizational commitment (Brooke et al., 1988; Colarelli et al., 1987; DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Kaptijn, 2009; Meyer & Allen 1987, 1988; Meyer et al., 2002), this study sought to determine the likelihood that, specifically, job structure and intrinsic job satisfaction, predicted affective organizational commitment. Based on this objective, this study attempted to answer two main questions: 1. Did factors (or elements) of job structure collectively predict affective organizational commitment? 2. Did each factor of job structure independently predict affective organizational commitment?

Answers to these questions were expected to demonstrate the extent to which, specifically, the design of job structure, rather than the total organizational structure, was a factor of affective organizational commitment. Unlike factors of organizational structure which address the design of the entire organization, including such variables as internal organizational complexity, organizational dispersal, centralization and organizational formalization (Gibson et al., 2009; Tolbert & Hall, 2009), job structural variables are the specific elements of job design (Gibson et al., 2009) rather than the entire organizational design.

Hence, by focusing specifically on job structure, rather than total organizational structure, it is expected that this study will provide useful knowledge to organizational managers, human resources and employee relations executives about job design factors that are most likely to produce affective commitment from their organizational members, as jobs are designed or redesigned within their organizations.

3. Method

3.1. Instrument

A questionnaire was developed to collect primary data on all 24 variables analyzed in this study. The variables were divided into three categories: 1. Dependent (affective organizational commitment), 2. Control (a: *demographic factors*: organization size, organizational tenure, post-tax (take-home) income, employment status, supervisory status, employment area; b: *organizational experiences factors*: formal procedural justice, non-comparative distributive justice, comparative distributive justice, interactive justice, coworker social

support, organizational involvement, personorganization fit, pay satisfaction, benefits satisfaction, recognition satisfaction) and 3, Independent Variables (*organization structure factors*: job depth, meaningfulness, job enrichment, job variety, job formalization, job responsibility level, intrinsic job satisfaction).

Single item questions were used to collect data on all demographic (observable) variables while the multipleitem, six-point, Likert-type, summated rating scales were used to collect data on all latent (affective organizational commitment, organizational experiences and job structure) variables. For each latent variable, higher scores represented greater presence of the variable. While the scales for some latent variables were fully developed by the author, most were adapted from various sources. The complete list of variables, their definitions, descriptions and sources of adaptations are displayed in Table 1.

3.2. Pretest

Each latent variable measured with a multiple-item scale was tested for reliability and construct validity, using data collected through availability sampling in a national survey conducted through Mechanical Turk or MTurk (www.Mturk.com), an Amazon crowd sourcing online website (see Data Collection section for more comments on MTurk). Participation in the pretest survey was limited to 250 employed people who were, at least, 19 years old, in the United States (US).

For each scale, the Cronbach's alpha for scale reliability and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) sampling adequacy test for scale appropriateness for factor analysis were calculated. The Cronbach's alpha for all scales ranged from 0.893 to 0.981 indicating strong reliability of each scale, while the KMO adequacy values for all scales ranged from .778 to .993, indicating that each scale was appropriate for factor analysis (see table 2). The obtained KMO values were much higher than the minimum required values of .50 and the preferred recommended value of .60 asserted by Kaiser and Rice (1974) as appropriate KMO values for factor analysis.

Table 1. Research definitions of all variable

Dependent Variable

Affective Organizational Commitment: The likelihood that one would remain with an organization due to one's love, affection, feeling of belonging and general positive feelings for current organization, aside from financial benefits derived from the organization. Measured in ordinal ranks, 6= high affective commitment, 1= Low affective commitment [Adapted from Meyer & Allen (1997) in Fields, (2002), pages 51-53. Meyer and Allen's scale had 8 items, reported alphas ranged from .77 to .88. The adaptation for this study used 7 of the eight items based on poor factor loading of one item in pretest]. See table 2 for adapted items and factor statistics.

Control Variables

A. Organizational Demographic Variables:

Organization Size – Perceived number of employees in one's organization

Organizational tenure: Ratio value indicating reported number of years worked in current organization. Higher scores = Longer tenure.

Post-Tax (take-home) Income Rank—Ordinal rank of average monthly take-home income (after tax income) ranked in $1000 increments from 1 (0-$999) to 11 (≥ $11,000).

Employment status--- Full-time (1) and Part-time (0) self-reported status.

Supervisory status—Non-supervisory/non-management (0) and Supervisory/management (1). Non-supervisory (worker) has no supervisory responsibilities. Supervisory/Management does.

Employment area —Line (1) and Staff (0). Line participates in direct production (eg. consultant in a consulting firm, teacher in a school). Staff is any non-line position that provides support services to line (e.g. payroll worker in a consulting firm and Secretary in a school).

B. Organizational Experiences Variables

Formal procedural justice: Perception of fairness, inclusiveness and non-bias in how management makes and enforces formal organizational decisions and policies. Measured in ordinal ranks, 6= high formal procedural justice, 1= low formal procedural justice [Adapted from Niehoff & Moorman (1993) in Fields (2002). Reported reliability alpha =.85.] See table 2 for adapted items and factor statistics.

Non-Comparative Distributive Justice: Perception of fairness in how management distributes organizational rewards relative only to one's technical qualifications and job labor without comparing oneself to other workers. Measured in ordinal ranks, 6= high non-comparative distributive justice, 1= low non-comparative distributive justice [Adapted from Price & Mueller (1986), in Fields (2002), page 172-173. Reported reliability alphas =.75 to .94 (4 studies)]. See table 2 for adapted items and factor statistics.

Comparative distributive Justice: Perception of fairness in how management distributes organizational rewards relative to one's reference group (others with similar job levels, similar technical qualifications, education and experiences). Measured in ordinal ranks, 6= high comparative distributive justice, 1= low comparative distributive justice [Adapted from Price & Mueller (1986) in Fields (2002), page 172-173. Reported reliability alphas =.75 to .94 (4 studies)]. See table 2 for adapted items and factor statistics.

Interactive justice: Perception of fairness in how management/supervisors interact or relate with subordinate workers. Measured in ordinal ranks, 6= high interactive justice, 1= low interactive justice [Adapted from Moorman (1991) in Fields (2002), pages 175-176. Reported reliability alpha ranged from .93 to .94]. See table 2 for adapted items and factor statistics.

Coworker social support: Perceptions of the extent to which one can count on co-workers to provide necessary help in the workplace. Measured in ordinal ranks, 6 = high co-worker support, 1= low co-worker support [Adapted from Caplan et al. (1975) in Fields (2002), pages 115-116. Reported reliability alpha = .79]. See table 2 for adapted items and factor statistics.

Organizational involvement: Perception of extent of voluntary participation in non-job related social activities in one's organization. Measured in ordinal ranks, 6= high organizational involvement, 1= low organizational involvement. Self-created. See table 2 for items and factor statistics.

Person-organization fit: Perception of extent of congruence or similarity between employee and organization in values, attitudes, beliefs and interests. Measured in ordinal ranks, 6= high fit, 1= low fit. [Adapted from Lovelace & Rosen (1996) in Fields (2002), page 228, reported reliability alpha = .92]. See table 2 for adapted items and factor statistics.

Pay satisfaction: Extent to which organizational members perceived their job incomes as satisfactory. Measured in ordinal ranks, 6= high pay satisfaction, 1= low pay satisfaction. [Adapted from Heneman & Schwab (1985) in Fields (2002), page 34, reported reliability alphas ranging from .77 to .88]. See table 2 for adapted items and factor statistics.

Benefits satisfaction: Extent to which organizational members perceived their job financial benefits, other than wages, as satisfactory. Measured in ordinal ranks, 6= high benefits satisfaction, 1= low benefits satisfaction. [Adapted from Heneman & Schwab (1985) in Fields (2002), page 34, reported reliability alphas ranging from .77 to .88]. See table 2 for adapted items and factor statistics.

Recognition satisfaction: Extent of satisfaction with appreciation received for doing a good job. Measured in ordinal ranks, 6= high recognition satisfaction, 1= low recognition satisfaction. Self-created. See table 2 for items and factor statistics.

Independent Variables: *Job Structure variables*

Job depth: Amount of discretional power built into a job for decision-making and execution of the responsibilities of a job (Gibson, et. al, 2009). Measured as Extent to which one believes his/her job grants sufficient discretionary power to complete job tasks in ordinal ranks, 6= high depth, 1= low depth. [Adapted from Mottaz (1981), reliability alpha = .917; and Dwyer & Ganster (1991). Reported reliability alphas = .87, in Fields (2002), pages 94-95]. See table 2 for adapted items and factor statistics.

Meaningfulness: Extent to which job is perceived to contribute to final organizational outcomes. It is the flip side of meaninglessness described in earlier studies **(**Sarros et. al., 2002; Seeman, 1959**).** Measured as the extent to which one believes his/her job outcomes make important contributions to overall organizational objectives in ordinal ranks, 6= high meaningfulness, 1= low meaningfulness. [Adapted from Mottaz (1981) in Fields (2002), pages 94-95,. reported reliability alpha = .790]. See table 2 for adapted items and factor statistics.

Job enrichment: Extent to which job is perceived to be challenging, fulfilling and rewarding. Measured in ordinal ranks based on one's perceptions of his/her job, 6= high enrichment, 1= low enrichment. [Adapted from Mottaz (1981) in Fields (2002) in Fields (2002), pages 94-95, reported reliability alpha = .875]. See table 2 for adapted items and factor statistics.

Job Variety: Extent to which job is perceived to be complex, involving many activities, dynamic and nonrepetitive. Measured in ordinal ranks based on one's perceptions of the extent to which one sees his/her job as having varieties, 6= High Job Variety, 1= Low Job Variety. [Adapted from Bacharach, Bamberger & Conley (1990) in Fields (2002), pages 91-92, reported reliability alphas range from .71 to .83]. See table 2 for adapted items and factor statistics.

Job formalization: Extent to which job procedures are perceived to require formal processes that are expected to be followed in the conduct of one's job. Measured in ordinal ranks based on one's perceptions of the extent of formalization in one's job, 6= high formalization, 1= low formalization. [Adapted from Bacharach, Bamberger & Conley (1990) in Fields (2002), pages 91-92, reported reliability alphas range from .71 to .83]. See table 2 for adapted items and factor statistics.

Job responsibility level: Perceived amount of job responsibility one carries in one's job within one's organizational unit. Measured in perceived ordinal rank, with only one question

(Please pick a number that best represents your belief about THE LEVEL of your Job responsibilities in your unit),

10 = High unit responsibility, 1 = low. [Self-created]. Obtained mean score = 6.63 (N = 1908)

Intrinsic satisfaction: Extent to which direct job characteristics are perceived to produce job satisfaction. Measured in ordinal ranks, 6= high intrinsic satisfaction, 1= low intrinsic satisfaction. [Self-created]. See table 2 for items and factor statistics.

Factor analysis, using principal component method with no rotation, was used to measure construct validity of each scale of latent variables. A minimum factor coefficient of .600 on the variable (primary) component for each scale, was adopted as minimum coefficient threshold for retaining a scale item. Any scale item that failed to achieve a factor coefficient of .600 on the variable component was eliminated from each scale for not sufficiently loading strongly with all other items for the particular latent variable. The .600 coefficient threshold

was adopted to ensure strong contributions of each item to the internal consistence of each scale, hence it was much higher than the minimum threshold of .300 standard, recommended by Kline (2005), for including an item on a scale. Based on the adopted threshold for retaining a scale item, the final items for each scale loaded strongly and consistently on the variable component for each scale (see table 2).

3.3. Full Research Data Collection

Upon determining final items for measuring each latent variable, the questionnaire was reopened on MTurk for further nation-wide data collection. Because all participants on MTurk must use their identification number, issued to them by MTurk, anyone who had participated in the pretest survey was blocked from participation in the full (larger) data collection survey. Qualifications for participation in the full survey was the same as used for the pretest, and additional 1,962 respondents fully completed the questionnaire for a total of 2,212 participants (after adding data from the pretest survey).

Although the adequacy of sample size depends, ultimately, on the complexity of models being tested in a study, the sample size for this study far exceeded Kline's (2005) recommendation of maintaining a 1:10 ratio of the number of free parameters to the number of study cases. Based on this recommended ratio and number of variables (24) in this study, approximately 240 participants would have produced an adequate sample size for analysis. The sample size of 2212, therefore, was more than nine times the minimum required size for sampling adequacy for this study.

Table 2. Scale items and factor analysis for construct validity of latent variables

Variables	Mean	Factor Comp 1
Dependent Variable		
Affective Organizational Commitment	25.06	
Your happiness in spending the rest of your career with your current organization	3.36	.768
You enjoy discussing your organization with people not in it	3.61	.755
Your feeling that your organization's problems are your own	3.30	.787
Your feeling that you are a ―part of the family‖ in your organization	3.79	.881
Your feeling that you are emotionally attached to your organization	3.61	.910
Your feeling that your organization has a personal meaning for you	3.64	.910
Your feeling of a strong sense of belonging to your organization *α = .935; Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Sampling Adequacy = .896;*	3.74	.921
Control Variables: Job Experiences Variables		
Non-Comparative Distributive Justice	**24.91**	
For the responsibilities you take at your organization?	4.37	.876
Given your level of education and training?	4.18	.842
In view of the amount of experience that you have?	4.24	.884
For the amount of effort that you put into your work?	4.11	.919
For the work that you have done well?	4.17	.922
For the stress and strains of your job? *α = .944; KMO Sampling Adequacy = .910*	3.84	.867

Comparative Distributive Justice	**25.10**	
For the responsibilities you take at your organization?	4.29	.918
Given your level of education and training?	4.28	.893
Given the amount of experience that you have?	4.26	.902
For the amount of effort that you put into your work?	4.11	.932
For the work that you have done well?	4.15	.927
For the stress and strains of your job? *α = .959; KMO Sampling Adequacy = .918*	4.02	.898
Formal Procedural Justice	**24.35**	
Management makes decision in unbiased manner.	4.09	.719
Management hears all employee concerns before making decisions.	3.88	.864
Management collects accurate and complete information before making job decisions.	4.10	.901
Management clarifies decisions when asked by employees.	4.22	.855
Management applies organizational policies consistently to all employees.	4.19	.828
Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal management decisions without retaliations. *α = .903; KMO Sampling Adequacy = .907*	3.89	.759

	Mean	**Factor Comp 1**
Interactive Justice	**31.68**	
Your supervisor considers your viewpoints as much as those of your coworkers.	4.62	.823
Your supervisor suppresses his/her personal biases when interacting with you.	4.28	.729
Your supervisor gives you timely feedback about decisions.	4.39	.773
Your supervisor treats you with kindness and considerations.	4.72	.887
Your supervisor shows concerns for your rights as an employee.	4.58	.851
Your supervisor takes steps to relate with you in truthful manners	4.61	.851
Your supervisor treats you like any of your coworkers without being partial. *α = .922; KMO Sampling Adequacy = .910*	4.48	.874
Pay Satisfaction	**13.73**	
My monthly take home pay after taxes.	3.70	.929
My annual gross income before taxes.	3.70	.933
My annual raise.	3.26	.910
My annual bonus. *α = .921; KMO Sampling Adequacy = .778*	3.07	.835
Benefits Satisfaction	**14.75**	
My benefits package.	3.74	.963
Amount the company contributes towards my benefits.	3.67	.973
The value of my benefits.	3.71	.982

Current size/amount of my benefits. *α = .981; KMO Sampling Adequacy = .877*	3.64	.973
Recognition Satisfaction	**25.37**	
Praise from supervisor for your good performance.	4.38	.867
Praise from coworkers for doing a good job.	4.42	.709
Your supervisor showing regular interests in your work.	4.21	.865
Commendations from your unit for doing a good job.	4.16	.893
Commendations from your organization for doing a good job.	4.02	.874
A general feeling of being appreciated for your work. *α = .923; KMO Sampling Adequacy = .885*	4.17	.888
Coworkers Social Support	**19.80**	
You can count on your co-workers to go out of their way to do things to make your work-life easier for you	3.81	.873
You can easily count on your co-workers to support you when you need them	4.14	.888
You can easily rely on co-workers to bail you out of difficult situations at work.	3.89	.899
You can count on co-workers to help you when you have personal problems.	3.69	.831
You can count on co-workers to help you figure things out about your job without making you feel incompetent *α = .912; KMO Sampling Adequacy = .896*	4.26	.820

	Mean	**Factor Comp 1**
Person-Organization Fit	**22.32**	
Value	4.44	.860
Ethical behavior	4.47	.850
Goals and Objectives	4.50	.890
Skill requirements to achieve organizational goals and objectives	4.46	.861
Attitudes toward work *α = .914; KMO Sampling Adequacy = .892*	4.46	.853
Organizational Involvement	**24.04**	
In your workplace, how involved are you on a voluntary basis, with activities not related to your job?	3.32	.733
In your workplace, how much do you enjoy voluntarily participating in activities not related to your job?	3.20	.875
How socially involved are you with people in other departments in your organization?	3.65	.764
How much do you enjoy participating in social events in your organization?	3.61	.793
How much do you enjoy voluntarily donating your time to various activities for your organization?	3.32	.897
How much do you enjoy being voluntarily around people in your organization?	3.66	.855
How much do you enjoy spending extra time on activities not related to your job, for the benefit of your organization? *α = .926; KMO Sampling Adequacy = .883*	3.26	.913
Independent Variables: Job Structure Variables		
Job Depth	**32.39**	

Exercise your own judgment on your job	4.42	.757
Control over how you carry out your daily tasks	4.48	.842
Make most work decisions without first consulting your supervisor	3.98	.751
Make changes regarding your job activities	3.52	.829
Determine your daily work activities	3.92	.826
Make your own decisions in the performance of your work role	4.09	.844
How much control do you have in the variety of methods you use in completing your work?	4.22	.730
How much can you choose among a variety of tasks or projects to do?	3.77	.748
α = .914; KMO Sampling Adequacy = .890		
Job Meaningfulness	**27.60**	
How much does your work contribute to the successful operation of your organization?	4.67	.838
How important is the purpose of what you do to your organization?	4.68	.903
How important and worthwhile is your job to your organization?	4.69	.907
How much does your job count in your organization?	4.56	.888
How does your work-role fit into the overall operation of your organization?	4.54	.859
How much does your work fit in with the work of others in your organization?	4.46	.807
α = .934; KMO Sampling Adequacy = .908		

	Mean	**Factor Comp 1**
Job Variety	**26.11**	
There is something different to do at my job every day.	3.80	.892
There is something new almost every day at my job.	3.68	.884
My job is far from being routine.	3.50	.871
My job is not repetitive at all.	3.27	.843
I often face different situations on my job.	4.04	.846
My job regularly requires creativity on my part.	3.76	.806
I regularly deal with complex matters on my job.	4.06	.720
α = .928; KMO Sampling Adequacy = .906		
Job Formalization	**22.09**	
There is a document that indicates the general procedure to follow for my job.	3.98	.860
There is a complete written description for my job.	3.85	.828
There is a manual I am required to use to do my job.	3.22	.827
There is a chart showing the chain of command that must be obeyed for my job.	3.48	.804
There are well-defined procedures that specify the proper channels of communication in most matters about my job.	3.89	.786
My job requires a rigid set of procedures. *α = .893; KMO Sampling Adequacy = .854*	3.66	.742
Job Enrichment	**24.16**	
How high is your sense of accomplishment in the type of work you do?	4.25	.856
How high does your work give you a sense of personal fulfillment?	3.94	.879

What is the extent to which you are able to use your real abilities and skills in the work you do?	4.21	.853
What is the extent to which your work gives you a very self-rewarding experience?	3.92	.931
What is the extent to which your work provides you the opportunity for creativity?	3.78	.837
What is the extent to which your work is interesting and challenging? *α = .935; KMO Sampling Adequacy = .908*	4.07	.873
Intrinsic Job Satisfaction	**33.78**	
The regular tasks of your job	4.37	.884
The joy you get from your job itself	4.10	.912
Your level of interest in doing your job	4.16	.905
Your level of accomplishments on your job	4.28	.889
The pride you get from doing your job	4.24	.905
The design of your job	4.16	.898
The responsibilities of your job	4.30	.904
The daily challenges of your job *α = .965; KMO Sampling Adequacy = .933*	4.18	.878

A statistical description of the 2,212 participants revealed that their average age was 33 years (ranging from 19 to 74), and only 25 percent of them held supervisory/managerial positions. They were predominantly White NonHispanic (76 percent) and women (63 percent). Most of them (79 percent) were full-time employees, most of them (67 percent) worked in staff positions rather than line (33 percent), the average number of years they had worked continuously with their organizations was five (5) years, and seventy-four (74) percent of them had a post-tax monthly (take-home) income between $3000 and $3999, level 4 income of the adopted ordinal income levels used for this study (see table 1). Regarding educational completion, 28 percent of the survey participants had completed some college courses, but without earning a degree. Eighteen (18) percent had obtained an associate or equivalent degree, 34 percent had earned a bachelor's degree, and another 17 percent of them had completed a post baccalaureate degree.

3.4. Survey through Mechanical Turk (M-Turk)

M-Turk required that participants be paid a wage for participating in research studies, hence, each participant was paid $1 for fully completing the questionnaire for this study, which took an average of 20 minutes to complete.

To minimize or eliminate collecting data from less attentive participants as often encountered in web-based surveys (Oppenheimer, Meyvis, & Davidenko, 2009), a few attention check questions (e.g. ATTENTION CHECK! How happy are you feeling today? Please NO NOT answer this question! Skip to the next one!!) were written into the questionnaire to ascertain that participants read each question before responding. Participants that answered any attention check question were immediately disqualified, cut off from the survey, and not paid as allowed by M-Turk. Any portion of the survey completed by such person was also manually deleted from the survey. Only data collected from those who completed the entire survey were kept and compensated.

Unlike other types of availability data, such as those collected through snowball sampling or internet social media (e.g. Facebook, Quora, Digg, & Linked-In) MTurk has been found to produce highly reliable data (Gosling et al., 2004; Ipeirotis, 2009; Paolacci, Chandler & Ipeirotis, 2010, Ross et al., 2010). Buhrmester,

Kwang and Gosling (2011) also indicated that although they received token compensations, sometimes as low as five cents, data quality from M-Turk had been established to not be affected by compensation rates. People appeared to participate in projects on M-Turk more for enjoyment than for compensation, and data generated through M-Turk were found as reliable as those generated through traditional (mail and phone) surveys (Buhrmester et al., 2011). Also, as affirmed by Gosling et al. (2004), research participants through M-Turk are more demographically diverse than standard internet samples and even samples collected from US college students. The demographic diversity of M-Turk participants is also more accurately representative of the US population than do the demographics of the typical US college undergraduate samples and other internet samples (Paolacci et al., 2010) as well as US internet users (Ipeirotis, 2009; Ross et al., 2010). It is, however, important, as done in this study, to set a US accessibility restriction, on M-Turk, to restrict participants to only US residents for surveys requiring participations from only US residents because M-Turk participants are worldwide.

3.5. Assumptions and Hypotheses

Assumptions derived from previous studies **(**Cetin, 2006; Gibson et al., 2009; Glisson & Durick, 1988; Meyer, et al., 2002**)** on the relationship between job design, job satisfaction and organizational turnover, underlie this study. As indicated in Gibson et al. (2009), job structure (produced through job design) is an important factor of job satisfaction, and a poorly designed job (hence, poor job structure) could result in poor job performance, with consequences that may include employee dissatisfaction, conflicts with coworkers and supervisor, termination or voluntary exit from the organization. Because job strucure has these potential consequences, the assumption in this study, based on evidence from previous studies about predictors of job satisfaction (Gibson et al., 2009; McGregor, [1960] 2016; Meyer, et al., 2002; Ouchi, 1981; Sarros et. al., 2002; Seeman, 1959; Tolbert & Hall, 2009), was that each of the selected variables of job structure (job depth, meaningfulness, job enrichment, job variety, job formalization, job responsibility level and intrinsic job satisfaction) would positively predict job satisfaction. An exception is job formalization that has a high likelihood to inversely predict job satisfaction (especially among professional employees) as indicated in Tolbert and Hall (2009).

It had also been concluded in previous studies that job satisfaction predicted job performance (Glisson & Durick, 1988l; Meyer, et al., 2002), organizational turnover rate (Vandenberghe, Bentein, & Stinglhamber, 2004), organizational commitment (Abdallah et al., 2017; Tiwari & Singh, 2014) and, specifically, affective organizational commitment (Meyer, et al., 2002). Given that job structure predicts job satisfaction, and job satisfaction predicts affective organizational commitment, the following research hypotheses were advanced in this study regarding the likelihood that job structure, and the specific selected factors of job structure, would predict affective organizational commitment:

Hypothesis 1: *Job structure will likely predict affective organizational commitment.*

Hypothesis 2: *The greater the perceived amount of job depth, the greater the likelihood of affective organizational commitment.*

Hypothesis 3: *The greater the perception of job meaningfulness, the greater the likelihood of affective organizational commitment.*

Hypothesis 4: *The greater the perceived level of job enrichment, the greater the likelihood of affective organizational commitment.*

Hypothesis 5: *The greater the level of perceived job variety, the greater the likelihood of affective organizational commitment* H**ypothesis 6:** *The greater the level of perceived job formalization, the lower the likelihood of affective organizational commitment.*

Hypothesis 7: *The greater the perception of fair amount of job responsibilities, the greater the likelihood of affective organizational commitment.*

Hypothesis 8: *The greater the level of perceived intrinsic job satisfaction, the greater the likelihood of affective organizational commitment.*

Table 3. Correlation matrix values of all research variables. All values are significant at α= .05 except for asterisked values.

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
1	Affective Organizational Commitment	1																						
2	Organizational Tenure	.011*	1																					
3	Employment Area: Line1, Staff=0	-.031*	.012*	1																				
4	Organizational Size	.032*	-.002*	.031*	1																			
5	Take Home Pay Rank	.148	.109	-.052	-.020*	1																		
6	Job Status: Full-time=1, Part-time=0	.097	.045	-.048	-.040	.348	1																	
7	Supervisory Status: Worker =1, Mgmt.=0	-.198	-.030*	.076	.013*	-.222	-.165	1																
8	Formal Procedural Justice	.516	-.020*	-.041	.038	.060	-.016*	-.084	1															
9	Non-comparative Distributive Justice	.490	.028*	-.065	.028*	.134	.001*	-.088	.602	1														
10	Comparative Distributive Justice	.443	.002*	-.014*	.027*	.101	-.012*	-.061	.571	.819	1													
11	Interactive Justice	.474	-.013*	-.024*	.006*	.054	-.013*	-.055	.727	.580	.583	1												
12	Pay Satisfaction	.471	.061	-.072	.043	.257	.116	-.141	.442	.633	.563	.383	1											
13	Benefits Satisfaction	.365	.065	-.075	.027*	.261	.305	-.106	.301	.376	.342	.300	.558	1										
14	Recognition Satisfaction	.574	-.010*	-.028*	.016*	.087	.001*	-.101	.633	.618	.589	.725	.475	.322	1									
15	Co-worker Social Support	.471	.018*	-.003*	.030*	.044	-.003*	-.049	.434	.395	.400	.457	.342	.284	.562	1								
16	Organizational Involvement	.655	-.009*	-.019*	.031*	.082	.053	-.168	.385	.385	.358	.340	.380	.265	.467	.471	1							
17	Person-Organization Fit	.654	.004*	-.043	.031*	.112	.056	-.134	.608	.578	.544	.591	.429	.356	.646	.469	.486	1						
18	Job Depth	.399	.049	-.058	.008*	.174	.147	-.227	.333	.311	.282	.355	.236	.245	.352	.287	.283	.423	1					
19	Job Meaningfulness	.297	-.005*	.000*	.031*	.020*	.099	-.160	.221	.190	.165	.235	.126	.102	.276	.207	.228	.357	.375	1				
20	Job Variety	.485	.050	.014*	-.012*	.224	.185	-.215	.281	.291	.279	.284	.268	.267	.376	.326	.400	.445	.502	.322	1			
21	Job Formalization	.115	.031*	.017*	.029*	-.026*	.002*	-.011*	.200	.129	.117	.116	.142	.170	.121	.098	.108	.128	-.076	.099	.023*	1		
22	Job Responsibility Level	.272	.068	-.035	.004*	.176	.183	-.351	.093	.071	.047	.120	.120	.132	.172	.119	.213	.240	.391	.415	.334	.009*	1	
23	Job Enrichment	.635	.058	.000*	.023*	.190	.139	-.190	.414	.450	.411	.408	.374	.314	.515	.389	.483	.616	.589	.459	.721	.080	.379	1
24	Intrinsic Job Satisfaction	.653	.047	-.004*	.029*	.138	.079	-.170	.441	.506	.476	.439	.415	.324	.569	.402	.497	.683	.492	.384	.619	.087	.332	.808

4. Tests

Correlations: A Pearson bivariate correlation matrix of all twenty-four (24) research variables was conducted using alpha = .05 for significance test. Results (table 3) showed that all the control and independent variables were significantly correlated with affective organizational commitment, except organizational tenure (r = .011, p = .608), employment area: line vs. staff (r = -.031, p = .148) and organization size (r = .032, p = .133). Because of their extremely low correlations and lack of acceptable statistical significance with affective organizational commitment, all three variables were dropped from further analysis.

Normality, Multicollinearity and Data Reduction: The research data were tested for normality and multicollinearity. First, Mahalanobis and Cook's distances were calculated to assess outliers. Obtained values for the two tests suggested the presence of outliers, which led to data reduction to remove all outliers. This reduced the data from N = 2,212 to N = 1908. The final data size (N = 1,908) passed the normal distribution test for dependent variable with all standardized residual values falling within -/+ 3 standard deviations of the residual mean, as shown in figures 1 through 3 (histogram, P-P Plot and scatter plot). Second, Tolerance, Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) and DurbinWatson (D-W) tests were conducted for multicollinearity among the control and independent variables. The tests of multicollinearity (N = 1,908) showed that all values were well

within acceptable range for every variable (tolerance < 10; VIF > 1; D-W range: 1 to 4) indicating no multicollinearity among the control and independent variables.

Hierarchical Regression Models: To answer the two questions of this study through the eight stipulated hypotheses, it was deemed necessary to, first, assess for the influences of the control variables (organizational demographic and organizational experiences factors) on affective organizational commitment. These factors, as explained earlier in the review of literature, have been found to contribute to explained variance in affective organizational commitment.

By controlling for these variables, their possible collective and individual potential confounding values were assessed and distinguished from the contributions of the variables of job structure to affective organizational commitment.

Figure 1. Histogram showing normal distribution for affective commitment for the full hierarchical regression models

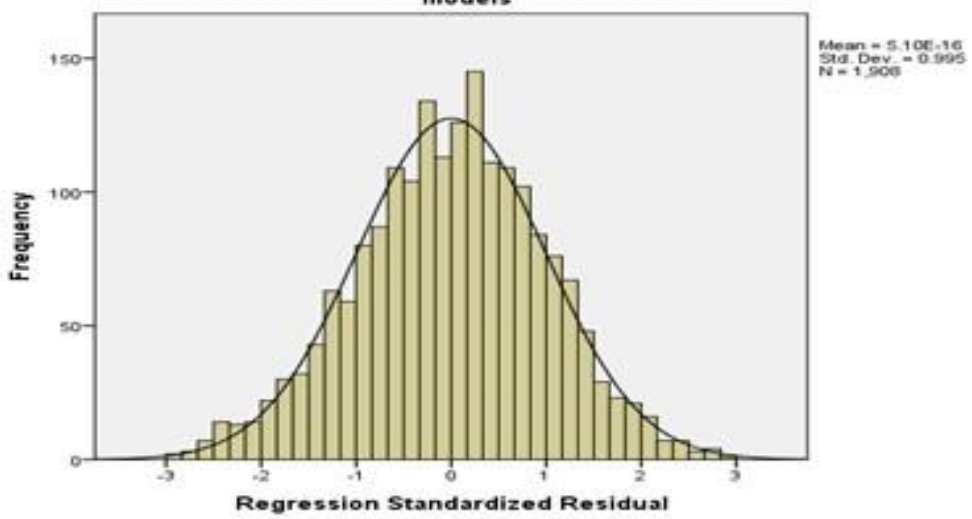
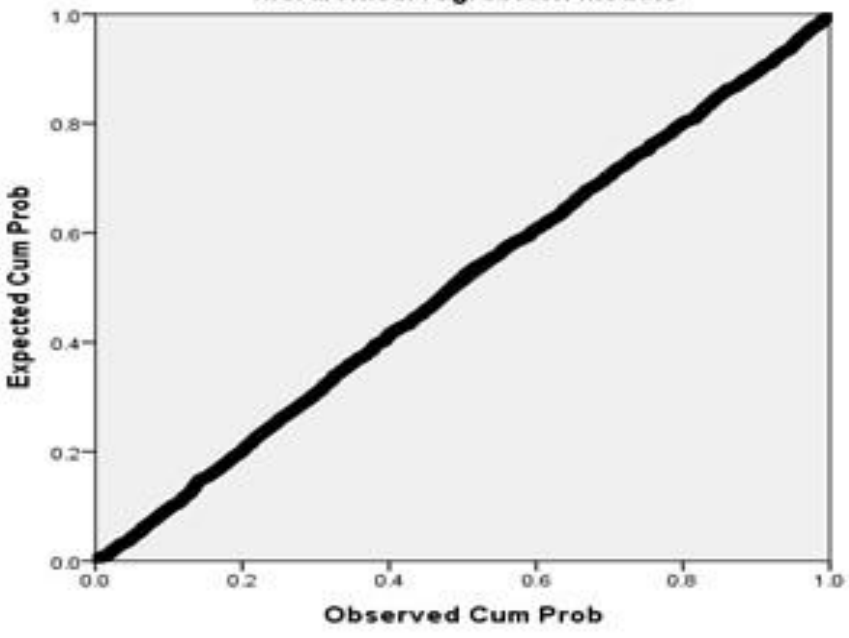
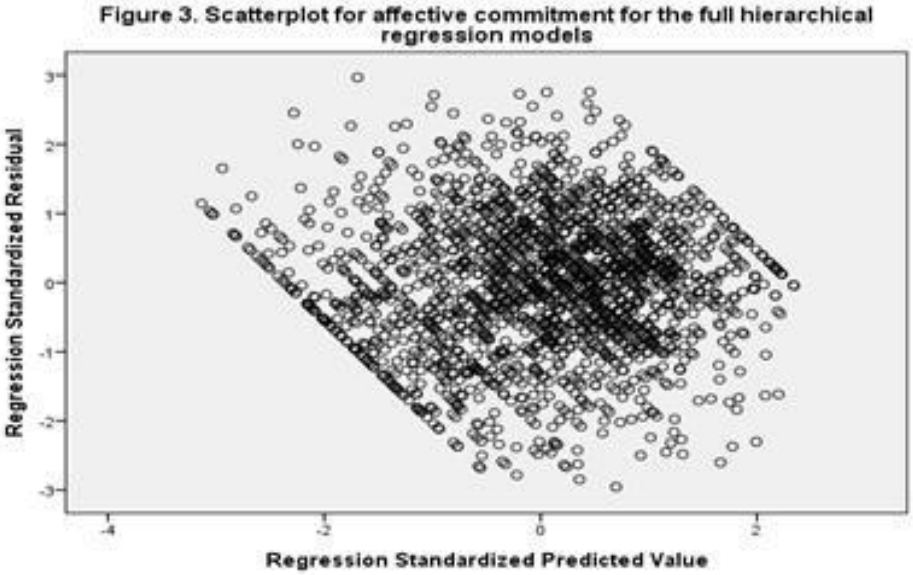


Figure 2. Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual for affective commitment for the full hierarchical regression models





A hierarchical regression (N = 1,908) was conducted, using all 20 remaining control and independent variables that significantly correlated with affective organizational commitment, in three hierarchy levels. Factors of organizational demography (employment status: full-time vs. part-time; supervisory status: supervisory/management vs. non-supervisory/non-management; post-tax monthly income) were first entered into the regression equation as (control) Model 1, to assess their possible collective and individual contributions to explained variance in affective commitment.

In the second (control) model, all the ten organizational experiences variables (formal procedural justice, noncomparative distributive justice, comparative distributive justice, interactive justice, coworker social support, organizational involvement, person-organization fit, pay satisfaction, benefits satisfaction, recognition satisfaction) were entered into the regression equation. Job structure variables (job dept, meaningfulness, job enrichment, job variety, job formalization, job responsibility level, intrinsic job satisfaction) were entered into the regression equation as the last (independent variables) model.

5. Regression Models Results

Model 1 (see table 4): Test results showed that the combined interactive effects of the three organizational demographic variables in this model significantly contributed approximately six percent (R^2 = .055, p = .000) to explained variance in affective organizational commitment. Among the three variables, employment status (part-time vs. full-time) had no unique significant contribution to the dependent variable (β = .018, P = .464). The remaining demographic variables (supervisory status: worker vs. manager, β = -1.67, P = .000; and post-tax income, β = .118, P = .000) uniquely predicted the likelihood of the dependent variable. That is, being a manager (vs. being a worker) and higher take-home income (vs. lower income) independently increased the likelihood of affective organizational commitment.

Model 2 (see table 4): The entrance of the 10 organizational experiences variables in this model fully mediated the independent contribution of take-home pay (β = .017, P =.274) to explained variance in affective organizational commitment, but supervisory status remained a significant independent contributor, albeit being partially mediated (β = -.054, P = .000). Among the 10 organizational experiences variables entered in the regression equation, six variables; formal procedural justice (β = .087, P = .000), pay satisfaction (β = .094, P = .000), recognition satisfaction (β = .098, P = .000), co-worker support (β = .073, P = .000), organizational

involvement (β = .363, P = .000) and person-organization fit (β = .321, P = .000) individually uniquely predicted the likelihood of affective organizational commitment. In addition, the combined effect of all the 10 variables contributed approximately 60 percent (ΔR^2 = .601), while the entire model (organizational demographic plus organizational experiences variables) contributed approximately 66 percent (R^2 = .656) to explained variance in affective organizational commitment.

Model 3 (see table 4): In model 3, all job structure variables were added to the hierarchical regression equation as the full model. Results indicated a further mediation but, still, a significant independent contribution of supervisory status (β = -.036, P = .013) to explained variance in affective organizational commitment. Also, all the six significant organizational experiences variables in Model 2 remained significant predictors in Model 3. Among them, formal procedural justice (β = .097, P = .000) and pay satisfaction (β = .098, P = .000) gained strength, while the rest; recognition satisfaction (β = .049, P = .036), co-worker support (β = .065, P = .000), organizational involvement (β = .308, P = .000) and person-organization fit (β = .176, P = .000) were partially mediated in their unique contributions to explained variance in affective organizational commitment. And, among the seven job structure independent variables entered into the regression equation, only job enrichment (β = .141, P = .000) and intrinsic job satisfaction (β = .174, P = .000) uniquely predicted the likelihood of affective organizational commitment. The combined effects of the seven job structure variables contributed additional 3.4 percent (ΔR^2 = .034) to explained variance in affective organizational commitment, beyond the combined contributions of models 1and 2.

Table 4. Hierarchical regression models of all factors significantly correlated with affective organizational commitment (N=1908).

Factors	**Mean**	**Model 1**			**Model 2**			**Model 3**		
Organizational Demography		**β**	**t**	**P**	**β**	**t**	**P**	**β**	**t**	**P**
Constant		25.40	38.48	.000	-4.48	-6.28	.000	-5.44	-5.94	.000
Full-time-1, Part-time-0	.79	.018	.73	.464	.016	1.05	.295	.001	.098	.922
Worker 1, Manager 0	.75	-.167	-7.22	.000	-.054	-3.80	.000	-.036	-2.49	.013
Take Home Monthly Pay Rank	2.91	.118	4.79	.000	.017	1.09	.274	.000	.021	.983
Organizational Experiences	24.34				-.024	-.831	.406	-.036	-1.28	.200
Non-comparat' Distributive Justice										
Comparative Distributive Justice	24.66				-.006	-.233	.816	-.025	-.95	.343
Interactive Justice	31.25				-.032	-1.34	.180	-.012	-.51	.609
Formal Procedural Justice	23.48				.087	3.98	.000	.097	4.59	.000
Pay Satisfaction	12.49				.094	4.52	.000	.098	4.96	.000
Benefits Satisfaction	14.21				.029	1.67	.096	.023	1.39	.166
Recognition Satisfaction	24.76				.098	4.05	.000	.049	2.10	.036
Co-workers social Support	19.54				.073	4.08	.000	.065	3.78	.000

Organizational Engagement	20.64		.363	21.47	.000	.308	18.52	.000
Person-Organization Fit	22.17		.321	14.83	.000	.176	7.55	.000
Job Structure	24.00					.141	4.89	.000
Job Enrichment								
Job Depth	32.78					.003	.14	.886
Meaningfulness	27.65					-.006	-.38	.705
Job responsibility level	6.63					.012	.74	.462
Job Variety	26.08					-.013	-.61	.545
Job Formalization	21.61					-.003	-.20	.844
Intrinsic Job Satisfaction	33.82					.174	6.50	.000
MODEL STATISTICS		R =.235 R^2 = .055 R^2 Adj.=.054 Std. Error = 8.77 DF= (3, 1904) 1907 F = 37.064, P= .000	R =.810 R^2 = .656 R^2 Adj.=.653 Std. Error = 5.31 DF = (13, 1894) 1907 F = 277.51, P= .000 ΔR^2 = .601 ΔF= 330.41, P=.000			R =.830 R^2 = .690 R^2 Adj.=.686 Std. Error = 5.05 DF = (20, 1887) 1907 F =209.73, P= .000 ΔR^2 = .034 ΔF= 29.52, P=.000 Durbin-Watson Statistics = 1.919		
RESIDUAL STATISTICS			**Min.**		**Max.**	**Mean**		**St. Dev.**
			Predicted Value		1.23	42.23	24.69	7.49
			Std. Predicted Value		-3.14	2.34	.00	1.00
			Std. Error of Predicted Value		.26	.75	.52	.10
			Adjusted Predicted Value		1.17	42.23	24.69	7.49
			Residual		-14.92	14.97	.00	5.02
			Standardized Residual		-2.96	-2.96	.00	.96
			Mahalanobis Distance		4.02	40.51	19.99	7.90
			Cook's Distance		.00	.01	.00	.00
			N= 1908					

These findings, therefore, support only hypotheses 1, 3 and 7, but not the remaining five research hypotheses. That is, the data showed that job structure positively predicted affective organizational commitment (ΔF = 29.52, P =.000), and the greater the perceived levels of job enrichment and perceived intrinsic job satisfaction, the greater the likelihood of affective organizational commitment. Lastly, the entire Model 3 (organizational demography + organizational experiences +job structure variables) explained 69 percent (R^2 = .690) of the total explained variance in affective organizational commitment in this study.

6. Discussion and Conclusion

In this study, after controlling for organizational demography and job experiences factors, answers were given to two research questions and eight hypotheses. The answer to the first question affirmed that job structure (the aggregate of all job design elements) positively predicted the likelihood of affective organizational commitment ($\Delta R^2 = .034$, $\Delta F = 29.52$, $P = .000$). While the contribution of job structure to explained variance in affective organizational commitment may appear small (only 3.4 percent), it is important to recognize that this contribution exists in addition to the contributions of 13 control variables. That is, after accounting for the collective contributions of 13 variables to affective organizational commitment, the aggregate of 7 job design elements produced an extra 3.4 percent contribution to the likelihood of affective organizational commitment.

While the collective of job structure factors significantly predicted affective organizational commitment, answers to the second research question, via seven hypotheses, indicated that only two job structure variables uniquely predicted affective organizational commitment. Of the two factors, intrinsic job satisfaction was stronger ($\beta = .174$, $P = .000$) than job enrichment ($\beta = .141$, $P = .000$). None of the other job structure variables uniquely predicted affective organizational commitment, despite being correlates of the dependent variable. It is also important to recognize that intrinsic job satisfaction is an outcome of job structure, rather than an actual job structure element in itself. Therefore, while intrinsic job satisfaction is a strong unique factor of affective organizational commitment, the only directly designed job structure factor that uniquely predicted affective organizational commitment was job enrichment. It is, therefore, speculated in this study that, perhaps, the most important job structure factor to emphasize, while designing or redesigning jobs with anticipations for affective organizational commitment is job enrichment. This may be because, for a job to be enriched, it will potentially encompass aspects of other job design variables. In this particular study, all the elements of job structure (except job formalization) were positive moderate or strong correlates of job enrichment (job depth, $r = .589$; meaningfulness, $r = .459$; job responsibilities level, $r = .379$; job variety, $r = .721$; job formalization, $r = .080$). The low correlation coefficient of job formalization with job enrichment seems logical, since formalization arguably reduces job enrichment.

As shown in table 4, the variables of organizational experiences collectively accounted for the largest explained variance in affective organizational commitment (60.1 percent) compared with organizational demographic variables (5.5 percent) and job structure factors (3.4 percent). This essentially demonstrates the paramount importance of positive organizational experiences in inducing affective organizational commitment among organizational members. Among the variables of organizational experiences, organizational involvement was, by far, the strongest predictor of affective organizational commitment ($\beta = .308$, $p = .000$), followed by person-organization fit ($\beta = .176$, $p = .000$). Four other organizational experiences factors (formal procedural justice, pay satisfaction, recognition satisfaction, and co-worker support) were significant independent predictors of affective organizational commitment, but with standardized beta coefficients below .10. While they independently significantly contributed to the likelihood of affective organizational commitment, the strengths of their individual contributions were low.

It is also important to point out that only formal procedural justice, among four organizational justice variables, independently significantly predicted affective organizational commitment. This may indicate that organizational members valued management's formal decision-making processes that were fair, unbiased, inclusive and considerate of employees' concerns, over other forms of organizational justice. It should also be pointed out that while actual post-tax (take-home) monthly income, itself, did not predict affective

organizational commitment, pay satisfaction did. This is interpreted to mean that being satisfied with one's income was more important to workers than the actual amount of their monthly incomes.

This study also points to the importance of organizational demographic factors in understanding affective organizational commitment. First, the three variables that made up the first model in this study (job status, authority level and monthly take-home pay) collectively accounted for approximately 6 percent of the explained variance in affective organizational commitment.

And, second, supervisory status (being a manager) remained a significant independent predictor of affective organizational commitment, albeit with low correlation and low standardized beta across all three hierarchical models (final model: $\beta = .036$, $r = -.198$, $p = .013$). This means that managers were more likely to affectively commit to their organizations than non-managers. This could be the result of the design of the roles of manager, which may elicit higher organizational involvement than the roles of workers. Since organizational involvement was the strongest independent predictor of affective organizational commitment, the significant correlation between organizational involvement and supervisory status, albeit fairly low, ($r = -.168$) may mean that managers are likely to be more involved with their jobs, hence, increasing the likelihood of developing affection for the organization. In fact, while all job structure variables in this study might not have independently predicted the likelihood of affective organizational commitment, they were qualities that are generally built into management positions, which can, therefore, increase the likelihood that management positions would produce affective commitment than non-management positions. This fact may be supported with the positive significant ($\alpha < .05$) correlation between management status and job depth ($r = .227$), job meaningfulness ($r = .160$), job variety ($r = .215$), job responsibility level ($r = .351$) and job enrichment ($r = .190$). Essentially, through correlational inference, the status of manager may be argued to predict affective organizational commitment because of structural roles of the status.

Last, this study contributes to knowledge on the importance of structure in organizations. If organizational members are to be affectively committed to their organizations, the source of the commitment (or lack thereof) is structure. This study tells the story of two structures; organizational structure and job structure. Organizational experiences that contributed approximately 60 percent to the likelihood of affective organizational commitment are products of total organizational structure. It is the structure of organizations that produces organizational outcomes such as formal procedural justice, pay satisfaction, recognition satisfaction, co-worker social support, selection for person-organization fit and organizational involvement.

This study, therefore, signals the paramount importance of organizational structure in eliciting affective organizational commitment from members. While the general organizational structure produces the lion share of explanations for affective organizational commitment, job structure, specifically, is also important, as this study has shown. Evidence from this study shows that the design of jobs ought to be well planned, especially for enrichment and job satisfaction, to encourage affective commitment. The two structures collectively accounted for 63.5% of explained variance in affective organizational commitment. When both general organizational structure and the structure of specific jobs are well designed, the likelihood that organizational members would develop affective commitment to their organizations appear highly probable.

7. Future Studies

This study was designed on the basis of the logic and assumptions that job structure factors would predict affective organizational commitment. While two job structure factors positively predicted the likelihood of affective organizational commitment, five did not (job depth, meaningfulness, job responsibility level, job variety, job formalization). Given the assumptions and hypotheses that these variables would independently

predict affective organizational commitment, their failure to do so, is hereby suggested to be meritorious of further investigation. Scholars of organizational studies, are, therefore, encouraged to further investigate these variables relative to affective organizational commitment.

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