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Organizational Power and Job Responsibilities as Predictors of Affective Organizational Commitment

A. Olu Oyinlade

Business Organizational Sociologist

Department of Sociology and Anthropology

University of Nebraska, Omaha

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Abstract

This study aimed to identify predictors of affective organizational commitment (AOC) by examining how organizational power and job responsibilities predicted it, and by testing organizational involvement as a mediator. Primary data were collected through M-Turk using availability sampling. Overall, 2,212 participants provided data for the study. The study answered four primary questions: 1. To what extent did the predictive factors significantly predict AOC? 2. To what extent did the mediator factor independently predict AOC? 3. What were the mediated effects of the predictive factors on AOC? 4. What were the total effects of all factors on AOC?

Structural equation modeling test results showed that departmental authority did not uniquely predict AOC, and departmental job responsibilities did not predict organizational involvement. However, departmental authority predicted organizational involvement; organizational-wide authority predicted both organizational involvement and AOC; and organizational involvement predicted AOC. Also, the mediated effect of departmental authority and job responsibilities on AOC was very weak, whereas the mediated effect of organization-wide authority on AOC was strong. The total effect of organizational involvement on AOC was strongest, followed by organization-wide authority, departmental job responsibilities, and departmental power. The paper discussed the implications of the findings and recommendations for future studies.

Keywords: Organizational Commitment, Affective Commitment, Organizational Power, Authority, Organizational Involvement, Organizational Engagement, Job Responsibilities

1. Introduction

Affective organizational commitment (AOC), defined as an employee's emotional positive

attachment to, identification with, and involvement in an organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991), has emerged as one of the most consequential constructs in organizational behavior research. Employees who are affectively committed do so out of love for the organization and, therefore, demonstrate greater organizational citizenship behaviors, lower turnover intentions, and enhanced individual and organizational performance (Mercurio, 2015; Pentareddy & Suganthi, 2015). Given these favorable outcomes, scholars have sustained attention on understanding the conditions and antecedents of AOC.

An earlier study by Mowday et al. (1982) established a framework with four categories of antecedent factors, personal characteristics, job-related characteristics, job experiences, and structural characteristics, for analyzing the antecedents of AOC. More recently, Oyinlade's (2018) study adopted a three-part analytic model to identify predictors of AOC. The three parts consisted solely of organizationally related factors, unlike the Mowday et al. (1982) model, which included personal characteristics. Organizational demography comprised the first part of Oyinlade's predictors, and only bureaucratic status (manager vs. worker) predicted AOC in the model. However, like the Mowday et al.'s framework, Oyinlade's analytic model included organizational experiences and job structure. In Oyinlade's model, organizational experience factors that predicted AOC were formal procedural justice, pay satisfaction, recognition satisfaction, co-worker social support, organizational engagement, and person-organization fit (congruence). For job structure, his model indicated that job enrichment and intrinsic job satisfaction predicted AOC.

This study further explored predictors of affective organizational commitment, focusing on organizational authority, organizational involvement, and individual job responsibilities as potential consequential antecedents. Organizational authority represents the channel through which organizations exercise control and influence; organizational involvement denotes the behavioral investment employees make in their work and organizational life beyond regular job expectations; and job responsibilities encompass the tasks, roles, and expectations that define employees' daily work experiences. Although organizational science has studied each of these constructs extensively in various forms, the literature's treatment of their relation to AOC appears insufficiently integrated to provide a cohesive understanding of how they shape AOC. This study integrates these factors into a predictive model to advance knowledge of AOC and guide recommendations for its practical use.

2. Literature

2.1 Organizational Authority

Power may be correctly defined as "the ability, capacity or potential to get others to do something, to command, to influence, to determine, or to control the behaviors, intentions, decisions, or actions of others in the pursuit of one's own goals or interests despite resistance, as well as to induce change" (Jalilvand & Nasrolahi-Vosta, 2015, p. 345). Put another way, authority refers to the legitimate right to exercise power within formal organizational hierarchies. It is a variant of power granted by organizational systems with consequences for how employees perceive fairness, autonomy, role clarity, and psychological safety (Lee et al., 2018). These perceptions, in turn, shape employees' willingness to invest effort, identify with

organizational goals, and remain emotionally attached to their organizations (Meyer & Morin, 2016; Albrecht et al., 2015).

Researchers have conceptualized power in organizational contexts through multiple theoretical lenses. French and Raven's (1959) classic typology distinguished five bases of social power: coercive, expert, legitimate, referent, and reward power. Scholars have applied this framework extensively in organizational research to examine how managers influence subordinates' attitudes and behaviors, including how different bases of managerial authority relate to employees' affective organizational commitment. Jalilvand and Nasrolahi-Vosta (2015) conducted an empirical study of 318 employees in Iranian sport organizations and found that expert power, legitimate power, reward power, and referent power each demonstrated significant positive relationships with affective commitment. Conversely, coercive power was not significantly associated with employees' affective commitment (Jalilvand & Nasrolahi-Vosta, 2015). Kim and Beehr (2023) also found that organizational authority can enhance employee engagement, leading to more positive behaviors, including increased organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), which is closely related to organizational commitment.

Other studies have also shown that organizational authority can induce AOC. Beckmann et al. (2025) examined how high-involvement management (HIM) practices promote AOC among German workers by assessing how power, information, rewards, and knowledge work together (i.e., complement one another rather than conflict) to shape AOC. Their findings suggest that power sharing (delegating authority and decision-making discretion to employees) represents a form of involvement that enhances affective commitment by signaling trust and respect. Doucet et al. (2015) also examined the moderating role of HIM practices in the relationship between transformational leadership and employees' AOC in a Canadian firm. They found that information and power-sharing practices enhanced leadership, while skill development practices served as a leadership substitute, amplifying the positive effects of transformational leadership on AOC (Doucet et al., 2015).

The preceding findings linking organizational authority to AOC require further explanation, as managerial authority ordinarily does not promote AOC (see Oyinlade, 2025). One explanation is that leadership behavior is a source of AOC, and that when managers exercise authority within a transformational leadership process, they are more likely to achieve AOC (Oyinlade, 2025). Jalilvand and Nasrolahi-Vosta (2015) offered another explanation using social exchange theory. They argued that when managers exercise power through socially accepted and valued means, employees' emotional attachment to the organization can increase as they exchange positive authority outcomes for affective commitment. This happens because workers reciprocate with AOC when an organization satisfies their needs, makes them feel valued as human beings, and treats them respectfully (Jalilvand & Nasrolahi-Vosta, 2015).

2.2 Job Responsibilities

Job responsibility pertains to the duties and tasks that an employee is expected to perform. They include job characteristics such as tasks, duties, and expectations that define an

employee's role within an organization (Pentareddy & Suganthi, 2015). Pentareddy and Suganthi (2015) studied 605 knowledge workers across four countries and various industries to examine how job characteristics, leadership, and empowerment build organizational commitment. Their results indicated that psychological empowerment partially mediates the effects of job characteristics on affective commitment, and that leadership moderates the influence of job characteristics and empowerment on affective commitment. They concluded that job characteristics influence affective commitment both directly and indirectly (by mediation) through psychological empowerment (Pentareddy & Suganthi, 2015). This suggests that higher responsibility is associated with greater job involvement and organizational commitment. Employees who perceive their roles as significant and impactful, as reflected in job characteristics, are more likely to develop a strong attachment to their organization. As a result, job characteristics have emerged as consistent predictors of affective organizational commitment (Pentareddy & Suganthi, 2015).

Ultimately, well-designed jobs that provide autonomy, feedback, and a sense of significance enhance employees' emotional attachment to the organization (Zhang & Bartol, 2015). For example, job autonomy (the degree of freedom and discretion employees have in performing their work) has been consistently linked to affective organizational commitment. For example, Stinglhamber et al. (2015) found that job autonomy, along with perceived organizational support and leader-member exchange, increased employees' affective commitment through organizational identification. Their research showed that favorable work experiences increased employees' affective commitment through organizational identification, which, in turn, decreased employee turnover. Additionally, role clarity (the extent to which expectations about job responsibilities are clear) has emerged as an important antecedent of affective commitment (Du Plessis & Grimmer, 2015). For example, research on school-based mentors found that role clarity and self-efficacy were the strongest variables associated with affective commitment to the mentor role (Du Plessis & Grimmer, 2015). Also, when employees had clear role expectations, they were more likely to develop emotional attachment to their role and, by extension, to their organization (Du Plessis & Grimmer, 2015).

2.3 Employee Organizational Involvement

This study conceptualized employee organizational involvement as employees' behavioral participation in organizational processes, decisions, and activities beyond the minimum requirements of their formal job roles. Unlike the commonly measured concept of job involvement, which focuses primarily on the importance of one's specific work roles (see Beckmann et al., 2025; Brown, 1996; Cotton et al., 1988; Kanungo, 1982), employees may also develop connections with their organizations through participation in activities that are not related to their assigned job duties. Examples include organizational committees, employee resource groups, corporate volunteer programs, mentoring activities, social responsibility initiatives, organization-sponsored professional associations, and workplace community-building activities. Such involvement extends the employee–organization relationship, as employees voluntarily invest personal time, energy, and identity in nonjob-related organizational activities.

Research indicates that involvement in these broader organizational activities can influence organizational commitment by strengthening employees' emotional attachment, organizational identification, perceived organizational support, and sense of belonging (Brockner et al., 2014; Lee et al., 2015). Nonjob-related organizational activities can increase commitment by allowing employees to express personal values and experience meaningful contribution. Brockner et al. (2014) examined corporate volunteerism and found that employees' participation in employer-sponsored volunteer activities was positively related to organizational commitment, showing that participation in nonjob activities lets them express personally meaningful values, boosts their sense of self-integrity, and increases their commitment to the organization. Similarly, Lee et al. (2015), in a meta-analysis published in *Psychological Bulletin*, found that organizational identification was significantly associated with affective organizational commitment, job involvement, satisfaction, and both in-role and extra-role performance. Their findings suggested that identification provided a psychological foundation for stronger attachment to the organization, and employees who participated in organizational activities outside their formal jobs were more likely to see themselves as important members of the organization rather than simply as individuals exchanging labor for compensation. This stronger sense of belonging contributed to employees' higher affective commitment (Lee et al., 2015).

3. Objective

This study aimed to better understand the predictors of affective organizational commitment (AOC) by examining how organizational power and job responsibilities predicted it and testing organizational involvement as a mediator.

3.1 Rationale

This study investigated power because it has been shown to predict organizational commitment (see Beckmann et al., 2025; Doucet et al., 2015; Jalilvand & Nasrolahi-Vosta, 2015; Kim & Beehr, 2023). However, these studies mostly failed to identify which level of organizational power was analyzed. An individual's power in an organization lies in the ability to control one's job characteristics and, even against their wishes, to control others' work characteristics. Power for self-efficacy and actualization has been popular in organizational research (see An & Tao, 2024; Buchmann, 1997; Ju et al., 2019; Korman et al., 2022; Maddux & Mendis, 2025), while research on power as control over others remains limited. This study focused on the latter type of control within organizations. Control over others' job characteristics may include job goals, processes, outcomes, and performance assessments. This control may occur at the organization-wide or departmental level, but research on organizational commitment largely omits it. This study analyzed both levels, assuming they would have different effects on organizational involvement and AOC.

This assumption of disparate impact on both organizational involvement and AOC was based on perceived differences between the two levels of authority and their implications. It was assumed that organization-wide power implies authority over others across organizational units and, therefore, having multiple unit heads and members carry out one's instructions and meet one's determined objectives. It may also mean one controls resources other units need,

gaining power over those units through obedience to one's instructions and requests. However, in departmental power, one has authority only over members of one's unit. This may be the power of office (such as a unit head), seniority, friendly connections within the unit, clique head, dominant coalition membership, or control over resources (such as information, skills, etc.) that other unit members need. Although one's power is limited in scope (only to the unit), it matters because of its impact within an idio structure, where one is most relevant in the workplace through direct contributions to unit goals, whether through individual efforts or collaborations with immediate colleagues. However, while both organizational-wide and departmental power are conceptually acknowledged, their relative influence on organizational involvement or affective organizational commitment remains unknown. Therefore, unlike previous studies (mentioned above) that have asserted organizational power as a predictor of organizational commitment, this study investigated how two specific power domains (organization-wide and departmental) directly shaped affective commitment and indirectly through mediated effects.

The study also examined the perceived level of one's current job responsibilities within one's department and its likely influence on AOC, on the premise that higher levels of job responsibility stem from prior job accomplishments and recognition. Higher job responsibilities may also increase one's ability to absorb uncertainties for one's unit. While it may be argued that higher job responsibilities may contribute to work-family life imbalance and early burnout, they may also boost a sense of job meaningfulness and self-actualization, which may promote both organizational involvement and AOC. These opposing possibilities necessitated exploring how job responsibilities predict AOC in this study.

Based on the objective and rationale for this study, the following specific research questions and hypotheses were addressed. These answers were intended to contribute to understanding how organizational power, job responsibilities, and organizational involvement increase the likelihood of AOC. These answers may also help organizational officers improve AOC among their employees.

3.2 Research Questions

1. To what extent did the predictive factors significantly predict AOC?
2. To what extent did the mediator factor independently predict AOC?
3. What were the mediated effects of the predictive factors on AOC?
4. What were the total effects of all factors on AOC?

3.2 Research Hypotheses

Direct

1. Departmental authority directly predicted AOC.
2. Departmental authority directly predicted organizational involvement.
3. Organization-wide authority directly predicted AOC.

4. Organization-wide authority directly predicted organizational involvement.
5. Departmental responsibilities directly predicted AOC.
6. Departmental responsibilities directly predicted organizational involvement.
7. Organizational involvement directly predicted AOC.

Mediated and Total Effects

8. Organizational involvement mediated the relationship between departmental power and AOC.
9. Organizational involvement mediated the relationship between organizational-wide power and AOC.
10. Organizational involvement mediated the relationship between departmental job responsibilities and AOC.

4. Method

4.1 Sampling

The convenience (availability) survey method was used to collect data for analysis. An author-developed questionnaire containing questions for each research variable was administered nationwide online in the United States (US) via Amazon Mechanical Turk (M-Turk). M-Turk is a well-known crowdsourcing platform for research participants, which studies had found to resemble the general US population (Moss, 2020), and responses collected through the platform were highly reliable (see Gosling et al., 2004; Ipeirotis, 2008, 2009, 2010; Moss, 2020; Paolacci et al., 2010; Ross et al., 2010; Thomas & Clifford, 2017). Each participant was paid $1 (USD) for full questionnaire completion through M-Turk (from money deposited by the author to M-Turk for payments to participants). Buhrmester et al. (2011) concluded that payments to research participants did not reduce data quality, supporting confidence in this study's data quality. Approximately 2,500 participants completed the questionnaire, and 2,212 completed all questions and scale items. Only data from these 2,212 participants formed the study dataset. The 2,212 participants were mostly women (63%; men 37%), non-managerial workers (75%; managers 25%), and full-time employees (79%; part-time 21%). They had worked in their current employment for an average of 5 years (minimum = 1 year, maximum = 10 years), and they spanned across all 10 industry categories listed in the Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) Manual of the US Department of Labor.

4.2 Measurements

Both organization-wide and departmental power, as well as perceived level of job responsibilities, were measured as observed variables using a single-item, ten-point scale to assess the presence of each factor. Several studies (Diamantopoulos et al., 2012; Gardner et al., 1998; Pandit et al., 2026; Scarpello & Campbell, 1983; Verster et al., 2021; Wanous et al., 1997) provide adequate justification for the use of a single-item scale to measure

organization-wide power, departmental power, and departmental job responsibilities instead of the multi-item scale commonly used for measuring conceptual variables. Each scholar concluded that the single-item scale was as reliable, valid, and predictable as the multi-item scale in their comparative analyses. In addition, the single-item scale was found to be more analytically and cost efficient than the multi-item scale. However, caution may need to be exercised in the use of single-item scales due to some potential downside. These downside and other limitations posed by both scale types are discussed below among the limitations of this study.

Participants directly indicated their perceived levels of organization-wide authority, departmental authority, and job responsibilities on each scale. Higher points represented higher levels of each factor (see Table 1 for the research and operational definitions (measurements) of each variable in the questionnaire). The other research variables, organizational involvement and affective organizational commitment, were measured with multi-item scales. The organizational involvement scale contained five items, while the AOC scale contained four.

The structural equation model (SEM) was used to conduct both exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses (EFA and CFA, respectively) to assess the construct validity of each factor. The EFA results (see Table 2) for organizational involvement showed that all five observed items loaded perfectly onto their respective factors (Factor 1), with standardized beta coefficients ranging from .690 to .942. The model fit analysis indicated a strong convergence of all five items measuring the latent factor. For the default model, CMIN = 5.1, $df = 4$, and $p = .275$, indicating strong overall fit and no discrepancies between the sample and fitted covariance matrices. The non-significant chi-square ($p = .275$) indicated that the model fit was acceptable (see Byrne, 1994). The goodness-of-fit index (GFI) and adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI) were greater than .95, and the root mean square of the residual (RMR) was .020, which is acceptable up to .08 for good fit (see Byrne, 1994; Kline, 2023).

Table 1. Research Variables, Definitions, and Sources

1. **Departmental Authority**: Perceived amount of authority one has over others in one's department. Measured as an observed variable in ordinal rank, single-item question (Based on the amount of authority you have over others, how would you rank your authority level in your department?), 10 = High Departmental Authority, 1 = low [Self-created]

2. **Organization-wide Authority**: Perceived amount of authority one has over others in one's organization. Measured in ordinal rank, single-item question (Based on the amount of authority you have over others, how would you rank your authority level in your organization?), 10 = High Organizational Authority, 1 = low. [Self-created]

3. **Departmental Job Responsibility level:** Perceived amount of job responsibility one carries in one's organizational unit. Measured in ordinal rank, single-item 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]

4. **Organizational Involvement:** Perception of extent of voluntary participation in non-job-related social activities in one's organization. Measured with 5 items as a latent variable in ordinal ranks, 6= high organizational involvement,1= Low organizational involvement. See Table 2 for items and factor statistics. [Self-created]

5. **Affective Organizational Commitment:** The likelihood that one would remain with an organization due to one's love and general positive feeling for the current organization. Measured in ordinal ranks, 6= high affective commitment, 1= Low affective commitment [Adapted from Meyer and 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 4 of the eight items based on poor factor loading of 4 other items]. See Table 2 for adapted items and factor statistics.

Table 2. Exploratory Factor Analysis Using SEM for the Scale of Organizational Involvement

ORGANIZATIONAL INVOLVEMENT	β				
In your workplace, how much do you enjoy voluntarily participating in activities not related to your job?	**.828**				
How much do you enjoy participating in social events in your organization?	**.690**				
How much do you enjoy voluntarily donating your time to various activities for your organization?	**.918**				
How much do you enjoy being voluntarily around people in your organization?	**.942**				
How much do you enjoy spending extra time on activities not related to your job, for the benefit of your organization?	**.808**				
Model Fit Summary					
CMIN					
Model	**NPAR**	**CMIN**	**DF**	**P**	**CMIN/DF**
Default model	11	5.123	4	.275	1.28
Saturated model	15	.000	0		
Independence model	5	1033.0	10	.000	103.30
RMR, GFI					
Model	**RMR**	**GFI**	**AGFI**	**PGFI**	
Default model	.020	.992	.969	.264	
Saturated model	.000	1.000			
Independence model	1.161	.326	-.011	.217	
Baseline Comparisons					
Model	**NFI Delta1**	**RFI rho1**	**IFI Delta2**	**TLI rho2**	**CFI**
Default model	.995	.988	.999	.997	.999
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
RMSEA					
Model	**RMSEA**	**LO 90**	**HI 90**	**PCLOSE**	
Default model	.034	.000	.106	.553	
Independence model	.641	.608	.674	.000	

Values for baseline comparisons for the default model showed that the normed fit index (NFI) = .995, relative fit index (RFI) = .998, the incremental fit index (IFI) = .999, the Tucker Lewis index (TLI) = .997, and the comparative Fit index (CFI) = .999 were very high (above the .90 minimum acceptable fit value and .95 for excellent fit (see Byrne, 1994; Fan et al., 1999; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Kline, 2023; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004; Tucker & Lewis,1973). In addition, the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) was .034 (acceptable up to .08, Hu & Bentler, 1999; Kline, 2023).

Table 3. Exploratory Factor Analysis Using SEM for scale of Affective Organizational Commitment

AFFECTIVE ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT SCALE	β				
Your feeling of a strong sense of belonging to your organization	**.909**				
Your feeling that your organization has a personal meaning for you	**.949**				
Your feeling that you are emotionally attached to your organization	**.906**				
Your feeling that you are a "part of the family" in your organization	**.901**				
Model Fit Summary					
CMIN					
Model	**NPAR**	**CMIN**	**DF**	**P**	**CMIN/ DF**
Default model	9	2.438	1	.118	2.438
Saturated model	10	.000	0		
Independence model	4	1036.70	6	.000	172.78
RMR, GFI					
Model	**RMR**	**GFI**	**AGFI**	**PGFI**	
Default model	.014	.995	.952	.100	
Saturated model	.000	1.000			
Independence model	1.349	.331	-.116	.198	
Baseline Comparisons					
Model	**NFI Delta1**	**RFI rho1**	**IFI Delta2**	**TLI rho2**	**CFI**
Default model	.998	.986	.999	.992	.999
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
RMSEA					
Model	**RMSEA**	**LO 90**	**HI 90**	**PCLOSE**	
Default model	.076	.000	.203	.229	
Independence model	.831	.788	.874	.000	

The EFA results for the four AOC items also showed strong convergence, indicating that the observed items strongly measured the latent factor (see Table 3 for details). All four observed items loaded on the factor component with standardized beta coefficients ranging from .901 to .909. The default model fit summary indicated strong overall fit and no discrepancies between the sample and fitted covariance matrices (CMIN = 2.4, df = 1, p = .118). The goodness-of-fit indices showed that the observed variables accounted for over 95% of the variance in the latent factor (GFI = .995, AGFI = .952, RMR = .014), and baseline comparison coefficients for the default model also showed a strong model fit (NFI = .998, RFI = .996, IFI = .999, TLI = .992, CFI = .999, and RMSEA= .076).

Lastly, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to examine the relationship between the two latent factors. All seven observed variables for both latent factors were

entered into a single SEM equation. The two latent factors showed a significant squared correlation (r^2 = .68), and all observed items loaded strongly on their respective factor components (Component 1), with no cross-loaded items. The standardized beta weights for organizational involvement (Table 4) ranged from β = .794 to β = .916, and the weights for AOC ranged from β = .894 to β = .951. Also, model fit statistics indicated a strong overall model fit with no discrepancies between the sample and fitted covariance matrices (CMIN = 145.4, *df* = 23, CMIN/DF = 6.32, and *p* = .000). The goodness-of-fit indices showed that the observed variables accounted for over 95% of the variance in the latent factor (GFI = .986, AGFI = .972, RMR = .043). In addition, the baseline statistics showed a strong model fit: NFI = .993, RFI = .989, IFI = .994, TLI = .990, CFI = .994, and RMSEA = .049. See Figure 1and Table 4 for detailed CFA statistics.

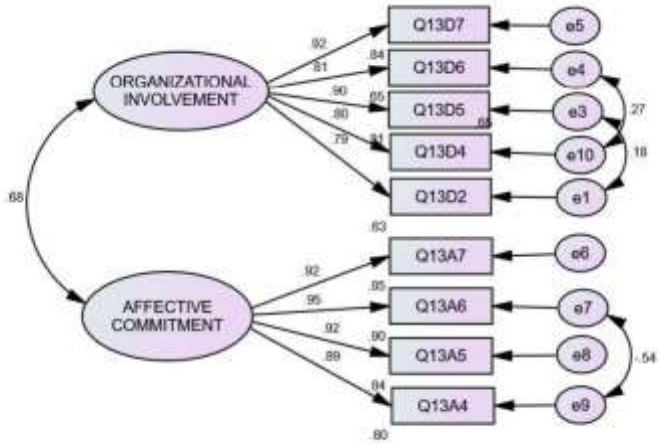

Figure 1. CFA for Organizational Commitment and Affective Organizational Commitment

Table 4. CFA Standardized Beta Coefficients for Latent Factors, N = 2212

Observed Variable		Latent Factor	S.E.	C.R	β	P
Q13D2 In your workplace, how much do you enjoy voluntarily participating in activities not related to your job?	←	Organization Involvement			.794	***
Q13D5 How much do you enjoy voluntarily donating your time to various activities for your organization?	←	Organization Involvement	.021	53.828	.902	***
Q13D6 How much do you enjoy being voluntarily around people in your organization?	←	Organization Involvement	.024	41.576	.806	***
Q13D7 How much do you enjoy spending extra time on activities not related to your job, for the benefit of your organization?	←	Organization Involvement	.023	49.209	.916	***
Q13D4 How much do you enjoy participating in social events in your organization?	←	Organization Involvement	.024	41.537	.805	***
Q13A7 Your feeling of a strong sense of belonging to your organization	←	Affective Commitment			.922	***
Q13A6 Your feeling that your organization has a personal meaning for you	←	Affective Commitment	.013	82.660	.951	***
Q13A5 Your feeling that you are emotionally attached to your organization	←	Affective Commitment	.013	76.263	.917	***
Q13A4 Your feeling that you are a "part of the family" in your organization	←	Affective Commitment	.014	67.923	.894	***

***$p = .000$

5. Analysis and Results

5.1 Model Design

A structural equation model was used to analyze the data and answer the questions of this study. The model structure (see Figure 2) included three direct paths (H1, H3, H5) from the predictor factors (exogenous) to AOC, the outcome factor, and three additional direct paths (H2, H4, H6) to organizational involvement, the mediator factor. The model included one direct path (H7) from the mediator to the outcome factor and three indirect (mediated) paths (H2→H7, H4→H7, H6→H7) from the predictor factors to the outcome factor through the mediator. See Figure 2 for all direct hypothesized model paths.

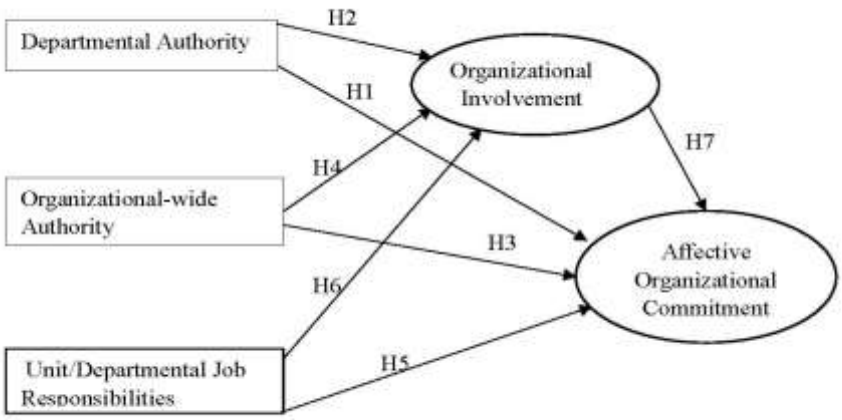

Figure 2. SEM Design Showing Direct Hypothesized Paths Among Study Variables

The SEM model fit results (Table 5) indicated a good overall model-data fit, meaning the predictors and mediator factors, as designed in the model, predicted affective organizational commitment. Chi-square model statistics yielded CMIN = 172.92, *df* = 43, and *p* = .000. The chi-square *p*-value should be greater than .05 for model fit, but large samples, such as in this study, often produce statistically significant values ($p < .05$), thereby requiring assessment of other fit indices to determine model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Hence, fit was determined using the root mean square residual (RMR = .040) and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA = .037) which indicated a good model fit (less than .05). In addition, the goodness of fit measures (GFI = .987, AGFI = .977) and the baseline comparison measures for the default model (NFI = .993, RFI = .989, IFI = .994, TLI = .992, CFI =.994) indicated a close model fit. See Table 5 for full model results.

Table 5. SEM model fit results, N =2212.

Model Fit Summary CMIN					
Model	**NPAR**	**CMIN**	**DF**	**P**	**CMIN/DF**
Default model	35	172.90	43	.000	4.02
Saturated model	78	.000	0		
Independence model	12	23587.68	66	.000	357.39
RMR, GFI					
Model	**RMR**	**GFI**	**AGFI**	**PGFI**	
Default model	.040	.987	.977	.544	
Saturated model	.000	1.000			
Independence model	1.472	.244	.107	.206	
Baseline Comparisons					
Model	**NFI Delta1**	**RFI rho1**	**IFI Delta2**	**TLI rho2**	**CFI**
Default model	.993	.989	.994	.992	.994
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Parsimony-Adjusted Measures					
Model	**PRATIO**	**PNFI**	**PCFI**		
Default model	.652	.647	.648		
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000		
Independence model	1.000	.000	.000		
RMSEA					
Model	**RMSEA**	**LO 90**	**HI 90**	**PCLOSE**	
Default model	.037	.031	.043	1.000	
Independence model	.401	.397	.406	0.000	

5.2 Hypotheses Testing

The null hypothesis for each of the study's research hypotheses was tested. As shown in Figure 3, test modification indices required correlating all three predictor factors, resulting in moderate bivariate correlations between departmental authority and job responsibility (r = .58) and between job responsibility and organization-wide authority (r = .54), while the correlation between organization-wide authority and departmental authority was fairly strong (r = .81). This fairly strong correlation necessitated a check for multicollinearity among the three exogenous predictors via tests of tolerance, variance inflation factor (VIF), and the Durbin-Watson (D-W). The results indicated no multicollinearity, as all values fell within acceptable ranges (Tolerance < 10; VIF > 1; D-W range: 1 to 4).

Results of the direct path tests using standardized beta coefficients (see Figure 3 and Table 6) showed that departmental authority did not uniquely predict AOC (β = .025, p > .05), and neither did departmental job responsibilities uniquely predict organizational involvement (β = .027, p > .05). Therefore, the null for hypotheses 1 and 6 were not rejected (the research

hypotheses were rejected). Test results, however, showed that the null for all remaining five direct hypotheses

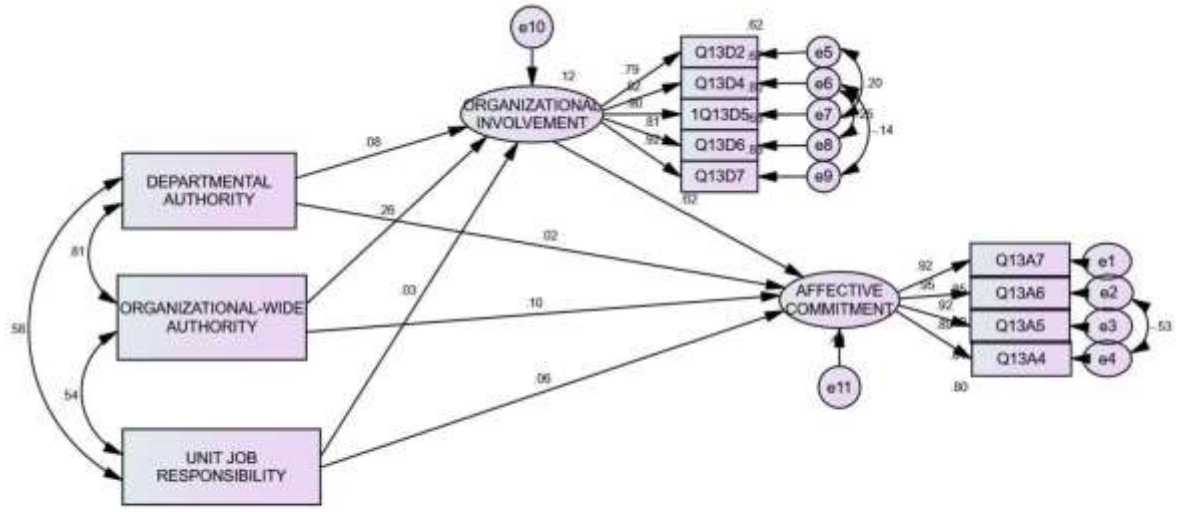

Figure 3. SEM Standardized Beta values for the Predicted Path Analysis Between the Predictor Factors, the Mediator and Affective Organizational Commitment

were rejected in favor of the research hypotheses (H2: β = .082, p < .027; H3: β = .099, p < .000; H4: β = .258, p = .000; H5: β = .064, p < .001; H7: β = .624, p = .000). That is, departmental authority positively predicted organizational involvement, organizational-wide authority positively predicted both organizational involvement and AOC, departmental job responsibilities predicted AOC, and organizational involvement positively predicted AOC.

Analysis of the indirect effects (i.e., mediated effects through organizational involvement) of the three predictor factors showed that the indirect effect of departmental authority on AOC was very weak (H8: β = .051), whereas the indirect effect of organizational-wide authority on AOC was stronger (H9: β = .161). The indirect effect of job responsibilities on AOC was the weakest (H10: β = .017). In addition, SEM calculated the total effects of each predictor and mediator factor on AOC. The tests show that organizational involvement had the strongest total effect on AOC (β = .624). There was no mediator between organizational involvement and AOC; therefore, the coefficients for the direct and total effects were the same.

Table 6. SEM Maximum Likelihood Effect Coefficients for All Hypothesized Paths Between Predictor Factors and Affective Organizational Commitment

Moderator and Outcome Factors		Predictor and Moderator Factors	S.E.	C.R	β
DIRECT EFFECTS					
H1. Affective Commitment	←	Departmental Authority	.015	.87	.025 *ns*
H2. Organization Involvement	←	Departmental Authority	.016	2.21	.082 *
H3. Affective Commitment	←	Organization-wide Authority	.016	3.55	.099 ***
H4. Organization Involvement	←	Organization-wide Authority	.017	7.166	.258 ***
H5. Affective Commitment	←	Departmental Job Responsibility	.013	3.23	.064 **
H6. Organization Involvement	←	Departmental Job Responsibility	.014	1.05	.027 *ns*
H7. Affective Commitment	←	Organizational Involvement	.026	29.26	.624 ***
INDIRECT EFFECTS					
H8. Affective Commitment	←	Departmental Authority			.051
H9. Affective Commitment	←	Organization-wide Authority			.161
H10. Affective Commitment	←	Departmental Job Responsibility			.017
TOTAL EFFECTS					
Affective Commitment	←	Departmental Authority			.076
Affective Commitment	←	Organization-wide Authority			.261
Affective Commitment	←	Departmental Job Responsibility			.081
Affective Commitment	←	Organizational Involvement			.624

$^{***}p < .0001$, $^{**}p < .001$, $^{*}p < .05$, $^{NS}p > .05$

Among the predictors, organizational-wide authority had the strongest total effect on AOC (β = .261), compared with departmental job responsibilities (β = .081) and departmental power (β = .076). Model analysis also produced a low squared multiple correlation of the three predictors on organizational involvement (R^2 = .119) and a moderate one for the predictors and the mediator on AOC (R^2 = .486). The results indicated that the three exogenous predictors collectively explained approximately 12% of the variance in organizational involvement, leaving approximately 88% of the variance attributable to factors not included in the model, measurement error, or random variation. In addition, the combined effects of the exogenous predictors and the mediator accounted for approximately 49% of the variance in affective organizational commitment (AOC), while the remaining 51% was attributable to factors outside the model, measurement error, or random variation.

6. Discussion and Conclusion

This study aimed to understand how employees' organizational power, job responsibilities, and organizational involvement in nonjob-related activities work together to shape their (workers') affective commitment to their organizations. This led to a unique design (absent in the literature despite extensive searching) that combined organizational power, job

responsibilities, and organizational involvement into one integrated model to predict affective organizational commitment. While different bases of organizational power (expert, reward, legitimate, and referent power) have positively predicted affective organizational commitment (Jalilvand & Nasrolahi-Vosta, 2015), no prior study had examined the differential effects of departmental-only power and organization-wide power on AOC. This uniqueness is further accentuated when these forms of power are combined with job responsibilities and organizational involvement in a single model predicting AOC.

It is important to note that organizational involvement in this study referred to employees' involvement in organization-wide activities outside their job requirements. These were extrinsic job activities, including participation in such things as employee resource groups, corporate volunteer programs, mentoring activities, and workplace community-building activities. This distinction is necessary because of a myriad of similar concepts that vary in description with each author. While a full distinguishing discussion of these concepts is outside of this study, it deserves attention to clarify potential confusion. Concepts such as employee involvement, employee job involvement, employee organizational involvement, employee engagement, organizational engagement, and job engagement are common in the literature, but their definitions and conceptualizations are inconsistent and overlap. For example, Kahn (1990), often credited with coining the concept, defined employee engagement as an employee's varying degree of physical, cognitive, and emotional investment in role performance. Soni (2013) defined the same concept as an employee's sense of purpose, expressed through personal initiatives, effort, and persistence in accomplishing organizational goals. Gede and Huluka (2024) also described the concept as employees' emotional commitment and active involvement in their work, organization, and goals, emphasizing the emotional and psychological bond between employees and their organizations. While these definitions may differ in how they conceptualize employee engagement, they share an emphasis on participation in work-related activities to achieve organizational goals. They focus on emotional attachment to the organization, which leads to dedication to high performance. As Soni put it, "Engaged employees are builders. They want to know the desired expectations for their role so they can meet and exceed them. They're naturally curious about their company and their place in it. They perform at consistently high levels. They want to use their talents and strengths at work every day. They work with passion, and they drive innovation and move their organization forward" (Soni, 2013, p. 52).

Like employee engagement, scholars have also defined and described employee involvement in various ways, and the definitions often overlap with engagement, creating confusion about the distinctions between the two. For example, Kumari and Kumari (2014) defined employee involvement as employees' empowering ability to make managerial decisions and participate in managerial activities commensurate with rank. Sofijanova and Zabijakin–Chatleska (2013) also described involvement as participation in decision-making, problem solving, and having autonomy in shaping work activities. These conceptualizations emphasized employees' participation in job-related decision-making (see also Benson et al., 2006; Gutherie, 2001). Involvement allows employees to develop the knowledge, skills, and abilities to participate in job decisions and derive performance motivation from such participation (Yalabik et al.,

2008).

A careful review of the conceptualization of both employee engagement and involvement shows that both concepts center on participation in intrinsic job activities. Hence, the distinction between the two concepts may be ignored, resulting in their interchange. It may also mean that studies involving these concepts should specify the meaning and measurement of the concepts consistently with the objectives of each study. Such is the case in this study. To avoid confusion with the general use of employee involvement in intrinsic job activities (like engagement), this study defined involvement as participation only in extrinsic activities. That is, involvement here emphasized employees' active participation in activities unrelated to their required labor for job performance and compensation. This distinction should guide how the findings of this study are used.

This study also reveals a complex, nuanced understanding of the relationships among organizational power, organizational engagement, individual job responsibilities, and affective organizational commitment. The following paragraphs synthesize the key themes that emerge from the model.

Both logic and empirical evidence suggest that feeling important or mattering to others in the workplace benefits employees and organizations. Employees who believe their organizations notice, value, and depend on them experience high positive work attitudes, high job satisfaction, engagement, and organizational commitment (Frazier & Tupper, 2018). As Rich et al. (2010) noted, employees who perceive their work as significant and valued report greater job satisfaction, stronger affective commitment, and better job performance than those who hold opposing views. These findings suggest that higher organizational power and greater job responsibilities would positively predict AOC, as they signal recognition and a sense of mattering in the workplace. However, this study reveals that the relationship between organizational power and affective commitment depends on the type of power exercised.

This study indicates that organization-wide authority matters more than departmental authority. Organization-wide authority uniquely predicts both AOC and organizational involvement far more strongly (i.e., with higher standardized beta coefficients) than departmental authority, which only marginally predicts involvement and does not predict AOC. Organization-wide power also has stronger mediated and total effects on AOC than departmental power. So, while having authority over others in one's department may encourage participation in organizational activities beyond normal job expectations, it does not make one stay due to love for the organization. Additionally, departmental job responsibilities, as an indicator of employee mattering, did not consistently predict involvement, but it did predict AOC, albeit only minimally (β = .064).

Ultimately, the most compelling findings in this study are the significance of both organization-wide power and organizational involvement in eliciting AOC. Involvement is the strongest predictor of AOC (β = .62), and organization-wide power is the strongest predictor of involvement (β = .26). In addition, both the mediated and total effects of organization-wide power (β = .16 and .26, respectively) were strong in eliciting employee AOC.

7. Takeaways and Recommendations

Three key lessons were derived from this study:

i. ***The scope of authority is more important than the amount of authority.***

Authority extending across the organization contributes more to employees' organizational involvement and affective organizational commitment than authority confined to a single department. Although departmental authority may encourage participation in organizational activities, it does not appear sufficient to cultivate employees' emotional attachment to the organization. Therefore, organizations that strive for greater employee AOC will be better served by investing in opportunities that increase access to organization-wide authority rather than departmental authority.

ii. **Organizational involvement is the strongest driver of affective commitment.**

Employees who actively participate in organizational activities beyond their routine job responsibilities are substantially more likely to develop a strong emotional attachment to the organization. Hence, organizations are encouraged to expand opportunities for meaningful, well-rewarded nonjob-related activities for their employees beyond access to organization-wide authority. This may include meaningful, valuable rewards to encourage willing participation, since participation in these activities is voluntary. This position supports the view that employees become committed when broader organizational roles encourage meaningful participation and organizational identification.

iii. ***Job responsibilities alone are insufficient indicators of employee mattering.***

Given that departmental job responsibilities did not predict organizational involvement and only minimally predicted AOC, expanding job responsibilities without increasing employees' organizational influence or opportunities for meaningful involvement will not substantially affect AOC. This study does not support expanding employees' job responsibilities to increase organizational involvement. Instead, such expansions may be coupled with attaining organization-wide authority, which promotes both involvement and AOC.

8. Limitations

Like most scientific studies, this study has limitations that readers should recognize when interpreting and generalizing its findings. One such limitation is potential unknown data bias because participants were not randomly selected. While M-Turk has been empirically demonstrated to yield good-quality data (see Gosling et al., 2004; Ipeirotis, 2008, 2009, 2010; Moss, 2020; Paolacci et al., 2010; Ross et al., 2010; Thomas & Clifford, 2017), the participants in this study were obtained purely through availability sampling, which is less reliable and generalizable than random sampling data. This lack of random participant selection should be considered when generalizing from this study.

This author also recognizes the controversy over measuring conceptual variables with a

one-item scale rather than the traditionally preferred multi-item scales. First, as noted earlier under measurements, many studies have concluded that single-item scales effectively measure conceptual variables. For example, meta-analyses such as Scarpello and Campbell (1983) reported that the single-item scale was as effective as, and perhaps superior to, the multi-item scale in measuring job satisfaction. Also, Wanous and colleagues (1997), in their job satisfaction study, found strong similarity between the one-item and multi-item scales, with both showing high convergence, indicating they measured the same variable. More recently, Bergkvist and Rossiter (2007) also found no difference in the predictive validity of multiple-item and single-item scales in their study of product brands in marketing. In addition, Hoeppner et al. (2011) actively advocated for the use of single-item scales (in clinical treatment research) based on their study of clinical treatments in which they found that the single-item self-efficacy measure reliably correlated with a 20-item scale, predicted relapse at 1, 3, and 6 months post-treatment, while offering practical advantages like reduced cost burden and comparable predictive validity. Their study demonstrated strong convergent and discriminant validity, which encouraged them to recommend the single-item scale for research and clinical use in young adults with substance use issues.

While many studies have articulated the merit of the single-item scale, others either rejected its use or recommended using it with caution. Gardner and colleagues (1998) reported common method variance in psychological measures when survey respondents self-reported on latent concepts such as attitudes, beliefs, and perceptions. They compared single-item and Likert-scale measures of focus of attention at work and found no clear superiority. Both formats showed convergent and discriminant validity. However, the multi-item scales reflected traits slightly better, though they also had more method bias (Gardner et al., 1998). Pandit et al. (2026) recognized the usefulness of single-item scales for unidimensional and familiar constructs, especially under resource constraints; however, they argued that multi-item scales remained superior for complex, multidimensional constructs. Diamantopoulos et al. (2012) further argued for multi-item scales and cautioned against single-item scales. They compared the two types of scales for predictive validity and found that multi-item scales outperformed single-item scales, especially in practical settings. Single items sometimes matched multi-item performance but were context-dependent and often showed inconsistent predictive validity. Factors influencing validity included inter-item correlations, number of items, and construct concreteness (Diamantopoulos et al., 2012). They cautioned that when replacing multi-item scales with single-item ones, the use of single-item measures should be limited to special circumstances, such as for cost efficiency and long surveys, which could produce response set data that are not reliable. Based on these potential validity limitations of the single-item scale, albeit its merits, caution is recommended in the interpretations of this study due to the use of the three single-item predictor scales

9. Future Research Recommendations

An important limitation of this study is the lack of data to explore the mechanisms through which organization-wide authority enhances organizational involvement and affective commitment, and to explain why departmental authority failed to predict AOC. Variables

such as psychological empowerment, organizational identification, perceived organizational support, and meaningful work may help explain these relationships (see Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Spreitzer, 1995) and are therefore recommended for exploratory investigation in future studies on this topic.

Future studies may further distinguish among the different dimensions of both organization-wide and departmental authorities, as well as job characteristics, to assess their potential impacts on organizational involvement and AOC. Authority dimensions may include decision-making, rewards, punishments, and assessment, while job characteristics may include job autonomy, role clarity, degree of formalization, level in the organizational structure, and absorption of uncertainties. Such an investigation may yield a better understanding of the specific qualities of authority and job responsibilities that shape organizational involvement and AOC than this study found. Such differentiation would clarify which aspects of authority and job responsibilities most effectively strengthen employees' involvement and emotional attachment to their organizations.

Future studies may also examine whether the observed relationships differ across organizational contexts, including public and private organizations, nonprofit organizations, multinational corporations, and small businesses. This may include longitudinal analysis to establish the causal ordering among organizational authority, job responsibilities, involvement, and affective commitment. Because organizational commitment develops over time, longitudinal designs would provide stronger evidence than cross-sectional studies regarding the developmental processes linking authority and commitment (see Meyer & Allen, 1997). These analytical refinements may improve the generalizability of this study's findings.

Finally, future research is encouraged to examine leadership practices and organizational policies that expand employees' opportunities for organization-wide participation. Investigating interventions that increase cross-functional collaboration, committee membership, participation in strategic decision-making, and organizational citizenship behaviors may provide additional practical guidance for strengthening employees' affective commitment.

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