

The Role of Autonomous Motivation and Organizational Culture on the Relationship between Job Autonomy and Organizational Commitment

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Abstract: *This paper examines the relationship between job autonomy and organizational commitment through autonomous motivation. The designed questionnaire was a plan to measure the influence of job autonomy on organizational commitment drivers while taking into consideration the effect of organizational culture on these relationships. Data collected from a sample of 315 respondents working in Ethiopian commercial banks were used to test the proposed relationships. The model proved to be fit. The findings indicate that there is no mediation effect of autonomous motivation in the relationship between job autonomy and affective commitment, job autonomy, and continuance commitment. Whereas, this study strongly supports that autonomous motivation acts as a partial mediator factor in the relationship between job autonomy and normative commitment. In addition, organizational culture strengthens the positive effect of job autonomy on affective, continuance, and normative commitment. This shows the internal integration of organizational culture promotes consistent values and encourages employee involvement in the organization. The findings also provide practical implications for managers to design appropriate human resource management policies and practices.*

Keywords— Job autonomy, Autonomous motivation, Organizational commitment, Organizational culture

1. INTRODUCTION

In this highly competitive business environment, employees are considered a source of competitive advantage. Because of this, researchers have looked into job autonomy's effect on organizational commitment. According to (Lussier & Hendon, 2019) globalization, rapid technological and communications advancements, continuous political instability, and changes in workforce demographics are among the factors which increased competition in different industries. Because of this, human resource flexibility is seen as beneficial for businesses to adapt to the constantly changing environment (Ocampo et al., 2018).

The findings of (Ghavifekr & Adewale, 2019) stated that the degree of trust and commitment that employees show when interacting with customers is a major factor in service quality. Because the service industry has grown exponentially in the twenty-first century, much of the scholarly attention during this decade has been spent on trying to study organizational commitment in the service context.

As per (Hidalgo-Peñate et al., 2020) various matters shape organizational commitment and make it an interesting focus of the study. Primarily, these days it is not certain that employees will stay within one company for their work lifetime. Retaining talents should pay more attention. Secondly, younger employees' commitment is to their job or career rather

than the organization. Also, it has been found that during an economic crisis, when the work environment is very insecure, employees become less committed to organizations (de la Torre-Ruiz et al., 2019). This brings up yet another challenge for human resource departments.

Hence, the performance of the organization will highly depend on the effort of the employees which can be affected by employees' organizational commitment (Mylona & Mihail, 2019). This observation demands deeper research into this domain. Therefore, the researchers were testing job autonomy in the context of Ethiopia's commercial Banks.

The present study therefore systematically reviews prior empirical research and the theoretical anchors of job autonomy and organizational commitment as well as the context of organizational culture in the aforementioned relationship. In doing so, it makes several important contributions to both the academic literature and to practice.

First, the researchers focus on the under-researched effects of autonomous motivation on the relationship between job autonomy and organizational commitment. The previous researchers (Van Beek I, Taris TW, Schaufeli WB, 2011; Malinowska et al., 2018) focused on work engagement which comes from autonomy at work. However, this study becomes a pioneer in taking autonomous motivation on the relationship between job autonomy and organizational commitment. It plays a pivotal role in explaining the relationship, especially in the Ethiopian context where reciprocity values are strongly

endorsed (Kosa et al., 2018) and that organizational commitment is relationship-based that signifies a strong personal bond towards the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Raymond & Mjoli, 2013).

Second, in addition to developing a nuanced explanation for how job autonomy affects organizational commitment, the researchers also explore the boundary conditions under which the effects of job autonomy can be either strengthened or weakened. This paper contributes to the literature by presenting a study of job autonomy and organizational commitment that includes organizational culture as a moderator. The previous research (D. H. Lee, 2020, Aranki et al., 2019, Agyare et al., 2019, da Silva et al., 2018) focused on explaining the direct relationship between organizational culture and organizational commitment. While in this study we explore its contribution to strengthening the effect. This would be another contribution to the literature. Further, the researcher's choice of commercial banks extends the generalizability of the research by giving a real-time analysis of the context of the most rigid working environment.

Last but not least, in light of the fierce competition for talented employees, the financial sector is typically associated with high levels of employee mobility and turnover. Because employees' turnover poses a potential threat to the risk of losing inestimable and implied abilities (Ku, Liau, & Hsing, 2005; Yang & Jiang, 2007; Quratulain et al., 2018), how commercial banks develop effective job autonomy to strengthen their autonomous motivation, and in turn, organizational commitment should warrant more attention.

In particular, the paper addresses the following questions:

- To what extent does autonomous motivation mediate the relationship between job autonomy and affective, continuous, and normative commitment?
- To what extent does organizational culture influence the relationships between job autonomy and affective, continuous, and normative commitment?

Data collected from a sample of 315 respondents working in Ethiopian commercial banks, were used to test the model and answer the research questions.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows: In Section 2, the theoretical framework underlying our proposed model is presented, and the hypotheses are derived. The research methodology is presented and discussed in Section 3. Data analysis results are covered in Section 4. Finally, the discussion, limitations, implications, recommendations, and suggestions for future research are given in Section 5.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

One of the most famous theories related to organizational commitment is the Social exchange theory (SET). SET explains responsibilities are created through interactions and between parties who are in a state of collective

interdependence. The organization invests in employees who then return something to the organization (Ismail, 2016).

Studies show that employee-based social exchange relationships are predictive of employees' positive work attitudes and behavior like commitment, job satisfaction, and organizational citizenship (Bufquin et al., 2017; Kalfa, 2018; Para-González et al., 2019; Hidalgo-Peñate et al., 2020). Job autonomy, and Organizational commitment can hence be linked through the framework of social exchange.

On the other hand, according to self-determination theory (Hagger et al., 2014), different types of motivation underpin human behavior. These motivations are thought to differ in terms of their inherent levels of self-determination. Self-determination entails a genuine sense of choice, a sense of being liberated to do what one has chosen to do (Eggers et al., 2013). The theory suggests that the quality of individuals' motivation affects the extent to which individuals will engage in, and persist with, behaviors.

According to (Fernandes, 2020), self-determination theory investigates the effects of social factors on a person's feelings of competence, autonomy, and relatedness. That is, a social context that allows people to meet their basic needs will result in self-determined types of motivation (i.e., intrinsic motivation and identified regulation), whereas events that thwart these needs will result in non-self-determined types of motivation (i.e., external regulation). Then the above two theories underpin this study.

2.1 Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment can be defined as 'the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization' (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979; Bufquin et al., 2017). Organizational commitment is an important variable that can influence how loyal employees are to their organizations, and, as a consequence, it can determine whether the employees behave positively or negatively (e.g. Anttila, 2014; Silva et al., 2015).

The main components of the organizational commitments are the affective (affective attachment to the organization), continuance (perceived costs associated with leaving), and normative (feelings of obliged towards the organization) dimensions (Holly Buttner & Lowe, 2017).

Committed employees feel an attachment towards their work organizations and they share a collective view of what is good for those organizations (Saridakis et al., 2020). Such employees are loyal to the organization, feel personally on the defensive when the organization is threatened, and desire to maintain their employment relationship even when they are presented with attractive alternatives (Valeau et al., 2019).

The attitude and attachment of the employees to the organization may be affected by different factors. Though employees have much in common, they differ in many

respects. The employees differ in their characteristics (Mylona & Mihail, 2019). They have different experiences and orientations, both inside and outside the organization. Their age, educational level, marital status, and experience in the organization may be different. The social life, job situations, and job involvement of the employees can play an important role in shaping their attitude and attachment to the organization they serve (Xiu et al., 2019).

According to (Presbitero et al., 2019) effectively committed employees to stay because they want to stay. Those with strong continuance commitment remain because they feel they have to. Employees with a strong normative bond stay in the organization because they feel they ought to.

2.2 Job Autonomy

Job autonomy is among several other job conditions (task variety, feedback, completion of task, task significance, and task importance) included in Hackman and Oldham's job characteristics model that is believed to have an impact on employees' responses to work (Lin & Ping, 2016).

Job autonomy, by definition, is the freedom and discretion allowed of employees in facets of work method, work schedule, and work criteria to perform their tasks and responsibilities (Dodd & Ganster, 1996; Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Malinowska et al., 2018). (Breugh,1985) defined work method autonomy as the discretion in choosing the procedures/methods to go about one's work, work scheduling autonomy as the feeling of which one could take control of the sequencing or timing of his or her tasks, and work criteria autonomy as the discretion in making changes to indicators/standards used to evaluate one's performance.

Based on this definition, having sufficient job autonomy is viewed as a favorable workplace condition that allows employees to exercise their decision-making skills in fulfilling job-related tasks (Zhang et al., 2017). Aligned with Hackman and Oldham's model, employees' perceptions of their job autonomy tend to impact their psychological states of "experienced meaningfulness of work" (i.e., how work makes a difference to others), "felt responsibility" (i.e., the degree of responsibility assumed for work), and "knowledge of results" (i.e., the awareness of work quality) (Nwoku,2013; Lin & Ping, 2016). These psychological states in turn affect the level of commitment in employees.

The previous studies have found job autonomy to be significantly and positively correlated to organizational commitment (Dude, 2012; Karim, 2010; Naqvi,2011; Park & Searcy, 2011; Rosario Núñez et al., 2020) than those studies, which discovered a weak relationship between the two variables (Gergersen & Black, 1996; Jong, Mueller, & Price, 1997).

Based on the above discussion, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H1a. Job autonomy positively influences affective commitment.

H1b. Job autonomy positively influences continuance commitment.

H1c. Job autonomy positively influences normative commitment.

2.3 The mediating role of Autonomous Motivation

According to Self Determination Theory (SDT), motivation is located on a continuum between amotivation and intrinsic motivation (Lin & Ping, 2016). It has also distinguished regulatory processes that fall on this continuum. People are intrinsically motivated and intrinsically regulated when they do something because they find it interesting and derive spontaneous satisfaction from it; this is inherently autonomous motivation (Shao et al., 2017).

It has been shown that in comparison to extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation is related to many positive aspects of well-being, such as higher work enjoyment and work engagement (Malinowska et al., 2018), lower level of fatigue and burnout (Rich et al., 2010), lower level of anxiety (Oudeyer et al., 2008), and physical symptoms (Saks, 2006).

The study of (Ocampo et al., 2018) shows that work-engaged employees are driven by autonomous motivation (i.e., intrinsic regulation). Taken together, these findings confirm that engaged employees work hard because they genuinely want to.

If environments are supportive of autonomy, (Malinowska et al., 2018) concluded: "[...] autonomy support is the most important social-contextual factor for predicting identification and integration, and thus autonomous behavior."

Job autonomy has a solid base of support in the research. Its role in promoting work engagement has been proven in several studies (Fernandes, 2020). In contrast, the research about autonomous motivation is limited.

H2a. Autonomous motivation positively mediates the relationship between job autonomy and affective commitment.

H2b. Autonomous motivation positively mediates the relationship between job autonomy and continuance commitment.

H2c. Autonomous motivation positively mediates the relationship between job autonomy and normative commitment.

2.4 The moderating role of Organizational Culture

Organizational culture is defined as key assumptions, beliefs, norms, and values shared continuously by members of an organization (Sola et al., 2012; Schein,2004; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1996; Smircich,1983) that guides and sets appropriate attitudes and behaviors for members within an organization.

Organizational culture gives organizations identity, coherence, and direction. It is a set of symbolic elements and

shared values that guide their thinking, feelings, and behaviors (Schein, 1985; J. Lee et al., 2018).

Organizational culture can affect the way people set goals both personal and professional and also how they perform their jobs. In other words, organizational cultures affect how people think, feel, perceive and act (Lok & Crawford, 2003). Due to this reason organizational culture is often mentioned as the main reason for the failure of an organization and this failure occurs because it doesn't change its culture with change in needs and time (Linnenluecke & Griffiths, 2010).

Organizational culture has a great impact on employees both directly and indirectly. Researchers suggest that organizational culture influences, effectiveness, commitment, innovativeness, performance, leadership, job satisfaction, decision-making, and the productivity of an organization (Mehr, Emadi, Cheraghian, Roshani & Behzadi, 2012; Kontoghiorghes, 2016).

Researchers give credit to the culture of an organization for being successful. Theorists have found that successful companies had cultures that were passed on through stories or its legends and thus motivated their employees. Organizational culture is a determinant of progress in management and it forms the base of a firm's identity and it shows how the companies operate in the market (Jakonis, 2009; Lau et al., 2017).

The human resource management literature describes technological change, globalization, changing workforce demographics, and the knowledge-based economy as the major strategic trends affecting organizations today (Mello, 2006; Dessler, 2013; D. H. Lee, 2020). Given the high levels of uncertainty induced by these trends, the human resource management function nowadays is expected to go beyond its administrative duties and assist the organization to develop cultures fostering innovation and change (DuBois & Dubois, 2012; Dessler, 2013, D. H. Lee, 2020).

Based on the above discussion, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H3a. Organizational culture (involvement and consistency) strengthens the positive effect of job autonomy on affective commitment.

H3b. Organizational culture (involvement and consistency) strengthens the positive effect of job autonomy on continuous commitment.

H3c. Organizational culture (involvement and consistency) strengthens the positive effect of job autonomy on normative commitment.

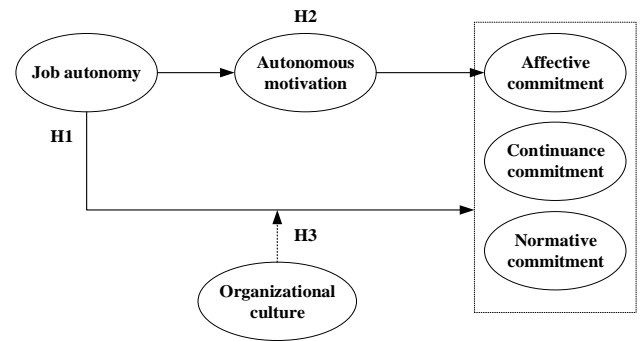


Fig. 1. The research model.

3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Survey and data collection

This study employs a correlational design to examine the relationships between job autonomy and organizational commitment. It also explores the mediation role of autonomous motivation on the aforementioned relationship. In addition, this study aims to examine the influence of organizational culture on these relationships.

To examine the conceptual model and test these relationships, a survey instrument was designed, and measurement scales were developed. The draft questionnaire was constructed and the content validity of the scale was checked and improved with the help of five academics and three experts from the industry. A revised version questionnaire was finalized and then used to test the proposed hypotheses. The measurement scales in the used questionnaire consisted of items representing respondents' attitudes and opinions about job autonomy and organizational culture, the related factors as well as organizational commitment and autonomous motivation.

To conduct the study, the target population was identified. It consisted of managers and customer service managers, at the branch level, working in Ethiopian commercial banks. These managers were knowledgeable about the adopted human resource practices, managerial factors as well as the performance of the organization.

The sample is determined by using Yamane's (1967) formula which is adopted by (AlAmeri, 2017) and makes a comparison with Glenn's (1992) published tables which are recommended by Singh, Ajay S; et. Al (2014). 373 questionnaires were distributed and stressing assurance of anonymity in the cover letter of the questionnaire aimed at minimizing the social desirability bias arising in survey research (Roxas and Lindsay, 2012). Out of the returned questionnaires, 315 were found usable, yielding a response rate of 84.5%.

Non-response bias was checked by contacting 14 non-respondents and asking about the reasons for not participating

in the study. Lack of knowledge of the various constructs and items in the questionnaire was identified as the main reason.

3.2 Control variables

Several demographic factors that have often been examined in organizational commitment research (e.g., Randall 1993; Gregersen and Black 1992) were included as control variables in this study. The demographic variables of gender, age, education, and organizational tenure are related to organizational commitment. For example, a review by Madison et al. (2012) noted that significant relationships have been identified between organizational commitment and both age and education (see Brimeyer, Perrucci, & Wadsworth, 2010; Glisson & Durick, 1998) while positive associations have been established between tenure and organizational commitment (Meyer et al., 2002). In addition, the meta-analysis conducted by Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found that women were significantly more engaged in their organization, compared to their male counterparts. This expanded list aims to be able to reduce the bias in our results, which may potentially emanate from these confounding variables.

3.3 Measures

All of the constructs were measured with multiple-scale items. In all, forty-six-question items, excluding items that asked about demographics, were used and covered all variables discussed in the model.

Job autonomy was measured using the Breugh's Work Autonomy Scale (Breugh James A, 1999) which was adapted by (Lin & Ping, 2016) with 9 items on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree). The scale measured job autonomy in three facets; work method (e.g. I can choose the way to go about my job, the procedures to utilize), work schedule (e.g. My job is such that I can decide when to do particular work activities), and work criteria (e.g. I have some control over what I am supposed to accomplish, what my supervisor sees as my job objectives). The scale was selected due to its strong reliability and validity, $\alpha = 0.961$ (Lin & Ping, 2016) as well as its ability to measure comprehensive aspects of job autonomy.

Organizational Commitment was measured with 11 items on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree) drawn from (Mahmood et al., 2019). It has three facets; Affective Commitment (e.g. I do not feel like part of the family at the organization, $\alpha = 0.887$), Continuance Commitment (e.g. Leaving this organization would require a considerable personal sacrifice that makes me continue to work, $\alpha = 0.926$), and Normative Commitment (e.g. I feel that I would receive a lot of benefits from this company, $\alpha = 0.945$).

The autonomous motivation was assessed with the Situational Intrinsic Motivation Scale (SIMS) developed by (Guay et al., 2000) and adapted by (Malinowska et al., 2018). The total scale consists of 16 items. But, for this study, the researchers use only eight of them as per the model and

delimitation of the study. The participant's task was to measure the level of statements' conformity with their beliefs about the reason why he/she is currently engaged in work activity. The scale includes 2 subscales, each measured with 4 items: intrinsic motivation (e.g. Because I think that this activity is good for me, $\alpha = 0.975$) and integrated regulation (e.g. Because I believe that this activity is important for me, $\alpha = 0.965$).

The scale from (Fey et al., 2003; J. Lee et al., 2018) was used to measure the two internal integration organizational culture dimensions: involvement and consistency. Each dimension was measured with nine items. Sample items include 'Everyone believes that he or she can have a positive impact' (Involvement) and 'There is a clear and consistent set of values in this organization that governs the way we do business' (Consistency); The Cronbach's α for the two dimensions were .85 and .85, respectively.

Note that the items of the subscales listed in Tables 1 along with the results of the construct loadings and reliability indicate that the scale and its subscale items have high loadings (> 0.5), and high reliability (CR > 0.7). The whole questionnaire is attached in the appendix.

Table 1.
Composite reliability and average variance extracted.

Constructs	Number of items	AVE	CR
Job autonomy	9	0.847	0.98
Affective commitment	3	0.725	0.887
Continuance commitment	4	0.758	0.926
Normative commitment	4	0.811	0.945
Autonomous motivation	8	0.907	0.975
Organizational culture	18	0.839	0.969

4. DATA ANALYSIS

Several demographic factors that have often been examined in organizational commitment research (e.g., Randall 1993; Gregersen and Black 1992) were included as control variables in this study. The demographic variables of gender, age, education, and organizational tenure are related to this study. To conduct the study, the target population consisted of managers and customer service managers, at the branch level, working in Ethiopian commercial banks. A total of 362 questionnaires were distributed, 315 were found usable, yielding a response rate of 84.5%.

The relationships in Fig. 1 were analyzed using partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) using the AMOS v.24 software. PLS is a well-established technique for estimating path coefficients in structural models and has been

widely used in several research studies. The PLS technique has become increasingly popular in marketing and management research more generally in the last decade because of its ability to model latent constructs under conditions of non-normality and small to medium sample sizes (Hair et al., 2013).

The unstandardized dataset using a reflective scheme for all of the latent variables was employed to examine the model through PLS-SEM using AMOS v.24 software. This was assessed through factor loadings, Composite Reliability (CR), and Average Variance Extracted (AVE). All item loadings exceeded the recommended value of 0.6 (Chin, Peterson, & Brown, 2008). Composite reliability values, which depict the degree to which the construct indicators indicate the latent construct, exceeded the recommended value of 0.7 while average variance extracted, which reflects the overall amount of variance in the indicators accounted for by the latent construct, exceeded the recommended value of 0.5 (Hair et al., 2013).

Discriminant validity was demonstrated by showing that the average shared variance of any construct and its indicators is greater than any of the shared variances with other constructs (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Table 2 lists below demonstrated this fact since the values on the diagonal are greater than any value in their corresponding rows and columns. Discriminant validity was also tested using the new method of the heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio of correlations (Henseler et al., 2015), and the results are shown in Table 3.

Next, we assessed effect sizes (f²). In results, both substantive significance (f²) and statistical significance (p) were reported to show the significance of the relationships and the size of an effect. Hair et al. (2013) suggested that changes in the R² value should also be examined. To measure the effect size, we used Cohen’s (1988) guidelines, which are >=0.02 for small effects, >=0.15 for medium effects, and >=0.35 for large effects. Table 4 shows that all relationships had a large effect. In addition to the size of R² and f², the predictive sample reuse technique (Q²) can also effectively show predictive relevance (Chin et al., 2008). Based on the blindfolding procedure, Q² shows how well data can be reconstructed empirically using the model and the PLS parameters. A Q² greater than 0 means that your values are well reconstructed and that the model has predictive relevance, whereas a Q² less than 0 means the model lacks predictive relevance. As shown in fig. 2, Q² all endogenous variables indicate acceptable predictive relevance.

To find out the distinctiveness between the variables, a series of confirmatory factor analyses were conducted through AMOS v. 24. We tested the hypothesized research model with all six multi-item constructs in this study and also compared the measurement model fitness with the number of alternative models to find the threats from the bias of common method variance if any (Arshad et al., 2018). We tested the model fitness of our six-factor multi-item model through AMOS V. 24. Several studies recommended the standard values for the different components of model fitness such as RMSEA should be <0.08(0.05-0.08), and the values of CFI, NNFI, GFI, IFI be

>0.90 for the model to be significant. Results of the CFA baseline model showed the best fit, i.e. RMSEA =0.061; CFI =0.979; NNFI =0.969; GFI = 0.918; and IFI = 0.979.

4.1 Correlation coefficients and the heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlations

Table 2 shows a descriptive analysis of the current study, which includes mean, standard deviation, correlation coefficients, and AVE. From the mean, we inferred that the majority of respondents agreed that of all the survey items, the highest mean value was for the Normative commitment scale (3.85) and the lowest was for Affective commitment (3.11). The maximum value of standard deviation from the mean was 0.99 for Normative commitment, which showed that people felt lower Normative commitment. The correlational analysis showed that all the values were positive and significantly related to each variable in this study. The maximum correlation value was 0.52 between Job autonomy and Affective commitment. It can be concluded that these two variables have a positive strong relationship. The values of AVE were greater than the values of correlation coefficients.

Table 2.

Results of mean, standard deviation, correlation, and average variance extract.

Variab les	Me an	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1 Job autono my	3.4 28	0.9 891	0. 91					
2 Autono mous motiva tion	3.6 26	0.8 355	.8 76	0. 90				
3 Organi zationa l culture	3.8 32	0.8 236	.8 70	.8 23	0. 88			
4 Affecti ve commi tment	3.1 11	0.9 926	.8 80	.8 31	.8 55	0. 90		
5 Contin uance commi tment	3.1 26	0.9 332	.8 73	.8 55	.8 14	.8 70	0. 88	
6 Norma tive commi tment	3.8 47	0.8 298	.8 66	.7 80	.8 76	.8 31	.8 78	0. 88

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

According to (Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2015) the previous criteria by Fornell and Lacker (1981) does not reliably detect a lack of discriminant validity in common research situations. Henseler et al. have suggested an

alternative approach, the heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio of correlations (Henseler et al., 2015). Discriminant validity was tested using this new method, and results are shown in Table 3. For the first criterion, if the HTMT value is greater than HTMT_{.85} value of 0.85 (Kline, 2011), then discriminant validity is a problem. As shown in Table 3, however, all values surpassed HTMT_{.85}.

Table 3.
Heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT).

Constructs	1	2	3	4	5
AC					
CC	0.834				
AM	0.677	0.741			
JA	0.619	0.667	0.636		
NC	0.59	0.746	0.802	0.761	

Shaded boxes are the standard reporting format for HTMT procedure.

4.2 Hypothesis testing

To test the hypothesis, structure equation modeling was performed with the help of AMOS v. 24 as shown in Table 4. The first hypothesis related to the positive and significant effect of job autonomy on affective commitment ($\beta=0.71$, $p<0.01$), continuance commitment ($\beta=0.81$, $p<0.01$), normative commitment ($\beta=0.67$, $p<0.01$) was supported. The second hypotheses of this study were regarding the mediation effect of autonomous motivation between job autonomy on affective commitment ($\beta=0.29$, not significant), continuance commitment ($\beta=0.17$, not significant), normative commitment ($\beta=0.32$, $p<0.05$). The results revealed that for affective and continuance commitment, autonomous motivation will not act as a mediator as shown in Table 4. However, autonomous motivation act as a mediator with normative commitment, which has a significant effect on this relationship (Figure 2).

Table 4.
Results of SEM analysis for hypothesis testing.

Hypothesis	Beta	T value	Decision	fsquare
H1a: JA →AC	0.71*	2.326	Supported	0.365

H1b: JA →CC	0.81*	2.811	Supported	0.371
H1c: JA →NC	0.67*	3.547	Supported	0.471
H3a: JA_*_OC →AC	0.09*	3.332	Supported	0.205
H3b: JA_*_OC →CC	0.12*	3.436	Supported	0.221
H3c: JA_*_OC →NC	0.27*	2.085	Supported	0.288

Notes: JA, Job Autonomy; AC, Affective Commitment; CC, Continuance Commitment; NC; Normative Commitment; OC, Organizational Culture * $p<0.01$

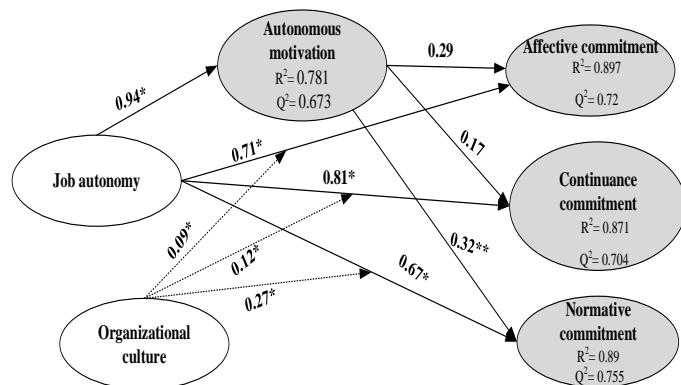
As to Hypothesis 2a, 2b & 2c, this paper aims to empirically examine the mediating effect of AM on the JA–AC, CC, NC relationship. Therefore, we will take the direct/indirect effect among JA, AM and AC, CC, NC into account. From Table 5, we find that the value of total effects (0.98) of JA on AC can be divided into 0.71 (i.e., a direct effect of JA on AC) and 0.27 (i.e., an indirect effect of JA on AC comprising JA–AM and AM–AC) and the value of total effects (0.97) of JA on CC can be divided into 0.81 (i.e., a direct effect of JA on CC) and 0.16 (i.e., an indirect effect of JA on CC comprising JA–AM and AM–CC). As these two effects are insignificant for both, it is evident that there is no mediation effect of AM in the relationship between JA and AC and CC.

Table 5.
Direct and indirect effect.

	AM	AC	CC	NC
	Beta			
JA				
Direct	0.94*	0.71*	0.81*	0.67*
Indirect		0.27(ns)	0.16(ns)	0.30*
Total	0.94*	0.98(ns)	0.97(ns)	0.97*
AM				
Direct		0.29(ns)	0.17(ns)	0.32**
Indirect				
Total		0.29(ns)	0.17(ns)	0.32**
Result		No mediation	No mediation	Partial mediation

Notes: JA, Job Autonomy; AM, Autonomous Motivation; AC, Affective Commitment; CC, Continuance Commitment; NC; Normative Commitment * $p<0.01$ ** $p<0.05$ (ns) not significant

Whereas, the value of total effects (0.97) of JA on NC can be divided into 0.67 (i.e., a direct effect of JA on NC) and 0.30 (i.e., an indirect effect of JA on NC comprising JA–AM and AM–NC). As these two effects are significant, it is evident that there are two ways for JA to impact NC, one is by itself, and the other by using AM. Therefore, this study strongly supports that AM acts as a partial mediator factor in the relationship between JA and NC.



* $p < 0.01$

** $p < 0.05$

.....> Moderating effect

Figure 2. Hypotheses testing.

4.3 Moderation Analysis

This study hypothesized organizational culture would have a moderation effect on the relationships between job autonomy and affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Moderation analysis is assessed by applying PLS product-indicator approach. As stated by Chin, Marcolin, and Newsted (2003), PLS can give more accurate estimates of moderator effects by accounting for the error that attenuates the estimated relationships and improves the validation of theories (Faizan Ali et al., 2016).

To test the possibility of the moderating effect, job autonomy (predictor) and organizational culture (moderator) were multiplied to create an interaction construct (job autonomy * organizational culture) to predict affective, continuance, and normative commitment. As Table 4 shows, the estimated standardized path coefficients for the effect of the moderator on the affective commitment ($\beta = 0.09$; $p < 0.01$), continuance commitment ($\beta = 0.12$; $p < 0.01$) and normative commitment ($\beta = 0.27$; $p < 0.01$) were significant. This portraying organizational culture moderates the relationships between job autonomy, affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Organizational culture (involvement and consistency) strengthens the positive effect of job autonomy on affective, continuance, and normative commitment. This means the internal integration of organizational culture promotes consistent values and encourages employee involvement in the organization. Hence, H3a, H3b, and H3c were also accepted.

5. DISCUSSION

5.1 Theoretical Contributions

Based on the extant literature, Human resource management has supported the inspiration that persuading workers engagement, commitment and involvement can engender significant and fruitful effects for the organization. However, it is important to understand employee engagement, employee involvement, and employee commitment and examine how does it manipulate employee attitude (Albrecht, 2010; Battistelli et al., 2013). Hence, when employees believe that their organization is concerned about them and cares about their well-being, they are likely to respond by attempting to fulfill their obligations to the organization by becoming more engaged. This leads to a favorable outcome; organizational commitment. Understanding the drivers of organizational commitment is essential as indicated by several recent studies.

The benefits of adopting job autonomy have been examined in the literature. (Somers, 2009) the study proposed that commitment processes are very complex as it involves the human psyche and emotions. The relative levels of commitment for each employee affect how the psychological state of commitment is experienced. For example, when affective commitment and normative commitment are high, the potentially negative effects of continuance commitment are eased out because employees do not feel stuck in their organizations, but feel invested in them. In the case of employee retention, potential negative effects of continuance commitment seem to be mitigated when affective commitment and normative commitment are also high (J. Lee & Wei, 2017).

This study determines the importance of job autonomy and autonomous motivation and their influence on affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Several drivers have been identified in the literature which include a method, scheduling, and criteria autonomy, and intrinsic motivation, and integrated regulation (Meyer and Allen, 1984; 1997; Ghosh & Swamy, 2014; Silva et al., 2015). In addition, the role of organizational culture was examined as they play an important role in changing employees' attitudes, achieving organizational commitment, and enhancing performance. A holistic model that depicts and examines the relationships among Job autonomy, as well as factors that create autonomous motivation and influence affective, continuance, and normative commitment was developed and tested empirically. Using data collected from a sample of 317 Ethiopian commercial banks, the proposed relationships were tested.

The two research questions considered in this paper were addressed through the analysis of the collected data. The first question examined was that of determining the extent to which autonomous motivation mediates the relationship between job autonomy and affective, continuous, and normative commitment. The results confirmed that job autonomy influence autonomous motivation. In line with the results of (Mahmood et al., 2019) and (Mylona & Mihail, 2019), job

autonomy was found to directly affect affective, continuous, and normative commitment. As per our research, the direct effect of job autonomy is prominent on continuance commitment followed by affective and normative commitment. According to (Mahmood et al., 2019) affective commitment develops when the employee becomes involved in, recognizes the value-relevance of, and/or derives his/her identity from, an association with the organization.

The study of Andrew (2012) found that job autonomy impacts organizational commitment through intrinsic motivation. Our results confirmed the indirect effects of job autonomy on normative commitment. Job autonomy had no such effects through autonomous motivation on affective and continuous commitment were detected. The influence of job autonomy on affective and continuous commitment through autonomous motivation explains the discrepancies between our results and those of Andrew (2012).

The second question examined was that of determining the extent to which organizational culture influences the relationships between job autonomy and affective, continuous, and normative commitment. The results indicate that job autonomy has a stronger effect on affective and continuance commitment when there is high organizational culture (involvement and consistency). This supports the assertion that organizational culture influences the productivity of an organization, effectiveness, its performance, job satisfaction, commitment, innovativeness and leadership and decision-making (Mehr, Emadi, Cheraghian, Roshani & Behzadi, 2012; Naqvi et al., 2013); employees are more committed to their organizations when they are involved in decision-making and organizations that encourage and promote communal and consistent values and norms should engender a high sense of identification and enhance internal coordination among organizational members, which help to foster the commitment of their employees (Nongo & Ikyanyon, 2012; J. Lee et al., 2018). Hence, employees demand a flexible job structure to assure what they are supposed to accomplish.

In addition, organizational culture provides the 'social glue' that gives organizations coherence, identity, and direction. It is a set of shared values and symbolic elements that provide a common meaning frame by which organizational members interpret and make sense of the organizational world they occupy and that this guides their thinking, feelings, and behaviors (Rastegar & Aghayan, 2012).

5.2 Managerial Implications

According to the study's findings, giving employees more job autonomy can help businesses gain organizational commitment. The successful implementation of these practices necessitates taking organizational culture into account. These can help you overcome human resource management challenges and gain a competitive advantage.

This study's implications can help managers and decision-makers in a variety of ways. First and foremost, understanding and recognizing the relationship with organizational commitment will help decision-makers develop strategies and policies to successfully implement practices and overcome human resource challenges. Furthermore, this knowledge can assist managers in elevating practices in their organizations while also deepening their commitment.

Second, the researcher discovered that job autonomy can influence strong commitment in a sample of bank employees. This finding is particularly significant for financial institutions. In recent years, bank employee turnover rates in China (Park, Newman, Zhang, Wu, & Hooke, 2016; Price Waterhouse Coopers, 2012), India (Ghosh, Rai, Chauhan, Gupta, & Singh, 2015), and Ethiopia have been high (Beza, 2014; Chekole, 2019). Staff retention has become a major challenge in human resource management for these organizations. According to the researcher's findings, increasing employees' sense of obligation to stay could be an effective way to address the issue of staff turnover.

Third, the researcher demonstrates that employees' obligation to remain with the organization stems from the employee-organization exchange relationship, which reduces their intention to leave. This finding implies that commitment is an important mechanism linking employees' exchange relationships with the organization and their positive attitudes toward it. As a result, human resource managers may use a social exchange within the organization to increase employee commitment. For example, they may design and implement organizational systems that encourage social exchanges and the development of organizational commitment among their employees.

As a result, the researcher advises senior management and human resource managers to make the organizational social exchange more visible to employees in order to increase organizational commitment.

5.3 Limitations and Future Scope of Research

All research studies have limitations, and this study is not exempt from them. This study also directs the researchers in their pursuit of new future research avenues on the subject. The following are the main limitations of this study, as well as suggestions for future research.

The target population of this study was limited to Ethiopian Commercial Banks. The results could have been influenced by cultural aspects specific to the country under consideration. As a result, more data collection from a diverse sample of firms from various countries can broaden the significance of the findings. Therefore, more research was required on this topic; future researchers may also broaden this topic to include cross-cultural comparative research between developing and developed countries to generalize the findings and implications.

Due to resources constraints, this research collected primary data-based samples from the capital city of Ethiopia. To generalize the findings, this research tried to use a bigger sample size and analyze the data based on the individual country. However, the author thinks that this is not sufficient to generalize the results to all developing countries. Future researchers should add more countries along with a bigger sample size by compromising probability and non-probability techniques, which might help generalize the findings in developing countries.

Similarly, considering this study's limitation, this research did not take into account job feedback, task identity, skill variety, or task significance (the full scope of components of job design). Also, this study was not considered the other dimension of organizational culture, which is external (adaptability and mission). In addition, non-self-determined or controlled forms of motivation are not investigated. In this background, the author suggests that all dimensions of the study variables may be considered separately in future research with new related concepts.

This study considered mainly commercial banks along with a selection of a service sector in Ethiopia. Future researchers may extend the types of banks and kind of the sector to check the variation in employee responses based on specific cultures that might be helpful for potential managerial guidance.

According to the research objectives, this study was empirical and used quantitative research methodology. Future researchers may consider conducting qualitative, experimental, or case study research on the topic, as there are few such studies available, which could provide more potential insights into the theory and managerial relevance.

Finally, this study presented the relationship between the study variables at the organizational level. In the future researchers might analyze by separating the relationship at the individual and organizational level. This phenomenon is rarely explored and very fruitful area of future research.

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