

**KWAME NKRUMAH UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND
TECHNOLOGY**

COLLEGE OF ART AND SOCIAL SCIENCES

SCHOOL OF BUSINESS

**EXPLORING THE INFLUENCE OF EMPLOYEE PARTICIPATION IN
DECISION MAKING ON JOB SATISFACTION; A CASE STUDY OF COCA-
COLA BOTTLING COMPANY LTD, KUMASI**

BY

PATIENCE OPOKU- ADARKWAH

[B.A AKAN]

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DEDICATION

I wish to dedicate this work to the Almighty God, my lovely husband, Mr John Bright Owusu-Ansah, and my lovely kids, Obaa Abrafi Owusu-Ansah and Kwabena Fordjour Owusu-Ansah

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“I will extol the Lord at all times; his praises will always be on my lips. My soul will boast in the Lord; let the afflicted hear and rejoice. Glorify the Lord with me; let us exalt his name together. I sought the Lord and he answered me, he delivered me from all my fears. Those who look to him are radiant; their faces are never covered with shame” (Psalm 34: 1-5).

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ABSTRACT

Today, the growth in human resource issues and concerns has been experienced across global business settings and industries. The denial of workers' active involvement in the decision making process is held to be one of the major causes of problems which are manifested daily in the work lives of employees, mainly affecting the level of satisfaction derived from their jobs. The likelihood of this observation varying across industries and nations triggered the need for this study to be carried. Using a case study approach, Coca-Cola Bottling Co. Ltd (Kumasi) was used for this study. A quota sampling technique was adopted in choosing the respondents. 86.25% response rate was attained for a sample size of 80. Data were gathered with the aid of questionnaires. Quantitative techniques were adopted in analysing data gathered. Specifically, the study revealed only a moderate level of employees' participation in the decision making process in the organisation. This tends to minimize both their level of satisfaction enjoyed in being involved in decision making and the overall level of satisfaction derived from their jobs. It also came to light that employees demographics, such as educational background and gender, plays a significant role in determining employees' level of participation in decision making and the overall level of job satisfaction respectively. In all, the study indicated that employees' participation in decision making in the organisation predicts 74.3% variation in level of job satisfaction. From this finding, it is recommended that, if there exists any effective means of improving the satisfaction that workers derived from their jobs, then, emphasis should be on adopting structures that allow adequate involvement of employees in decision making.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Background of the study

Although, managements make strategic decisions; the quality, consensus and acceptance of which influences organizational performance and job satisfaction (Pitts, 2005). As organizations progressively expand, management decision processes gradually become cumbersome hence employee involvement and participation is vital (Dawson 1994; Storey 1994). Firms are believed to prefer increased employee involvement and participation programmes because evidence have demonstrated that this leads to increased profit through improved efficiency and organizational performance (Levine and Tyson 1990; Dolan 1991). The participation of employees in decision making according to Bolino et al. (2002), heightens participatory management in organizations. This, they stressed to increase organization's ability to achieve both corporate and business strategic objectives hence performance and job satisfaction. In reaction to this, Lam et al (2002) also observe that to sustain an organizational ability to produce and implement strategic decisions to influence organizational outcomes, management must maintain positive relationship among members and subordinates (Groth, 2005). This, they find to increase firm's survival and performance (Platt and Platt, 2012).

Participative decision making as described by Locke and Schweiger (1979), is the joint decision making or influence sharing between management and their subordinates. It stresses on the active involvement of employees expertise and creativity in strategic decision making process of an organization to solving vital managerial problems. The concept of participative decision making hinges on the

notion of shared authority; which holds that managers share their managerial authority with their subordinates (Amason and Schweigner, 1994). However, Zeithaml et al. (2006) believe that the presence and participation of employees in corporate decision making can enhance customer satisfaction by increasing the likelihood of meeting customer needs. This, in turn, they postulated to influence employee satisfaction through an emotional contagion process. Thus, customer satisfaction leads to employee job satisfaction (Pugh, 2001).

However, questions have risen as to whether the inclusion of employees in decision making can be attained simultaneously with management to impact employee job satisfaction (Eisenhardt and Zbaracki, 1992). Whereas many academicians have examined the association between participative decision making and employee outcomes such as task performance, job performance, and turnover; only mixed results exist on the impact of employee participation in decision making and job satisfaction. Although, studies in developed economies such as Cotton et al (1988); Miller and Monge, (1986) have reported positive relationships; Wagner (1994) indicates that the overall effect of employee participation in decision making on job satisfaction is small. Patchen (1970) also on the relationships between decisional participation and job satisfaction, and job achievement and organizational integration posits that, along with other consequences, increased participation in organizational decision making leads to greater job satisfaction and work achievement, as well as greater individual integration into the organization. However, little or no evidence exist on effect of employee participation in decision making and job satisfaction in Ghana. Therefore this study aims to fill this gap by examining employee participation in decision making and job satisfaction.

1.1 Problem statement

The spread of democratic value to virtually every society today has brought the need to examine the implications of this trend to other spheres of life. With respect to economic sector, employees are faced with the dilemma of how to cope with authoritative management in the work places while living in a democratic society which guarantee basic fundamental freedom. Armstrong (2003) was of the view that the denial of employees' active involvement in decision making process is held to be one of the major causes of problems which are manifested daily in the work lives of employees particularly in the manufacturing industry. The implication of this decision making on employees exposure to a monetized society, rising education and wider contact among people resulting from the break-up of artificial barriers was to shift these aspirations to a more satisfying work experience, greater control over the organization of work, greater opportunity for personal development and wider scope in exercise of initiatives.

Specifically, the refusal of work organizations to recognize the human factor in industrial production through greater involvement of employees in its management decision making process would tend to create several human resource problems in this setting. An employee is a social being who brings his personality, hopes, aspirations, anxieties, feeling and attitude to the work place. He seeks satisfaction and meaning into his work as he does in other spheres of life. However, when he finds that his work does not provide him with the opportunity to realize his potentials (for instance, through strict management control) he tends to engage in negative behaviours like absenteeism, apathy, low commitment and low productivity. The implications of these negative tendencies resulting from the absence of employee participation in decision

making has therefore raised serious concern among scholars interested in healthy industrial relations.

1.2 Objectives of the study

The main objective of the study is to examine how employee participation in decision making process influences job satisfaction as a case study of Coca-Cola Bottling Company Ltd Kumasi. The specific objectives are as follows;

1. To assess the extent to which employees of Coca-Cola participate in decision making processes
2. To examine the level of satisfaction employees of Coca-Cola derive from their jobs and participating in decision making
3. To examine the effect of employee participation on job satisfaction

1.3 Research questions

1. To what extent do employees of Coca-Cola participate in decision making process?
2. What satisfaction do employees of Coca-Cola derive from their jobs and involvement in decision making?
3. What effect does employee participation in decision making have on job satisfaction?

1.4 Overview of research methodology

The nature of the study required adopting case study approach. This was to help the researcher focus and have an in-depth understanding on issues being looked into. The study's target group constituted employees at both the operational level and

managerial level. A quota sampling technique was adopted in choosing the sampling size for the study. In line with the objectives of the study, only primary data was required. These were gathered with the aid of questionnaires. Quantitative techniques were used in analysing data. The data were edited and coded using Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS) and Microsoft excel. Data was analysed and interpreted using frequencies, means, standard deviations, and t-tests. The findings were reported in tables and graphs according to concepts in order to address the purpose of the study.

1.5 Scope of the study

The study focused on employees' participation in decision making and its influence on their job satisfaction in Coca-Cola Bottling Co. Ltd Kumasi. In this sense, employees at the various levels in the managerial ladder of the case study institution became the subject of the study.

1.6 Limitation of the study

The main limitation of the study was the research strategy adopted, making the findings of the study limited to the scope of the study. Other limitations of the study were (1) difficulty in getting approval from management of the case study company and (2) employees' unwillingness to participate in the study.

1.7 Significance of the study

This study is important because it will increase knowledge. The study provides researchers a better perspective in understanding an academic subject like decision making and job satisfaction, whilst giving researchers an opportunity to assess the

issue in an applied environment. Studying the influence of employee participation in decision making on job satisfaction as a case study of Coca-Cola Company Ltd. is vital since the study would serve as a base line study for policy recommendations and interventions on addressing employee job satisfaction related issues in Ghana. It will also provide tested information to granting employees the needed job satisfaction in the face of increased employee turnover in recent times. This work will establish the essence of involving employees in decision making. The study would provide a comprehensive and analytical guide for management on innovative ways of improving participation management in decision making in Ghana.

Furthermore, the study will be adding more information to existing research, since there is a dearth of research in this area. Substantial information in this respect is very much needed. Therefore, this research is a step in the right direction in solving the problem of inadequate information on decision making and job satisfaction in the Ghanaian context. The study will also be of assistance to other researchers who will be interested to research on this topic. It would guide future research. Lastly, this study will improve and sharpen the research gathering and analytical skills of the researcher, a skill that is not taught in the lecture halls and can boost her employability.

1.8 Organization of the study

The study is organized into five chapters. The chapter one which is the introduction provides the background to the study, statement of problem, objectives of the study and research questions, methodology, justification of the study, scope of the study, limitation and organization of the study. Literature materials on theoretical and the

conceptual framework of the study were presented in the chapter two. Chapter three entails a more detail approach to the study. The research design, sampling technique and research instruments and data collection procedures of the study are also described in this chapter. Chapter four presents the results, discussions, and the analysis of the data collected. The last chapter is the summary of the findings, together with the conclusion and recommendations.

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CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter looks at a review of issues and factors that have been explored and studied in the existing literature on decision-making, employee participation and job satisfaction and examine the existing gaps. A number of theories of prominent writers on the subject have been reviewed within the framework of this research in order to establish a common understanding of the concept.

2.1 The nature of decision making

Decision making in general primarily stems from the number one economic problem of scarcity. Individuals, organisations and countries constantly attempt to meet an unending list of wants and needs with limited resources. As a result of this, choices and priorities would have to be made in order to accomplish a desired need or result of the individual or organisation. Flowing from the above, Eisenfuhr (2001) describes decision making as a process of making a choice from a number of alternatives to achieve a desired result. This definition has three key basics. First, decision making involves making a choice from a number of options. Secondly, decision making is a process that involves more than simply a final choice from among alternative. Lastly, the "desired result" mentioned in the definition involves a purpose or target resulting from the mental activity of that decision.

According to Wilson and Keil (2000) decision making is the process of choosing a preferred option or course of action from a set of alternatives on the basis of a given criteria. Decision making is an important exercise that individuals and organizations

go through daily in arriving at a course of action. There a lot of mystery surrounding the decision making process because as with every human activity, there is no fixed rule about man's behaviour. For the purpose of this study we would now consider two theories on decision making.

2.2 Theories of decision making

Historically, scientists in an effort to consider how people go about making decisions came up with these two basic models: the rational model and the bounded rationality model (March, 2010). From the cognitive theorists, the Decision making theories can be categorized into two paradigms: the descriptive and normative theories (Wang et al., 2004). The previous is based on empirical observation and on experimental studies of choice behaviours; and the latter assumes a balanced decision-maker who follows well-defined preferences that obey certain maxims of rational behaviours. Typical normative theories are the expected utility paradigm (Osborne and Rubinstein, 1994) and the Bayesian theory (Berger, 1990; Wald, 1950). Edwards developed a 19- step decision-making process (Edwards et al., 2001) by integrating Bayesian and multi-attribute utility theories. Zachary et al. (1982), perceived that there are three constituents in decision making known as the decision situation, the decision maker, and the decision process. For the purpose of this research work, the researcher emphasis would be on the rational model and bounded rational model of decision making.

2.2.1 The rational model

Administrative decision making is assumed to be rational. By this we mean management makes decisions under certainty: They know their alternatives; they

know their outcomes; they know their decision criteria; and they have the ability to make the optimum choice and then to implement it (Towler, 2010). According to the rational model, the decision making process can be broken down into six steps (Schoenfeld, 2011).

2.2.2 The bounded rationality model

The rational decision making model as discussed above, characterizes the decision maker as completely rational. If a decision maker were completely rational, she would have perfect information: know all alternatives, determine every consequence, and establish a complete preference scale. Moreover, the steps in the decision-making process would consistently lead toward selecting the alternative that maximizes the solution to each decision problem. Frequently, management may not be aware that problems exist. Even when they are, they do not systematically search for all possible alternative solutions. They are limited by time constraints, cost, and the ability to process information. So they generate a partial list of alternative solutions to the problem based on their experience, intuition, advice from others, and perhaps even some creative thought.

Rationality is, therefore, limited. Simon (2009) coined the term bounded rationality to describe the decision maker who would like to make the best decisions but normally settles for less than the optimal. In contrast to complete rationality in decision making, bounded rationality implies the following (Simon, 2009):

- Decisions will always be based on an incomplete and, to some degree, inadequate comprehension of the true nature of the problem being faced.

- Decision makers will never succeed in generating all possible alternative solutions for consideration.
- Alternatives are always evaluated incompletely because it is impossible to predict accurately all consequences associated with each alternative.
- The ultimate decision regarding which alternative to choose must be based on some criterion other than maximization or optimization because it is impossible to ever determine which alternative is optimal.

2.2.2.1 Satisficing

One version of bounded rationality is the principle of satisficing. This approach to decision making involves choosing the first alternative that satisfies minimal standards of acceptability without exploring all possibilities. This is the usual approach taken by decision makers (Nielsen, 2011). Simon (1997) expresses it this way: “Most human decision making, whether individual or organizational, is concerned with the discovery and selection of satisfactory alternatives; only in exceptional cases is it concerned with the discovery and selection of optimal alternatives” (pp. 140-141).

2.3 The rational decision making process

According to the rational model, the decision making process can be broken down into six steps (Schoenfeld, 2011). These steps are explicitly discussed below:

2.3.1 Identifying the problem

Organizations exist to achieve certain goals, such as making profits by satisfying customers. Within the organization, each department or subunit has goals, such as

increasing output, reducing cycle time, and/or developing new approaches to achieve maximum employee satisfaction. Establishing these goals becomes the basis for identifying problem areas, deciding on courses of action, and evaluating the decision outcomes. A decision is said to be effective if it helps a manager to achieve a specific objective or set of goals for the organization. Failure to achieve a desired goal becomes a problem, and management is ultimately responsible for solving it.

Effective decision makers are keenly aware of the importance of properly identifying the problem and understanding the problem situation. Kepner and Tregoe (2005) developed a method of problem analysis that suggests that the first step in decision making, identifying the problem, is the most important step. According to these authors, providing a good definition of the problem affects the quality of the decision. Their method suggests that it is often easier to define what the problem is not, rather than what it is. Also, the problem—and its solution—are prioritized with other problems, to clarify its relative importance. The final step is searching for cause-effect relationships. In summary, their method of problem analysis includes: (1) problem identification, (2) definition of what the problem is and is not, (3) prioritizing the problem, and (4) testing for cause-effect relationships (Kepner and Tregoe, 2005).

The process of identifying problems requires surveillance of the internal and external environment for issues that merit attention (Verschaffel, 2011). In addition to identifying problems, management must also define the situation, which is partly a matter of determining how a specific problem arose. This is an important stage, because the situation definition plays a major role in subsequent steps. Suppose, for example, that an organization has had decreasing organisational performance for the

last two years. One manager might define this situation as the result of a changing consumer taste and begin to search for new approaches to dealing with the new consumer preference. Another manager might define the situation as a case of an inappropriate match between employee performance and what is measured — that is, placing the blame on the performance appraisal tool being used. The problem — declining organizational performance — is the same in both cases, but the two different definitions of the situation call for two different solutions.

2.3.2 Generating alternatives

Once the problem has been identified, the second step in the decision-making process is coming up with different alternative solutions. In developing these alternative solutions, management first must specify the goals that they hope to achieve through their decision. Are they trying to reduce the employee turnover rate, improve the quality of goods and services, increase employee performance, or something else once management has determined its goals, it can search for alternative means of reaching them. Information must be collected regarding each of the alternatives and their likely consequences. More specifically, the management must seek to learn as much as possible concerning the likelihood that each alternative will result in the achievement of various outcomes, and the extent to which those outcomes will contribute to the achievement of the goals and objectives being sought.

Ideally, management should seek to generate as many alternatives as possible and should attempt to ensure that the alternatives are relatively diverse — that is, not highly similar to one another. The extent of the search for alternatives is limited by the importance of the decision, the cost and value of additional information needed to

evaluate alternatives, and the number of people affected by the decision (Zopounidis, 2011a, b). The more important the decision, the more attention is directed to developing alternatives. The length and thoroughness of the search for alternatives depends on the cost of evaluating additional alternatives (Narayanan, 2005). For example, a 2 % improvement in the solution of a \$10 million problem may produce a profit margin of \$200,000. However, if the cost of evaluating an additional alternative is \$250,000, the evaluation costs \$50,000 more than the possible savings. As a rule of thumb, the increase in the improvement of a solution should always be more than the cost of performing the additional evaluation of an alternative. Moreover, the greater the number of people affected by a problem, the more likely the organization will conduct a lengthy and thorough search for alternatives (Ehrgott, 2011). However, when dealing with complex organizational problems affecting numerous people, it is often necessary to compromise on some points. Human benefits cannot be measured in dollars and cents (Schoenfeld, 2011).

2.3.3 Evaluating alternatives

The third step in the decision-making process is evaluating each of the alternatives generated in step 2. In evaluating an alternative, management must ask the following three questions: (1) "Is the alternative feasible?" (2) "Is it a satisfactory alternative?" (3) "What impact will it have on people?" (Grant, 2011). The first question—whether the alternative is feasible—simply means: can it be done? For example, if one alternative requires a general layoff of employees but the organization has a collective bargaining agreement that prohibits such layoffs, that alternative is not feasible. Similarly, if an organization has limited capital, alternatives that require large capital

outlays are not feasible, unless funds can be borrowed to meet the capital-outlay requirements.

The second question concerns the extent to which the alternative is satisfactory — that is, the extent to which it addresses the problem. The third question addresses the impact of an alternative on employees. The alternative that is chosen must be acceptable to those who must live with the consequences of the decision. Failure to meet this condition is the single most likely reason for failure of the decision-making process to solve problems (Hastie, 2010). For this reason, questions of acceptability of a proposed alternative should be of great concern to the manager. On the one hand, even a mediocre solution to the problem may prove effective if it is implemented with enthusiasm and commitment. On the other hand, a technically correct alternative may fail to succeed if implementation is half hearted.

2.3.4 Choosing an Alternative

Once management has evaluated all of the alternatives, it attempts to choose the best alternative. The evaluation phase will have eliminated some of the alternatives, but in most cases two or more will remain.

How does a manager decide which alternative is the best? One approach is to select the alternative that is feasible, satisfactory, and acceptable to the work group (Gilboa, 2011). Because most situations do not lend themselves to sophisticated mathematical analysis, the manager uses this available information in combination with judgment and intuition to make the decision (Mendel, 2011). The basis of judgment should be how close the outcomes or consequences of the alternatives come to achieving the

desired goals of the organization. For example, if the original goal was to decrease employee turnover rate as much as possible, regardless of the costs, management might choose an alternative that will decrease the turnover rate significantly but that carries a high cost, rather than an alternative that would reduce turnover only moderately at a minimal cost. However, if the original goal was to reduce the turnover rate by a moderate amount and if that goal is more desirable now, the second alternative might be a better choice.

Finally, management may be able to choose several alternatives simultaneously. Suppose, for example, a manager is hiring a head of department and has two strong candidates for the position. One strategy that is frequently used is to offer the position to one candidate and keep the other candidate on hold. Should the first offer be rejected, the manager still has an acceptable alternative to filling the position.

2.3.5 Implementing the decision

After choosing an alternative, management faces the challenge of implementing the decision. A sound decision can fail if implemented poorly. It is useful, therefore, to consider some suggestions for successful implementation (Ahmed, 2011).

- Management need to make sure that the alternative is clearly understood: This is accomplished by communicating the decision to all involved staff. Effective communication is necessary for effectively implementing the decision (Ahmed, 2011).
- Management needs to encourage acceptance of the alternative as a necessary course of action: Committees can help management achieve commitment. If the people who must carry out a decision participate in the process, they are

more likely to endorse enthusiastically the outcome. Thus, the degree to which persons have or have not been involved in prior steps may substantially affect the success of the total decision-making process (Ahmed, 2011).

- Management needs to provide enough resources to make the alternative: Succeeding means management has to set up budgets and schedules for the actions they have decided to undertake. Specifically, the decision may require acquiring office space, hiring staff, procuring funds, and the like (Ahmed, 2011).
- Management needs to establish workable timelines: Management now faces a "how much" and "how soon" decision. As part of the process of implementation, management must decide whether to move forward step by step or whether to take the entire action at once (Ahmed, 2011).
- Management needs to assign responsibilities clearly: In other words, what should be done by whom? Because the solution of most administrative problems requires the combined effort of many organization members, each person should understand what role he or she is to play during each phase of the implementation process (Ahmed, 2011).

2.3.6 Evaluating decision effectiveness

The final step in the decision-making process is evaluating the effectiveness of the decision. When an implemented decision does not produce the desired results, there are probably a number of causes: incorrect definition of the problem, poor evaluation of alternatives, and/or improper implementation. Among these possible causes, the most common and serious error is an inadequate definition of the problem. When the problem is incorrectly defined, the alternative that is selected and implemented will

not produce the desired result. Evaluation is important because decision making is a continuous, never-ending process. Decision making does not end when management votes yes or no.

Evaluation provides school administrators with information that can precipitate a new decision cycle. The decision alternative may fail, thus generating a new analysis of the problem, evaluation of alternatives, and selection of a new alternative. Some experts suggest that many large problems are solved by attempting several alternatives in sequence, each providing a modest improvement (Hicks, 2005). Evaluation is the part of the decision-making process that assesses whether a new decision needs to be made.

2.4 Participative decision-making

Participative decision making is part of a broader concept of employee involvement in an organization. Robbins (2003) defines employee involvement as a participative process that uses the entire capacity of employees and is designed to encourage increased commitment to the organizational success. However, participative decision making is a technique of joint decision making where subordinates are made to share some significant degree of decision-making power with their immediate superiors (Robbins 2003).

Participative decision making increases performance, productivity, job satisfaction and motivation. However, Herman (1989) doubts the efficiency of participative decision making process. He believes that participative decision making can be time-wasting and counterproductive. It can reduce people's effectiveness and job

satisfaction. Robbins (2003) denotes studies that emphasize that participative decision making has only a modest influence on productivity, motivation and job satisfaction. He concludes that the problem is not in participation itself but rather participative decision making is effective if it is done in the right conditions (Robbins 2003) and with the right implications (Juechter 1982). Participation decision making is an effective motivational instrument because when subordinates take part in the decision making process, they are more motivated to implement the decision, as it becomes their own. Enrick et al. (1983) assert that when people are permitted to participate in problem solving decisions, they will become extremely interested in employing their expertise and creativity.

Prior studies such as (Hackman and Oldham 1975; Locke 1976; Kemery et al. 1985; Carsten and Spector 1987; Cohen et al., 1996; Scott et al., 2003) have examined that employee participation in decision making increases flexibility and independence of employees hence increases employee job satisfaction. However, Likret, (1961) posits that when management offer employees the opportunity to participate in decision making process, it provides them the opportunity to develop their skills and acquire new skills that enhances job satisfaction. For example, Loch et al (2010) examine that BMW in 2007 effectively employed participative decision making program in order to solve a problem of mixing old and new workers on the same production line. The company succeeded in arranging new production line based on the recommendations of employees.

Consequently, Spector (1986) found that employee participation in decision making is linked to improvement in employee general satisfaction including; supervision, pay,

opportunities for promotion and growth, and organizational involvement. Employee participation was associated with higher motivation and performance, fewer intentions to quit, and lower turnover (Cotton 1993). Research done among 308 Taiwanese companies (Huang 1997) also supports the positive impact of participative decision making on employees' job satisfaction and financial outcomes of the company. Huang (1997) acknowledged that when management offer employees more responsibility in decision making and more autonomy in daily work, turnover rate would increase, even at where no formal participation scheme is institutionalized. Nevertheless, participative decision making has another important role which is to assist in making inclusive and operative managerial decisions. Tjosvold (1987) defines participation as a joint decision making in which employees are invited to help solve organizational problems. Tjosvold denotes that participative decision making gives employees the legitimacy to discuss organizational issues and problems hence provide a setting for decision making.

Lawler (1986) insists that if employees are involved in decisions that affect their work situation then better working methods will be devised. However, Lawler brings three conditions for effective employee participation: knowledge, motivation and mechanisms for decision implementations. A good example of this kind of participation is the quality circle. Using Dachler and Whilpert's (1978) topology, Cotton (1993) defines quality circles as a formal program of direct, face-to-face involvement with a medium level of influence. Quality circles often involve employees from the company's different departments with different skills and knowledge; as a result the Circle can make broader and more comprehensive decisions about problem. In addition circle, members gain deeper understanding about

the company's overall operations and organizational structure (Lawler, 1986). Muchinsky, (2000) observes that participative decision making is one of the few management processes that effectively motivate employees' job satisfaction. He believes that participative decision making provides a promising route to satisfaction of employee's needs and increased company profits. However, it has become clear and imperative that the success of the participative decision making process depends on organizational environment and a lot of other factors that must be considered in implementation (Cotton, 2003).

2.5 Types of participative decision making

Participation of employees in decision-making process has resulted in successful value creation in many organizations. Though the extent to which employees should participate in organizational decision making is still a matter of debate. However, there are a number of ways through which employees can participate in decision-making process of any organization to yield job satisfaction.

2.5.1 Participation at the board level

Representation of employees at the board level is known as industrial democracy. This can play an important role in protecting the interests of employees. The representatives can put all the problems and issues of the employees in front of management and guide the board members to invest in employee benefit schemes.

2.5.2 Participation through ownership

The other way of ensuring employees' participation in organizational decision making is making them shareholders of the company. Inducing them to buy equity shares,

advancing loans, giving financial assistance to enable them to buy equity shares are some of the ways to keep them involved in decision-making.

2.5.3 Participation through collective bargaining

This refers to the participation of employees through collective agreements following certain rules and regulations. This is considered as an ideal way to ensure employee participation in managerial processes.

2.5.4 Participation through suggestion schemes

Encouraging employees to come up with unique ideas can work wonders especially on matters such as cost cutting, waste management, safety measures, reward system, etc. Developing a fully-fledged procedure can add value to the organizational functions and create a healthy environment and work culture.

2.5.5 Participation through complete control

This is called the system of self-management where employees union acts as management. Through elected boards, they acquire full control of the management. In this style, workers directly deal with all aspects of management or industrial issues through their representatives.

2.5.6 Participation through job enrichment

Expanding the job content and adding additional motivators and rewards to the existing job profile is a fine way to keep workers involved in managerial decision-making. Job enrichment offers freedom to employees to exploit their wisdom and use their judgment while handling day-to-day business problems.

2.5.7 Participation through quality circles

A quality circle is a group of five to ten people who are experts in a particular work area. They meet regularly to identify, analyse and solve the problems arising in their area of operation. Anyone, from the organization, who is an expert of that particular field, can become its member. It is an ideal way to identify the problem areas and work upon them to improve working conditions of the organization (Cotton, 1993).

2.6 Theoretical frameworks of participative decision making

According to Likert (2011), the efficiency of an organisation or its departments is influenced by their system of management. Likert categorised his four management systems as follows;

2.6.1 Exploitative Authoritative System

In this type of management system the job of subordinates is to abide decisions made by managers and those with a higher status than them in the organisation. The subordinates do not participate in the decision making. The organisation is concerned simply about completing the work. The organisation will use fear and threats to make sure employees complete the work set. There is no teamwork involved.

2.6.2 Benevolent Authoritative System

Similarly, decisions are made by those at the top of the organisation and management. However employees are motivated through rewards for their contribution rather than fear and threats. Information may flow from subordinates to managers but it is restricted to what management want to hear.

2.6.3 Consultative System

In this type of management system, subordinates are motivated by a degree of involvement in the decision making process. Management will constructively use their subordinates ideas and opinions. However involvement is incomplete and major decisions are still made by senior management. There is a greater flow of information than in a benevolent authoritative system from subordinates to management.

2.6.4 Participative System

Management have complete confidence in their employees. There is lots of communication and subordinates are fully involved in the decision making process. Subordinates comfortably express their opinions. Employees throughout the organisation feel responsible for achieving the organisation's objectives. This responsibility is motivational especially as subordinates are offered economic rewards for achieving organisational goals which they have participated in setting. However, Likert believes that if an organisation is to achieve optimum effectiveness then the "ideal" system to adopt is participative system.

2.7 Benefits of participative decision making in organizations

Participative decision making is a managerial style that invites input from employees on all company decisions (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). The employees are given pertinent information regarding company issues, and the course of action the company will take. Participative decision making can sometimes be a slower form of decision-making, but it has several benefits that may make it the right managerial method for an organization.

2.7.1 Acceptance

Employees would more readily accept policies and decisions that were reached by general consensus. This cuts down on the resistance that new company policies will experience and speeds up the process of implementing new ideas. Employees are given a personal stake in the success of new company policies by being involved in the process of creating and approving these policies and that helps the company to adjust rapidly to policy changes.

2.7.2 Morale and motivation

Employees that are given a voice in the operation of the company feel personally liable for the success of the company. The employee morale remains at a high level because there is an appreciation for the chance to be part of the company decision-making process. Employees will also take a more active role in improving the work conditions when they know that they can directly affect the policies that govern the workplace. However, increased productivity and job satisfaction cannot exist unless there is a high level of motivation in the employee (Vroom, 1995).

2.7.3 Creativity

When employees are encouraged to give their opinions on company issues, many options would be available to the organization to choose from. To be involved in the decision-making process for the company, the employee must be intimately involved in how the company operates. Participative decision making empowers employees to use their creativity to develop more productive work processes and make the company more efficient (Thomas, et al 2004). This in turn increases their job satisfaction since they are seen to be part and parcel of the organization.

2.7.4 Retention

A participative style of decision making offers employees more than just the opportunity to improve their remuneration through good performance. It provides the employees the opportunity to be active in determining the future success of the company. Allowing employees to be active in the growth of the organization encourages those employees to stay with the company to see their plans result in success. This will improve employee retention and cut down on the costs of turnover.

2.7.5 Increase in productivity

An increased employee participation in decision making means that there is a strong feeling of association. The employee assumes responsibility and takes charges (Stirling, 2008). There is lesser new or delegation or supervision from the manager. Working hours may get stretched on their own without any compulsion or force from the management. All this leads to increased productivity.

2.7.6 Job satisfaction

In organizations that employ participative decision making process, most of its employees are satisfied with their jobs and the level of satisfaction is very high. This happens especially, when people see their suggestions and recommendations being implemented or put to practice. Psychologically, this tells the individual employee that, 'he too has a say in decision making and that he too is an integral component of the organization and not a mere worker' (Swift, 2007).

2.7.7 Improved quality

Since the inputs or feedback comes from people who are part of the processes at the lowest or execution level. This means that even the tiniest details are taken care of and reported. No flaw or loophole goes unreported. Quality control thus, begins and is ensured at the lowest level.

2.7.8 Reduced costs

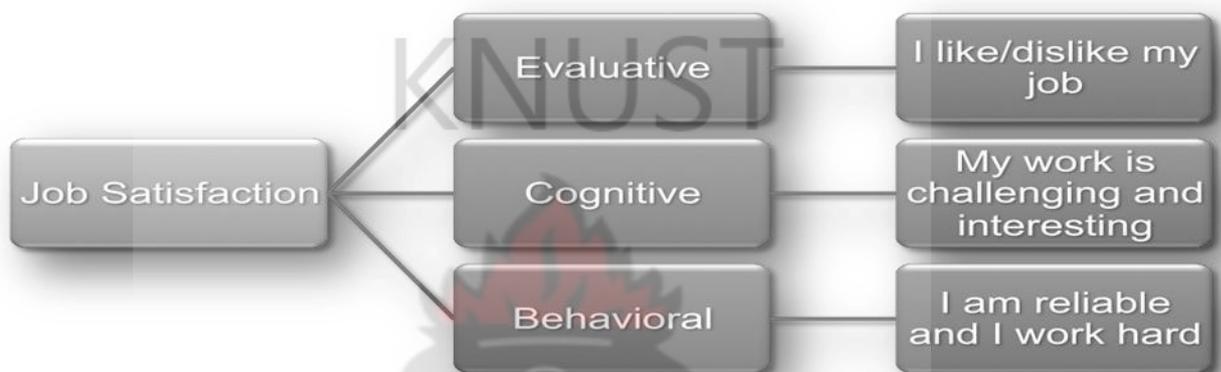
There is a lesser need of supervision and more emphasis is laid on widening of skills and self-management. This and quality control means that the costs are controlled automatically.

2.8 Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction as postulated by Locke (1976) is a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences. Job satisfaction is the most widely researched subjects in industrial and organizational psychology (Judge and Church, 2000). Many studies in satisfaction theories have tried to explain job satisfaction and its influence, such as: Maslow's (1943) Hierarchy of Needs, Adam's (1965) Equity Theory, Herzberg's (1968) Two-Factor Theory, Locke's (1969) Discrepancy Theory, Hackman and Oldham's (1976) Job Characteristics Model, Locke's (1976) Range of Affect Theory, Bandura's (1977) Social Learning Theory, and Landy's (1978) Opponent Process Theory. However, job satisfaction has been associated with emotional, cognitive and behavioural components (Bernstein and Nash, 2008). The emotional component they examine to include feelings regarding the job, such as boredom, anxiety, or excitement. The cognitive component of job satisfaction on the other hand, refers to beliefs regarding one's job. However, the

behavioural component included people's actions in relation to their work, which may include being tardy, staying late, or pretending to be ill in order to avoid work (Bernstein and Nash, 2008)

Figure 2.1: Components of job satisfaction



Source: Adapted from the Pennsylvania State University (2010)

Job satisfaction is one of the most widely used and studied variable in organizational behaviour. The outcome of one of these studies is the adaptation from the Pennsylvania State University's study in 2010. Figure 2.1 depicts job satisfaction as employee's attitudinal (or evaluative), cognitive and behavioural response to his or her job and organization in general. Job satisfaction is made up of evaluative component with cognitive and behavioural components. The following sections summarize the cognitive and affective/evaluative components of job satisfaction; their relationship to organizational inducements systems and their impact on performance and membership.

An individual's overall response to the employing organization is summarized in the evaluative component. It represents dislike vs. like for the organization. When asked for a single response to the question, *how satisfied are you with your job*, individuals' response with their overall evaluation. Still more recently, researchers have supported including an evaluative component in addition to the standard affective and cognitive components of attitudes (Millar, and Tesser, 1986; Weiss, 2002a; Weiss, 2002b). Evaluation may be thought of as a judgment of some degree of favour or disfavour towards a target object that represent one's true attitude toward that object (Bargh, Chaiken, Govender, and Pratto, 1992). Evaluations occur automatically every day (i.e., hearing the word "Hi" in the hallway at work and immediately evaluating it as a positive gesture), and are often activated with the simple reference to or presence of an attitude object, such as your boss (Bargh et al., 1992). Evaluative judgments may be arrived at through either affect or cognition (Crites et al., 1994). Evaluations may be better predicted by either affect or cognition depending on whether the individual places more emphasis on affect or cognition (Crites et al. 1994). Evaluation is best predicted by affect when affectively cued just as it is best predicted by cognitions when cognitively cued (Crites et al.1994). Though evaluation is related to both affect and cognition, it represents a distinct construct representing the true attitudinal measure (Tekell, Yeoh, and Huff, 2006). These "evaluations of the job, may be more salient and accessible" than standard affective and cognitive components of job attitudes typically measured with social attitudes, and thus be related to and/or improve the prediction of attitudes such as job satisfaction (Hulin and Judge, 2003, p. 25).

Other researchers (e.g. MacDonald, 1996; O'Toole, 1980) argue in favour of the control of job satisfaction by factors intrinsic to the workers. Their arguments are based on the idea that workers deliberately decide to find satisfaction in their jobs and

perceive them as worthwhile. Studies of job satisfaction seem to consistently show that there is a relationship between type of job and satisfaction. Kose (1985) found a meaningful relationship between the age and job satisfaction; Hamshari (1983), age and professional experience (Delia 1979; Hamshari 1986), educational level (Well-Maker, 1985; Hamshari, 1986); level of wages (Vaughan and Dunn in Adeyemo, 1997); sex (D'elia 1979; Lynch and Verdin, 1983).

These satisfactions include compensation and benefits, advancement opportunities, and technological challenges. The result showed that salaries and benefits are related to job satisfaction (Horenstein, 1993). Predictors of satisfaction included perceptions of participation and salary. Nkereuwen (1990) reviews theories on job satisfaction and evaluates their relevance to the working environment of large industries. The results indicate meaningful relationship between job satisfaction and wages, management policy, working conditions, possibilities of promotion, gaining respect, the size of the organization and self-development and achievement of the use of talents and creativity (Sencer, 1982; Kose, 1985; Yincir, 1990; Armstrong, 2003; Aquinas, 2009).

2.9 Theories of job satisfaction

Many researchers on work motivation theories have always concluded with the results that motivation is always implied with job satisfaction. In addition, this belief has influenced work satisfaction theories in explaining job satisfaction. Such researchers include: Maslow's (1943) Hierarchy of Needs, Herzberg's (1968) Two-Factor (Motivator-Hygiene) Theory, Adam's (1965) Equity Theory, Porter and Lawler's (1968) modified version of Vroom's (1964) VIE Model, Locke's (1969) Discrepancy

Theory, Locke's (1976) Range of Affect Theory and Hackman and Oldham's (1976) Job Characteristics Model.

Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory though a motivation theory is said to have laid the foundation for job satisfaction theory (Armstrong, 2003). This theory explains that people seek to satisfy five basic needs in life- physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, self-esteem needs, and self-actualization. This model served as a good basis from which early researchers could develop job satisfaction theories. All motivated behaviour of man is directed towards the satisfaction of his needs. The theory postulated that people are motivated by multiple needs, which could be arranged in hierarchy (Aquinas, 2009). One of the most important theories which explain the job satisfaction is Porter and Lawler's theory (1968). He explains job satisfaction in four basic conditions: The Fulfilment theory, the Discrepancy theory, the Equity theory, and the Two-factor theory. According to the fulfilment theory, the basic rule of happiness of workers is to satisfy their demands and seeing to their wishes. Workers are satisfied if their demands are totally provided. Namely, the more a worker earns the more he is satisfied, and the less a worker earns the less he is satisfied. A higher rank job or an interesting job can satisfy them too.

The discrepancy theory is concerned about what the workers expect and what they eventually get. The expectations, evaluations and hopes of workers about their works are more important than what they are having in real. Difference between expectations and actual receipts (gatherings) are the base of this theory in light of these three questions: What do workers wish? What are their expectations? What can they get actually? Equity theory on the other hand holds the view that workers ponder about what their qualifications are, contribution to the work, and the job's

contribution to him. If the worker is paid over his work he will feel guilty but if he is paid under what he deserves his feeling for justice will rise.

The Two-factor theory regards the elements of reasons of fulfilment. Negative elements are lower wages, no job guarantee and such factors. Fulfilment elements are, as Herzberg (1976) stated; realization of worker himself and reaching his goals. By his two factor theory, Herzberg advanced Maslow's main, physiologic and self-realization theory and fortified it with his. Maslow's theory is based on the comparison of the best and worst conditions at work. The conditions in which the workers feel well are called the motivators; the bad conditions are called defensive factors (hygiene). The bad or hygiene factors are: corporation policies and management, supervision, interpersonal relations, work condition, salary, status, and relations with co-workers. The motivators are: success, fame, specialties of work, job security

2.10 Dimensions of job satisfaction

According to Luthan (2002), there are three generally accepted dimensions of job satisfaction. In the first dimension, however, he believed job satisfaction is an emotional response to a job situation where as in the second dimension, job satisfaction was determined by how well outcomes met or exceeded expectations. For example, if organizational participants felt that they were working much harder than others in the same organization, but are receiving fewer rewards, they would probably have a negative attitude towards the work. The final dimension represented several attitudes which included; pay promotion opportunities, working conditions, co-worker relationship, supervision and the work nature. Luthan (2002) posits that although, there are numerous factors that must be taken into consideration when determining

how satisfied an employee is with his or her job, it is not always easy to determine which factors are appropriate and important to each employee. Therefore, job satisfaction is subjective for each employee and situation being assessed.

2.11 Determinants of job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is influenced by a plethora of factors such as job characteristics, social information processing and dispositional characteristics (Jex, 2002).

2.11.1 Job characteristics

In relation to the Job Characteristics approach, research has revealed that the nature of an individual's job or the characteristics of the organization that the individual works for predominantly determines job satisfaction (Jex, 2002). According to Hackman and Oldham (1980) a job characteristic is an aspect of a job that generates ideal conditions for high levels of motivation, satisfaction, and performance. Furthermore, Hackman and Oldham (1980) proposed five core job characteristics that all jobs should contain: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback. Field (2008) also defined four personal and work outcomes that affect job satisfaction of employees. These he examines to include internal work motivation, growth satisfaction, general satisfaction, and work effectiveness. These characteristics have been added to the more popular dimensions of job satisfaction assessment: the work itself, pay, promotional opportunities, supervision, and co-worker relations.

A common feature in studies of the effects of job characteristics on job satisfaction is that individuals determine job satisfaction by comparing what they are currently receiving from the job and what they would like to or believe that they should receive

(Jex, 2002). According to Locke (1976), this process becomes complex since the importance of work facets differs for each individual. For example, one employee may feel that pay rate is extremely important while another may feel that social relationships are more important. To explain the effects of these differences, Locke (1976) put forward the ideas of the range of affect theory.

The hypothesis of this theory is that employees weigh facets differently when assessing job satisfaction (Locke, 1976). Consequently, this leads to an individual measure of satisfaction when expectations are met. For example, the job satisfaction of an employee who places extreme importance on participative decision making style of management would be positively impacted if he or she involves in the organizations decision making process.

Figure 2.2: Job satisfaction model



Source: Adapted from: Field (2008)

Figure 2.2 on the job satisfaction model bears semblance with that of Herzberg’s 1976 two factor theory, that is, the hygiene factors and motivators. The hygiene factors typically refer to conditions which safeguard against job dissatisfaction. The ‘no job dissatisfaction’ illustrates an absence of fulfilment and commitment by workers.

However, the presence of these hygiene factors does not necessarily result in job satisfaction. Herzberg (1976) noted that employees in organisations with the best of pay, promotion and job security policies would still be indifferent on the scale of job fulfilment and commitment. Take all these hygiene factors away, and you have a disgruntle workforce.

On the other side of the fulfilment and commitment scale, we have 'job satisfaction' and 'no job satisfaction'. Again, this side of the model draws inspiration from Herzberg's 'motivators'. Optimal organisational and job factors such as good social relationships, leadership, advancement and recognition on one's job result in huge doses of employee engagement and commitment that is a satisfied employee. However, when these motivators are absent, employees would be in a state of no 'job satisfaction'. Herzberg (1976) described this state as a situation where employees have no extra drive get involved and participate in organisational activities. They experience neutral attitude towards their jobs and the organisation as a whole.

2.11.2 Social information processing

Jex (2002) explains that during social information processing, employees look to co-workers to make sense of and develop attitudes about their work environment. In other words, if employees see that their co-workers are positive and satisfied then they will most likely be satisfied. Accordingly, organizations are counselled that new hires can become "tainted" during the socialization process if they are placed around employees who are dissatisfied (Jex, 2002). Although, studies have found that social information has a prevailing impact on job satisfaction and characteristic perceptions, organizational tests have been less supportive (Jex and Spector, 1989). Generally,

research on social information processing theory supports the idea that social environment does have an effect on employees' attitudes and behaviours (Aamondt, 2009).

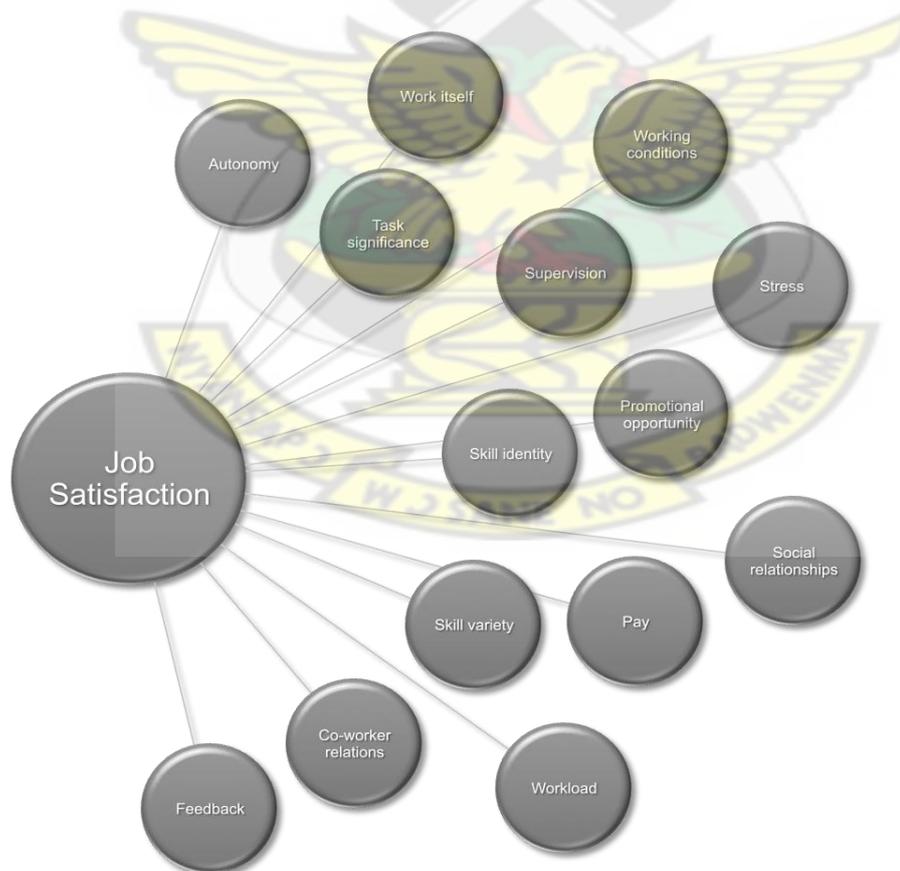
2.11.3 Dispositional characteristics

Internal disposition has been one of the methods employed in explaining job satisfaction. This method hints that some people are inclined to be satisfied or dissatisfied with their work no matter the nature of the job or the organizational environment (Jex, 2002). Although individuals change jobs and employers, individual disposition has been shown to be consistent by the use of survey results on job satisfaction (Staw and Ross, 1985). Many years of research has been conducted on the dispositional source of job satisfaction and has presented strong evidence that job satisfaction, to some extent, is based on disposition (Judge and Larsen, 2001). Dispositional affect is the predisposition to experience related emotional moods over time (Judge and Kammeyer-Mueller, 2008). Accordingly, this approach assumes that an employee's attitude originates from an internal (mental) state. Positive affect is a predisposition favourable to positive emotional experience, whereas negative affect is a predisposition to experience a wide array of negative emotions (Watson et a 1988).

Studies conducted by Judge and Bono in 2001, showed a strong positive correlation between working conditions and job satisfaction. Causation through disposition indicates that job satisfaction can be determined by an individual's general overall outlook of the conditions at his work place. Judge and Locke (1992) discuss cognitive processes like perfectionism, over-generalization, and dependence on others as causation for depression leading to unhappiness. They claim that subjective well-

being resulting from an affective disposition leads to individuals experiencing information recall regarding their job. In short, happy individuals tend to store and evaluate job information differently than unhappy individuals do. This type of recollection indicates that job satisfaction can be influenced by subjective well-being. In addition, Howard and Bray (1988) determined through a study they performed on AT&T managers and employees that motives such as ambition and desire to get ahead serve as some of the strongest predictors for advancement. Also, Bandura (1986) states that individual's aspirations become their standards of self-satisfaction indicating that those with high goals, theoretically, should be harder to satisfy than people with low goals.

Figure 2.3: The facets of job satisfaction



Source: Adapted from Hackman and Oldham (1980)

Job characteristics have been shown to impact job satisfaction (Baker, 2004). Recent studies on social informational processing have found that leadership actions influence job satisfaction of employees (Baker, 2004). Various research findings have indicated that a relationship between disposition and job satisfaction does in fact exist. For instance, Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) advocate that emotionally significant procedures at work may be influenced by disposition, which in turn influences job satisfaction. Job characteristics have been favoured in research (Thomas, et al 2004); however, less research has been conducted on the dispositional approach, since it is fairly new (Coutts and Gruman, 2005).

The figure above (**Figure 2.3**) illustrates Hackman and Oldham's (1980) job characteristics model. The model describes in details both job and organisational factors necessary for job satisfaction. The inner circles of autonomy, task significance, skill variety, skill identity and feedback collectively represent the intrinsic factors of job satisfaction. These intrinsic factors bear semblance with Herzberg's (1976) motivators. For example, organisations with an effective feedback system in the form of good performance management and appraisal systems would constantly have fulfilled and satisfied workforce.

The intended purpose of Hackman and Oldham's (1980) job characteristics model was to enumerate all job and organisational factors capable of influencing one's satisfaction on a job irrespective of whether they are intrinsic (motivators) or extrinsic factors (hygiene factors). The above discussion indicates that in many situations participative decision making result in mental and emotional participation that produces generally favourable job satisfaction for the employees. Participating

employees are generally more satisfied with their work and their supervisor, and their self-efficacy rises as a result of their new-found empowerment.

2.12 Participative decision making and job satisfaction

Management theories (Argyris 1957; Bennis 1966; Herzberg 1966, 1968; Likert 1967; Maslow 1954) have underscored the significance of coordinating the organization with human relationships to enhance productivity. Focusing on human motivation and its effect on job satisfaction and productivity, organizational scholars have conducted research on participative decision making and job satisfaction (Likert 1967; Spreitzer, Kizilos, and Nason 1997; Ouchi 1981; Pascale and Athos, 1981). Participation is a process in which influence is shared among individuals who are otherwise hierarchical unequal (Locke and Schweiger 1979; Wagner 1994). Participatory decision making practices balance the involvement of managers and their subordinates in information processing, decision-making, and problem-solving actions (Wagner 1994).

In line with prior studies, participative decision making has been emphasized in relation to job satisfaction (Cotton et al. 1988; Macy, Peterson, and Norton 1989). Several studies have demonstrated that participative decision making can be beneficial to workers' job satisfaction (Spector 1986; Miller and Monge 1986; Fisher 1989). Evidence from Daniels and Bailey (1999), however, show that the effect of participative decision making on job satisfaction is not consistent. This was supported by Cotton (1993), Cotton (1995), Daniels and Guppy (1994). They presupposed that the linkage between participative decision making and job satisfaction could be nonlinear and dependent on individual and situational variables.

According to Spreitzer et al (1997), the basic assumption of participative decision making is that sharing managers' decision-making power with employees will enhance performance and work satisfaction. They maintain that enhancing employee satisfaction, improving intrinsic motivation, and helping employees to feel good about their work depends on efficient and effective participative decision making process. Therefore, job satisfaction was one of the earliest anticipated outcomes of participative decision making and empowerment (Jackson 1983; Hoerr 1989; Peterson and Hillkirk 1991; Bluestone and Bluestone 1992; Bernstein 1993).

In recent research regarding public-service motivation, Brewer et al (2000) suggest that policy makers and public managers should consider employees in decision-making processes as one of the strategies for advancing public-service motivation. Based on a survey of state agencies, Berry and Wechsler (1995) find that 60 per cent of agencies reported engaging in some form of strategic planning. According to Berman and West (1998), strategic planning is the most widely used productivity improvement strategy in both private and non-profit organizations. Berry and Wechsler (1995) define strategic planning as "a systematic process for managing an organization and its future direction in relation to its environment and the demands of external stakeholders, including strategy formulation, analysis of agency strengths and weaknesses, identification of agency stakeholders, implementation of strategic actions, and issue management. Bryson (1988) further defines strategic planning as a well-ordered effort to produce fundamental decisions and actions that shape and guide what an organization is, what it does, and why it does. An organization's strategy is its long-term direction and objectives (Johnson and Scholes 1993), which affect the whole of the organization (Hickson et al. 1986).

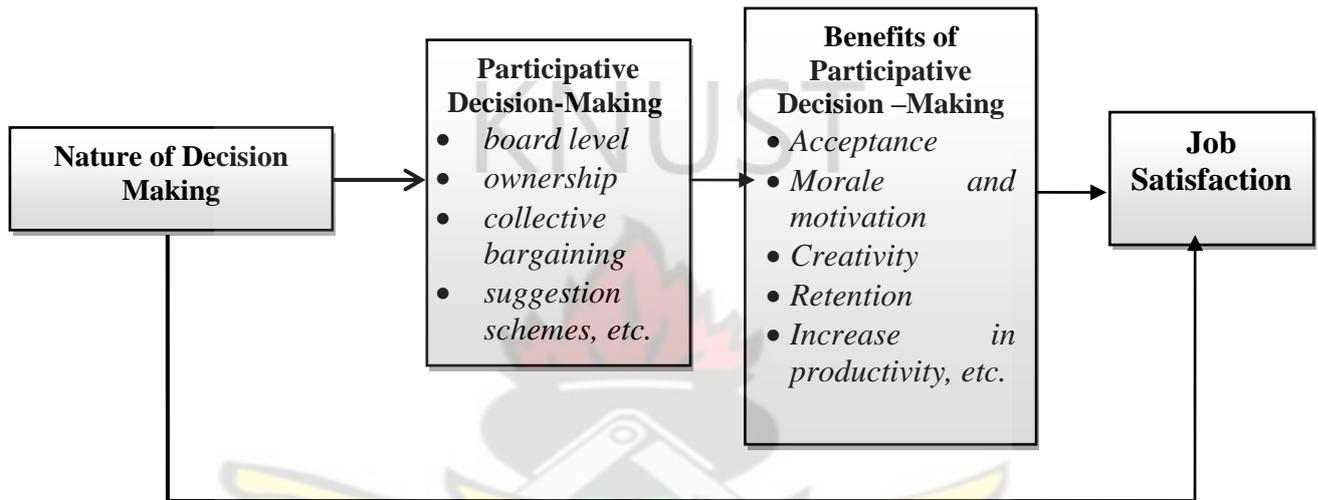
Individuals who participate in strategic decision-making processes are able to affect their working environment in the broadest possible manner (Asch and Bowman, 1989). Given the importance of strategic decisions to work environments (Hickson et al. 1986), Daniels and Bailey (1999) argue that the context within which individuals participate in decisions concerning the fundamental nature of their work environment may be a key moderator of the relationship between participative decision making and job satisfaction. Therefore, the context in which strategies are developed is likely to moderate the relationship between participative decision making and job satisfaction (Daniels and Bailey 1999). Hart and Banbury (1994) indicate that different processes of strategic decision making occur across organizations. Given the complexity of strategic decision making, defining strategic goals and analysing strategic options are of great importance in the planning process. Based on a survey of state agencies, Berry and Wechsler (1995) find that a participatory process, such as lower level staff's inclusion in strategic plan development, is one of the trends in strategic planning evolution in state agencies.

2.13 Conceptual framework

Based on literature reviewed, the researcher developed a conceptual framework (figure 2.4) to guide the study. Past studies (e.g. Eisenfuhr, 2001; Wilson and Keil, 2000) indicated that the nature of decision making to an extent have an impact on employee Job Satisfaction. However, most of the findings of these studies have yielded varied results. For instance, some authors (e.g. Robbins, 2003; Herman, 1989; Cohen et al., 1996; Scott et al., 2003) have examined that employee participation in decision making increases flexibility and independence of employees hence increases employee job satisfaction. Still, some authors perceive that even, the relationships

between these variables are conditioned by the benefits of participative decision-making being a mediator to employee job satisfaction. This is as presented in figure 2.4 below;

Figure 2.4: Conceptual framework for the study



Source: Researcher's construct (2014)

From above, it could be seen that the nature of decision making has a direct relationship with employee job satisfaction. However, this relationship could also be mediated by participative decision making and the benefits that stands to accrue from it. This summarizes the review of literature in relation to this study.

2.14 Chapter conclusion

This chapter reviewed existing materials in relevant to the objectives of the study. Theories and frameworks in relation to employees' involvement in decision making and job satisfaction have thoroughly been reviewed. The existence of varied theoretical and empirical findings on these issues elsewhere was the grounds upon which this study was set, in the context firms in Ghana.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY AND ORGANIZATIONAL PROFILE

3.0 Introduction

This chapter discusses the methodology employed in the research. The main focus of the research was to examine how employee participation in decision making process influences job satisfaction at Coca-Cola Bottling Company Limited Kumasi, Ghana.

According to Welman and Kruger (2001) research involves the application of various methods and techniques in order to create a scientifically developed knowledge by using objective methods and procedures. The technique must be appropriate for the tasks. Therefore, in order to gather the necessary data, the researcher employed quantitative method using questionnaires to source for respondents' views. The credibility of the findings and conclusions extensively depends on the quality of the collected data and its analysis. Therefore this chapter is dedicated to the description of the methods and procedures employed in the research design. This section is to justify the means in which the study was obtained and will help in giving it purpose and strength as it will help in the formulation of conclusions and recommendations on how to improve employee participation and job satisfaction.

3.1 Research design

A research design is the overall plan for relating the conceptual research problem to relevant and practicable empirical research. In other words, it provides a plan of what data to gather and how to analyse the data. In this work a case study approach was adopted from the survey research design (Bloom, 2000). A case study research offers researchers the opportunity to have an in-depth understanding of a problem or

situation under study. In this research, the design enabled the researcher assess how employee participation in decision making affected their job satisfaction in Coca-Cola Bottling Company Ltd Kumasi plant. The study involved a critical study into the assessment of employee job satisfaction from participation in management decision making processes. According to Saunders et al. (2007), case study strategy could be approached both qualitatively and quantitatively. The qualitative approach helped the researcher to describe and have general understanding on issues being understudied. In order to establish cause-and-effect relationship among variables, quantitative methods were relied on.

3.2 Sources of data

Sources of data for studies are broadly categorized into two: primary data and secondary data (Saunders et al., 2007). Yin (2003) asserts that no single source of data has a complete advantage over the other(s) and that the various sources of data collection are highly complementary. This means that using various data gathering tools enrich data for the study and also improved reliability of the data for the study. Data for studies could be broadly gathered from two sources: primary and secondary. Depending on the nature and scope of this study, both sources may become useful (Saunders et al., 2007).

3.2.1 Primary data

Data collected purposely for a particular study is referred to as primary data. Such data could be gathered through questionnaire administration, interviews or observations (Saunders et al., 2007).

3.2.2 Secondary data

Secondary data refer already existing data or information which may become useful in a particularly study. Sources of such data include journal, articles, company reports, government publications, indexes, etc. The nature of this study however required the use of only primary data, which were gathered with the aid of questionnaires.

3.3 Population

Population refers to the complete set of individuals, subjects or objects or events having common observable characteristics in which the researcher is interested in. In this write up, the targeted groups were employees of the Coca-Cola Bottling Company Ltd (Kumasi). The size of employees stands at 197.

3.4 Sample and sampling technique

To obtain the sample size for the study, a quota sample technique was used. Out of the one hundred and ninety seven (197) number of employees, a sample size of eighty (80) was considered suitable for the purpose of this study. Table 3.1 below shows the breakdown of the sample category of the respondents. With this, the researcher was quite content that the sample size represents the population adequately and will therefore reflect a true picture of the research requirement.

Table 3.1: Sample distribution

Sample category	Population size	Sample size
Middle and top level	-	20
Lower level	-	60
Total	197	80

Source: Company documents

3.5 Data collection instrument

The nature of the study required relying solely on primary data, which were gathered with the aid of questionnaires.

3.5.1 Questionnaire

The questionnaires developed for the study were mainly made up of close-ended items, structured on a 5-point scale, where 1=strongly disagree, and 5=strongly agree. The items on the questionnaires were structured under four (4) thematic areas: demographic information, decision making process and employees' participation, constituents of job satisfaction, and satisfaction derived from participation in decision making.

3.6 Data collection procedure

Pragmatic steps were taken to source for the correct and detailed information on the subject matter. The researcher made a visit to the company involved in the study before administering the questionnaires. The questions were explained to those who in one way or the other found it difficult to understand aspects of the questionnaires. A period of two weeks was allowed for the respondents to complete the questions. After two weeks, the researcher personally went back to collect the questionnaire.

3.7 Data analysis

The data that were collected and gathered were analysed using simple statistics such as a frequency distribution table. Considerable attention was given to the use of computer software such as Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and Microsoft Excel for analysing data gathered. The findings were reported using

frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviation and reported using tables and graphs. Other analyses required the use of ANOVA, independent samples t-test, correlation coefficient, and regression. These analyses were used to help established relationship among variables considered in the study.

3.8 Validity and reliability

The researcher is convinced beyond doubts that the data collected for the study were valid and reliable. For instance, questionnaires were carefully designed and subjected to the scrutiny, comments and suggestions of the research supervisor before the questionnaires were administrated. In ensuring that the data gathered were suitable for performing the analysis, a reliability test was conducted using Cronbach Alpha.

3.9 Ethical considerations

Before the study was carried out in the selected institutions, management's consent and approval was first sought. Staff of the various institutions was also requested to willingly participate in the study. In this regard, the anonymity of the respondents was assured. Furthermore, data gathered was only used for the purposes of the study.

3.10 Organizational profile of Coca- Cola Bottling Company Limited Ghana

3.10.1 Brief history

The Coca-Cola Bottling Company of Ghana Limited was set up as a joint venture between Coca-Cola Export Corporation, Africa Growth Fund and Government of Ghana in 1995. Upon further restructuring and acquisition, the current ownership structure changed initially in the year 2000 to Equatorial Coca-Cola Bottling Company and Government of Ghana. In the year 2003, Equatorial Coca-Cola Bottling

Company of Barcelona, Spain bought over the Ghana Government shares and assumed full ownership.

3.10.2 Mission and vision

The company's mission seeks to reward stakeholders by developing and managing profitable total beverages systems that refreshes the people of Africa. The firm's vision is to achieve sustainable growth, become the best beverage company in Ghana and become recognized as one of Africa's leading Coca-Cola Company B, in terms of market leadership and in making significant return on investment capital.

3.10.3 Structure and staffing situation

Administratively, a managing director heads the company. He is assisted by eleven (11) head of departments designated as finance director, human resource director, technical director, commercial director, marketing director, operations director, internal control and IT director, public affairs and communications director, supply chain director, quality system director, and an administrative plan director for the Kumasi plant. Currently, the Kumasi plant has an employee size of 197.

3.10.4 Products

The firm's major operation is the bottling of carbonated soft drinks. The company bottles various beverages under 6 brands namely: Coca-Cola, Fanta, Sprite, Krest, Bon Acqua Mineral Water, and Schweppes. In addition, the company has also ventured into the production of Energy, Dark Malk, and Juice (Burn Energy Drink, Schweppes Malt and Minute Maid respectively).

Considering the nature and purpose of the study, this organisation was considered suitable for study. The perception the researcher had before undertaking the study was that, well developed organisations would have proper structures in enhancing employees' level of participation in decision making (Coca-Cola, 2014).

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CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS, AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

Results obtained from data analysed are presented in this chapter. All relevant discussions in relation to the findings are also detailed in this chapter. In order to enhance clarity and understandings on issues being understudied, the results were presented according to concepts and the nature of the data gathering instrument designed. The study's target respondents included workers at both the managerial level and the operational level of the case organisation chosen for the study. In all eighty (80) responses were expected to be gathered. Sixty nine (69) responses were able to be gathered within the time span for the field study. This constituted a response rate of 86.25%.

4.1 Demographic breakdown of respondents

As shown in table 4.1 below, majority (75.4%) of responses for the study were gathered from male employees, indicating the dominance of males in the organisation. A little above 2/3rd of the respondents are 1st Degree holders, while 5.8% are 2nd Degree holders. Also, 20.3% and 13.0% have A'/O' level and SHS certificates respectively. In relation to years of service, more than half (58.0%) have spent 5 or less years with the case organisation. This is followed by 26.1%, who have worked with the organisation for about 6 to 10 years. Lastly, 85.5% and 14.5% responses were gathered from employees at the operational level and managerial level respectively.

Table 4.1: Demographic breakdown of respondents' profile

		Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	52	75.4%
	Female	17	24.6%
Educational level	Postgraduate	4	5.8%
	Undergraduate	42	60.9%
	A'/O' level	14	20.3%
	SHS	9	13.0%
Years of service	5 or less	40	58.0%
	6-10	18	26.1%
	11-15	6	8.7%
	16-20	3	4.3%
	Above 20	2	2.9%
Position	Managerial level	10	14.5%
	Operational level	59	85.5%

Source: Field study (2014)

In order to have in-depth findings on extent to which the demographic background of the respondents relates to the objectives of the study, both exploratory and explanatory techniques were adopted. The findings were as follows. To ensure that data gathered were suitable for these tests; initial tests were conducted to assess the reliability of the data gathering instrument. The results from the reliability test using Cronbach Alpha are given in table 4.2 below.

Table 4.2: Reliability test

Constructs	No. of items	Cronbach Alpha
Decision Making Process	6	.897
Contents of job satisfaction	13	.835
Satisfaction derived	5	.861

Source: Field study (2014)

The reliability test shown in Table 4.2 indicates alpha values more than 0.70 which Nunnally (1978) recommends to be suitable for survey studies.

4.2 The influence of employees' demographics on DM and Job Satisfaction

A study conducted by Lawler (1986) paid more emphasis on prevailing structures within an organisation (such as motivation, knowledge, and mechanisms for implementing decisions) which influence an employee's level of involvement in decision making. Not discounting this position, this study was directed towards inherent characteristics of employees which could also influence their level of participation in decision. The variables included: gender, educational level, years of service, and level of management. In terms of job satisfaction, other studies by Kose (1985), Hamshari (1986), Delia (1979), Well-Maker (1985), and Lynch and Verdin (1983) showed some level of association between employees' demographics and level of job satisfaction. The following subsections evaluate the level of influence of employees' demographics on level of participation in decision making and job satisfaction.

4.2.1 Gender

The first demographic variable considered was gender. An independent samples t-test was performed to evaluate the extent to which gender play role in employees' participation in decision making and job satisfaction. The results obtained from the group statistics indicated that, in terms of participation in decision making, women (N=17, M=3.51, SD=0.904) are more involved than men (N=48, M=3.07, SD=0.993).

However the independent test results indicated that this observation occurred by chance, given $t(63) = -1.618$, $p = .111$, therefore not a significant finding [refer to appendix 1: table 1A and B].

Also, the independent test results obtained concerning the relationship between gender and level of job satisfaction indicated gender plays a significant role in determining job satisfaction of employees, given the scores of males ($N=47$, $M=3.41$, $SD=0.529$) and females ($N=13$, $M=3.77$, $SD=0.669$); $t(58) = -2.057$; $p = 0.044$ [refer to appendix 1: table 1A and B]. This finding also indicate that, generally, women get more satisfaction in their jobs than men per data gathered from the case study institution, given an eta squared value of 0.068 (a moderate effect size according to Cohen, 1988). This finding confirms earlier findings by Lynch and Verdin (1983) and Delia (1979), though their study did not reveal where the difference was resulting from.

4.2.2 Level of Education

The relationships between ones' level of education and participation in decision making, and level of job satisfaction were evaluated using one-way ANOVA. In terms of level of education, the subjects were grouped into four (4): postgraduates, undergraduates, A'/O' level, and SHS. With regards to the level of participation in decision making, the results indicated statistically significant difference at $p < .05$ level for the scores on the level of participation in decision making for the four (4) groups. The actual difference in mean scores between the groups was also very large. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was 0.16. Post-hoc comparisons using the LSD test indicated that the mean score for SHS ($N=9$, $M= 4.13$, $SD=0.545$) was

significantly different from undergraduate (N=40, M=2.98, SD=0.981) and A'/O' level (N=13, M=3.19, SD=0.983) groups [refer to appendix 1: table 2A, B and C]. This tells that employees with low level of education (SHS) are generally perceived that their participation in decision making is adequate in the organisation. This could probably imply that, unlike employees with high level of education, employees with low educational level appreciate and value any little input they make towards decision making in the organisation. The results obtained for the mean scores for the level of job satisfaction for the groups were Postgraduates (N=3, M=3.35, SD=0.222), Undergraduates (N=38, M=3.443, SD=0.222), A'/O' level (N=12, M=3.44, SD=0.732), and SHS (N=7, M=3.85, SD=0.147). Though it can be seen that employees with low educational level (SHS) get more satisfaction in the jobs at $p < .05$, the test did not indicate any statistically significant difference among the groups [refer to appendix 1: table 2A and B]. This finding contrasts those of Hamshari (1986) and Well-Maker (1985).

4.2.3 Years of service

The relationships between the number years served in the organisation by the employees and their level of participation in decision making and level of job satisfaction were verified using independent samples t-test. The years of service was group into two: employees with 10 or less years, and those serving for more than 10 years. In the area of participation in decision making, the mean scores for the groups were: 10 or less years (N=55, M=3.17, SD=0.898) and above 10 years (N=10, M=3.27, SD=1.428). Though this results indicate that employees serving for more than 10 years generally participate more in decision making, the independent test however revealed that the difference among the groups were not statistically

significant at $p < 0.05$ [refer to appendix 1: table 3A and B]. Also, concerning the level of job satisfaction, the independent test did not reveal any statistically significant difference between the groups, though the group statistics indicated that employees who have served more than 10 years ($N=10$, $M=3.39$, $SD=0.758$) get less satisfied than those who have worked for 10 or less years ($N=50$, $M=3.50$, $SD=0.540$) [refer to appendix 1: table 3A and B].

4.2.4 Level of management

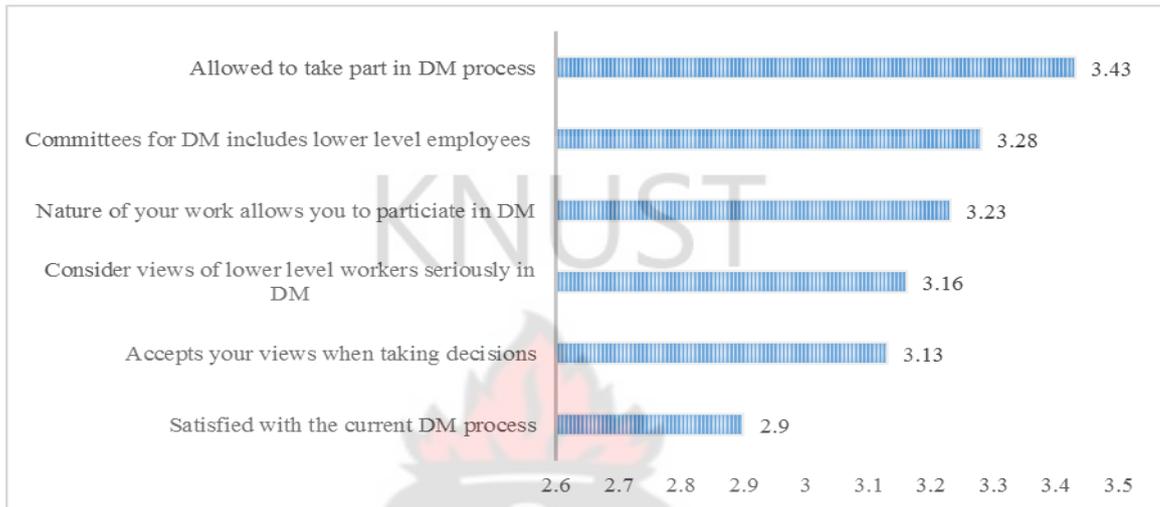
An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the level of participation in decision making and level of job satisfaction for employees at different managerial levels in the organisation. The employees were grouped into two: those at the operational level and those at the managerial level. In terms of the level of participation in decision making, the test indicated statistically significant difference between the mean scores for the groups, given Managerial level ($N=10$, $M=3.73$, $SD=0.425$) and Operational level ($N=55$, $M=3.08$, $SD=1.025$); $t(32.18) = 3.381$, $p=.002$ [refer to appendix 1: table 4A and B]. These results reveal that employees at the higher level in the managerial ladder participate more in the decision making in the case of the organisation understudied. However, in terms of the level of job satisfaction, the test did not indicate any statistically significant difference between the mean scores for employees at the Managerial level ($N=9$, $M=3.79$, $SD=0.357$) and Operational level ($N=51$, $M=3.34$, $SD=0.593$); $t(58) = 1.776$, $p=.081$.

4.3 Employee involvement in decision making (DM) process

As an integral purpose of the study, the respondents were asked to provide evaluations on the extent to which the organisation involve them in decision making. These evaluations were performed on a 5-point scale, where 1=strongly disagree and

5=strongly agree. Using this scale, a mean score above 3.00 indicates that, to some extent, the respondents agree to the issues being evaluated. The results obtained are given in figure 4.1 below:

Figure 4.1: Employee involvement in decision making (DM) process



Source: Field study (2014)

Considering the findings obtained in figure 4.1, the respondents, to some extent, perceived that they are involved in decision making process in the organisation, given that their mean scores were above 3.00. Generally, the average respondent believes that he or she is allowed to be part of decision making process (M=3.43), that committees for decision making in the organisation includes lower level employees (M=3.28), that the nature of one's job affect the extent to which one is involved in decision making (3.23), and that the organisation accepts their views when making decisions (M=3.13). Notwithstanding these, the average respondent feels unsatisfied with the current decision making process in the organisation. This is seemed to be consistent with the poor ratings on the individual scores on the specific areas that contribute the overall satisfaction on ones participation in the decision making process, given that mean scores of 3.13 to 3.43 are far below 5.00.

4.4 Constituents of Job satisfaction

Furthermore, evaluating the respondents' level of job satisfaction from their jobs was in consistent with the objectives of the study. Similarly, a 5-point scale was adopted, with 1=strongly disagree and 5=strongly agree. A mean score above 3.00 indicate that, to some extent, the average respondent is satisfied with specific job satisfaction variables considered in the study. Table 4.4 below shows the summary of the findings from these evaluations.

Table 4.3: Constituent of Job satisfaction

	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. Dev.
Work itself					
Provided with interesting tasks	68	1	5	3.74	1.101
Creativity and judgement opportunities available	67	1	5	3.76	1.088
Chance to apply what you've learnt	68	1	5	3.91	.910
Advancement and growth					
Training opportunities are available	68	2	5	3.79	.682
Promotion is fair, based on abilities and experience	69	1	5	3.36	1.175
Satisfied with the chances of getting promoted	69	1	5	3.54	1.145
Hygiene/organisational factors					
Policies and procedures are line with your values	69	2	5	3.70	.990
Professional relationship between you and your boss	68	2	5	3.79	.873
There exist job security for you	68	2	5	3.63	.689
Suitable working conditions and materials	68	2	5	3.71	.670
There exist professional relationship among colleagues	69	1	5	3.59	.975
Remuneration					
There exist financial stake options (e.g. profit sharing)	69	1	5	2.78*	1.199
Satisfied with present salary	64	1	5	2.31*	1.207

*Not satisfied

Source: Field study (2014)

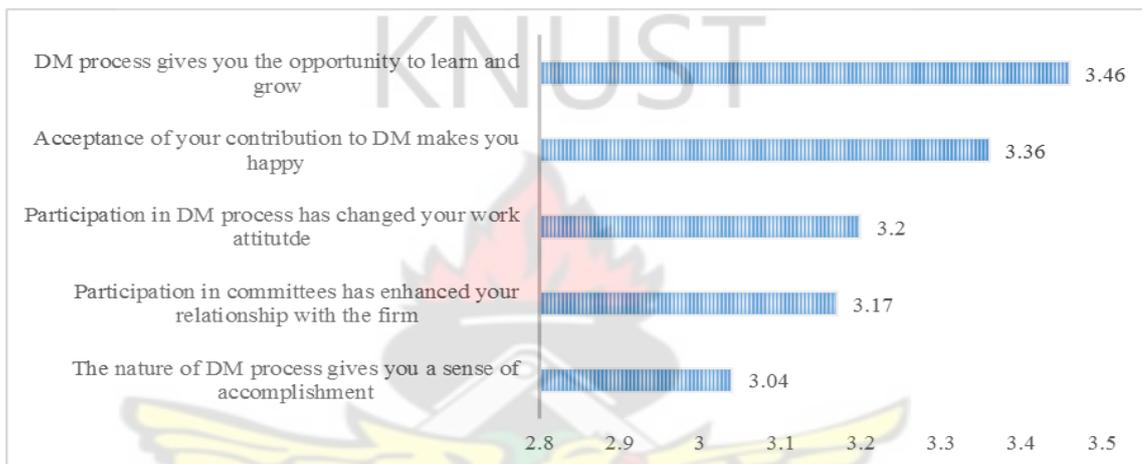
Given in table 4.4, factors affecting job satisfaction were assessed along four (4) dimensions: the nature of the work, opportunities for advancement and growth, organisational/hygienic factors, and remuneration issues. Except for remuneration issues, in which all the constituent items had means scores of less than 3.00, the average respondent agree to that he or she derives some level of satisfaction in the area of the work itself, as manifested in the firm providing them with interesting tasks and opportunities to be responsible and answerable for results (N=68, M=3.74, SD=1.101), supervisors allowing them to use some level of judgement and creativity in carrying out duties (N=67, M=3.76, SD=1.088), and having the chance to apply what has been learnt (N=68, M=3.91, SD=0.910).

Similarly, the results indicate that the average respondent is somehow satisfied with the opportunities for growth and advancement, such as available training opportunities (N=68, M=3.79, SD=0.682), promotions being carried out fairly and based on abilities and experience (N=69, M=3.36, SD=1.175), and the prevailing chances of getting promoted (N=69, M=3.54, SD=1.145). Lastly, in the area of hygienic factors that enhance job satisfaction, the average respondent is to some extent satisfied with issues such as policies and procedures being in line with his or her value (N=68, M=3.7, SD=0.990), existence of professional relationship with supervisors (N=68, M=3.79, SD=0.873), the existence of job security (N=68, M=3.63, SD=0.689), suitable working conditions and materials (N=68, M=3.71, SD=0.670), and the existence of professional and friendly relationship among colleagues (N=69, M=3.59, SD=0.975).

4.5 Satisfaction resulting from participating in decision making

In this study, efforts were made to assess how participation in decision making could also results in some level of satisfaction for the employees. Using the same 5-point scale, where 1=strongly disagree and 5=strongly agree, these assessments were conducted. The results obtained in given in figure 4.2 below:

Figure 4.2: Job satisfaction resulting from participating in decision making



Source: Field study (2014)

As shown in figure 4.2, the average respondent somehow believes that his or her level of participation is a source of happiness ($M=3.36$), creates an opportunity for learning and growth ($M=3.46$), has changed his or her attitude towards work ($M=3.20$), enhanced relationship his or her with the firm ($M=3.17$), and provides a sense of accomplishment ($M=3.04$). Again, the mean scores for these variables were all far below 5.00, indicating insufficient level of satisfaction derived from participating in the decision making process. These findings are consistent with the earlier findings (fig.4.1), where the respondents indicated that they are inadequately involved in the decision making process.

4.6 The relationship between participation in DM and Job satisfaction

The relationship between the level of participation in decision making and the level of job satisfaction was investigated using Spearman rho correlation coefficient. The results obtained [table 4.4] indicated a strong positive relationship between the level of participation in decision and the level of job satisfaction, significant at $p < 0.01$, given $r = 0.842$, with high levels of participation in decision making associated with higher levels of job satisfaction. This finding was support the third hypothesis of the study, is consistent with earlier studies conducted by authors such as Pacheco and Webber (2010) and Bhatti and Qureshi (2007). Though there is no doubts about these findings as earlier studies have shown, Herman (1989) holds the opposite view that level of participation is decision making may not to a great extent influence job satisfaction or productivity, but rather ‘efficiency’ in the level of involvement is the key. Similarly, unlike this study where there was high level of association between participation in decision making and job satisfaction, Robbins (2003) denotes that participative decision making has only a modest influence on job satisfaction, motivation and productivity.

Table 4.4: Participation in DM vs. Job satisfaction

		Participation in decision making	Level of job satisfaction
Spearman's rho	Participation in decision making	Correlation Coefficient	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.842**
		N	.000
			65
			59

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). **Source: Field study (2014)**

4.8 The impact of participation in DM on Job satisfaction

The overall objective of this study was to evaluate the extent of influence that employees' involvement in decision making has on the level of job satisfaction. Using standard regression, the relationship between these two variables was estimated, where level of participation in decision making represented the independent variable and the level of job satisfaction represented the dependent variable. The results obtained are shown in tables 4.6, 4.7, and 4.8 below. The model summary indicated that, participation in decision making helps explain 74.3% changes in level of job satisfaction, given an $R^2=0.743$. Notwithstanding the high predictive power of participation in decision making on job satisfaction as this study revealed, past studies and several authors contend that job satisfaction is influenced by several factors, for which most explain job satisfaction to be influenced by the level of motivation (Vroom, 1995; Maslow, 1943; Herzberg, 1968), compensations and reward schemes (Adeyemo, 1997), demographic background of employees (Hamshari, 1983; Delia, 1979; Hamshari, 1986; Well-Maker, 1985; Hamshari, 1986), job type (Kose, 1985), and working environment (Nkereuwen, 1990).

Table 4.5: Model summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.862 ^a	.743	.738	.29689

Predictors: (Constant), Participation in decision making

Table 4.6: ANOVA_ Influence of participation in DM on Job satisfaction

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	14.524	1	14.524	164.776	.000 ^b
	Residual	5.024	57	.088		
	Total	19.548	58			

a. Dependent Variable: Level of job satisfaction

b. Predictors: (Constant), Participation in decision making

Table 4.7: Coefficients_ Influence of participation in DM on Job satisfaction

Model	Unstandardized		Standardized	t	Sig.
	Coefficients		Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	1.907	.129		14.813	.000
1 Participation in decision making	.500	.039	.862	12.837	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Level of job satisfaction

Source: Field study (2014).

The estimated regression equation was

$$y = 1.907 + .50x$$

Where y=level of job satisfaction; and

x=level of participation in decision making.

In all, the model was significant at $p=.001$, given $F(1, 57) = 164.776$.

4.7 Chapter conclusion

This chapter presented the findings of the study. Preliminary analyses were conducted on the demographic background of the respondents as well as on other variables, such as participation in decision making, job satisfaction, and satisfaction derived from participating in decision making. Further analyses were conducted to evaluate the relationships between the employees' demographics on the issues being researched into. Lastly, the relationship between/of involvement in decision making and/on job satisfaction was investigated.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter contains the summary of findings, conclusion, and the necessary recommendations based on the findings. Also, areas for further studies are proposed.

5.1 Summary of findings

The findings of the study are summarized in line with the study's objectives. The overall objective of the study was to examine how employee participation in decision making process influences job satisfaction in Coca-Cola Company Ltd (Kumasi). The study revealed that, employee participation in decision making predicts 74.3% changes in level of job satisfaction. The specific objectives were achieved as follows.

The first objective sought to assess the extent to which employees of Coca-Cola participate in decision making processes. The findings indicated that, though employees perceive some level of involvement in decision making, the extent of this participation is insufficient per the scale used in this study for the assessment. All the individual scores on the specific areas that contribute the overall satisfaction on ones' participation in the decision making process had that mean values of 3.13 to 3.43 which were far below 5.00.

Examining the level of satisfaction that employees of Coca-Cola derive from their job was the second objective of the study. Results obtained on the various constituents of job satisfaction show some level of satisfaction from work as perceived by the respondents. Notwithstanding this, all their perceived ratings for the level of job satisfaction were all far below 5.00. The highest score was obtained for "chance to

apply for what one has learnt (M=3.91), followed by availability of training opportunities (M=3.79), and existence of professional relationship between employees and supervisors (M=3.79).

Thirdly, the study sought to examine the level of satisfaction employees of Coca-Cola derived from participating in decision making. Again, the mean scores for all variables considered as representing level of satisfaction one should derived from participating in decision making were all far below 5.00, indicating insufficient level of satisfaction derived from participating in the decision making process. These findings are consistent with the earlier findings, where the respondents perceived that they are inadequately involved in the decision making process.

The study also aimed at examining the relationship between decision making and job satisfaction. The results obtained indicated a significant and a strong positive relationship between the level of participation in decision and the level of job satisfaction, with high levels of participation in decision making associated with higher levels of job satisfaction.

Again, the study aimed at examining the relationship between employees' demographics and participation in decision making and job satisfaction. The findings indicated that gender plays a significant role in determining job satisfaction of employees; with women get more satisfaction in their jobs than men. With regards to the level of participation in decision making, the results indicated statistically significant difference for the scores on the level of participation in decision making among employees with different academic background. Also, it was revealed

employees at the higher level in the managerial ladder participate more in the decision making in the case of the organisation understudied.

5.2 Conclusion

This study aimed at examining how employee participation in decision making process influences job satisfaction. The perception the researcher had before undertaking the study was that, well developed organisations would have proper structures in enhancing employees' level of participation in decision making, hence Coca-Cola (Kumasi plant) was chosen as a case study organisation. Contrarily to this earlier perception, the study revealed only a moderate level of employees' participation in the decision making process in the organisation. This obviously tends to minimize both their level of satisfaction enjoyed in being involved in decision making and the overall level of satisfaction derived from their jobs. In conclusion, it was revealed that employee participation in decision making in the organisation predicts 74.3% changes in level of job satisfaction. This is a cue to management, if there exist any effective means of improving the satisfaction that workers derived from their jobs, then, emphasis should be on adopting structures that allows adequate involvement of employees in decision making.

5.3 Recommendations and areas for further studies

In relation to the findings of the study, the researcher recommends the following measures to help enhance employee involvement in decision making and job satisfaction.

5.3.1 Teamwork

Making more use of teams enhances employees' involvement in decision making. Teams often face challenging situations and issues which demand that members contribute in generating ideas in solving such issues. In addition, since teams are usually characterized by few memberships, it creates an avenue for employees to be recognized and be acknowledged for their efforts.

5.3.2 Flattening the organisation

Most traditional organisations are made up of various and tall structures which reduces the degree to which lower level employees are involved in decision making. In addition, such organisations organises work around jobs that share common characteristics. This produces various forms of sub-unit heads and supervisors, who often have direct control over and represent the employees. In such situations, it becomes difficult for the voice of the employees to be heard at the top level. Reducing the level of hierarchy will ensure that equal platform is set for all employees for which their views could easily be pushed through and considered.

5.3.3 Empowerment

Empowerment is also another area where traditional bureaucratic organisations could consider in enhancing employees' involvement in decision making and job satisfaction. Employees should be given the maximum level of authority necessary in executing their responsibilities, though they should still be accountable for the actions. Empowering employees create an environment for which they can initiate and put ideas into practice.

5.3.4 Frequent evaluations

Usually, due to the fear of losing jobs, even dissatisfied works tend to compromise over undesirable issues surrounding their jobs. As long as complaints are not made, management will continue to think that all is well with the employees. Conducting frequent evaluations on the employees' level of job satisfaction and perception on their involvement in decision making process could help management adjust strategies, from time to time, in resolving emerging issues.

5.3.5 Learning organisations

Due to today's changing business environment, firms are encouraged to create an avenue for which employees will see the need to continuously learn and appreciate better ways of doing things. This will help them become involved and better understand the direction in which the business wants to go.

5.3.6 Rewards and incentives

It is recommended that incentive schemes be put in place to drive employees in coming out with creative and innovative ideas.

5.3.7 Areas for further studies

Lastly, to help have a comprehensive knowledge on issues regarding employees' involvement in decision making and level of job satisfaction, other small to medium scale firms could be considered for future studies. In this present study, Coca-Cola was purposefully chosen since the researcher perceived that large organisations would have better structures that seek to address issues of employees involvement in decision making. The present findings could not be solidified unless other businesses of various forms and sizes are considered on these issues.

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APPENDIX 1: RESULTS FROM DATA ANALYSED

Table 1A: Group statistics: Gender vs. level of participation in decision making and job satisfactions

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Participation in decision making	Male	48	3.0660	.99392	.14346
	Female	17	3.5098	.90422	.21930
Level of job satisfaction	Male	47	3.4075	.52929	.07720
	Female	13	3.7692	.66913	.18558

Table 1B: Independent samples test: Gender vs. level of participation in decision making and job satisfactions

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Participation in decision making	Equal variances assumed	.000	.998	-1.618	63	.111	-.44383	.27431	-.99200	.10433
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.694	30.709	.100**	-.44383	.26206	-.97851	.09085
Level of job satisfaction	Equal variances assumed	.105	.747	-2.057	58	.044*	-.36170	.17583	-.71366	-.00975
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.800	16.385	.090**	-.36170	.20100	-.78699	.06359

*.Significant at .05

**Significant at .10

Table 2A: Descriptive_ Educational level vs. participation in DM and job satisfaction and satisfaction from participation in DM

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Participation in decision making	Postgraduate	3	3.0000	.57735	.33333	1.5658	4.4342	2.67	3.67
	Undergraduate	40	2.9792	.98072	.15506	2.6655	3.2928	1.00	5.00
	A/'O' level	13	3.1923	.98330	.27272	2.5981	3.7865	1.00	3.83
	SHS	9	4.1296	.54504	.18168	3.7107	4.5486	3.67	4.83
	Total	65	3.1821	.98413	.12207	2.9382	3.4259	1.00	5.00
Level of job satisfaction	Postgraduate	3	3.3590	.22206	.12821	2.8074	3.9106	3.23	3.62
	Undergraduate	38	3.4433	.57936	.09398	3.2529	3.6338	2.54	5.00
	A/'O' level	12	3.4423	.73206	.21133	2.9772	3.9074	2.00	4.31
	SHS	7	3.8462	.14730	.05567	3.7099	3.9824	3.69	4.00
	Total	60	3.4859	.57625	.07439	3.3370	3.6348	2.00	5.00

Table 2B: ANOVA_ Educational level vs. participation in DM and job satisfaction and satisfaction from participation in DM

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Participation in decision making	Between Groups	9.828	3	3.276	3.832	.014
	Within Groups	52.156	61	.855		
	Total	61.985	64			
Level of job satisfaction	Between Groups	1.049	3	.350	1.055	.375
	Within Groups	18.543	56	.331		
	Total	19.592	59			

Table 3A: Group descriptive_ Years of service vs. participation in DM and job satisfaction and satisfaction from participation in DM

	Years of service	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Participation in decision making	10 or less	55	3.1667	.89810	.12110
	Above 10	10	3.2667	1.42768	.45147
Level of job satisfaction	10 or less	50	3.5046	.54040	.07642
	Above 10	10	3.3923	.75843	.23984

Table 3B: Independent Samples Test_ Years of service vs. participation in DM and job satisfaction and satisfaction from participation in DM

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Participation in decision making	Equal variances assumed	3.489	.066	-.293	63	.770	-.10000	.34076	-.78096	.58096
	Equal variances not assumed			-.214	10.333	.835	-.10000	.46743	-1.13697	.93697
Level of job satisfaction	Equal variances assumed	1.215	.275	.559	58	.578	.11231	.20079	-.28962	.51423
	Equal variances not assumed			.446	10.900	.664	.11231	.25172	-.44234	.66696

Table 4A: Group statistics_ level of mgt. vs. participation in DM and job satisfaction and satisfaction from participation in DM

	Position	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Participation in decision making	Managerial level	10	3.7333	.42455	.13426
	Operational level	55	3.0818	1.02533	.13826
Level of job satisfaction	Managerial level	9	3.7949	.35668	.11889
	Operational level	51	3.4314	.59267	.08299

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Table 4B: Independent test_ level of mgt. vs. participation in DM and job satisfaction and satisfaction from participation in DM

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Participation in decision making	Equal variances assumed	4.410	.040	1.969	63	.053	.65152	.33097	-.00987	1.31290
	Equal variances not assumed			3.381	32.179	.002	.65152	.19272	.25905	1.04398
Level of job satisfaction	Equal variances assumed	1.660	.203	1.776	58	.081	.36350	.20464	-.04613	.77313
	Equal variances not assumed			2.507	17.048	.023	.36350	.14499	.05766	.66934

Section C: Constituents of Job Satisfaction

The questions below are to solicit information on what constitutes job satisfaction among the employees in the organization. You are to express your opinion on how you agree or disagree to items by ticking.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Work itself					
1. My employers provide me with interesting tasks and the chance to be responsible and answerable for results.					
2. My supervisor allows me to use some judgment and creativity in carrying out my work.					
3. I am allowed to apply the things I learn on my job.					
Advancement and Growth					
4. My firm provides me with training opportunities for learning and personal growth.					
5. Promotion in my firm is done fairly, and purely based on abilities and experience.					
6. I am satisfied with the chances of getting promoted to a better position.					
Organizational factors/hygiene factors					
7. My firm's policy and administration procedures agree with my values					
8. The relationship between my supervisor and I is pleasant and professional.					
9. I find my job quiet safe for the near future.					
10. My working conditions and materials are suitable.					
11. There exist friendly and professional relationships among my colleagues.					
Remuneration					
12. Employees have some financial stake options such as profit sharing.					
13. I am satisfied with my present salary					

Section D: Satisfaction derived from participating in decision making

The questions below are to solicit information on the satisfaction employees derive from participating in decision making in this organization. You are to express your opinion on how you agree or disagree to items by ticking

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1. My organization's acceptance of my contribution to decision making makes me happy.					
2. My participation in management decision making process has led to a change in work attitude					
3. The decision making process in my organization gives me a sense of accomplishment					
4. Taking part in my organization's decision making gives me the opportunity to learn and grow personally					
5. Taking part in work committee, made up of employees and management has enhanced my work relationship in the firm.					
6. Financial stake option in my organization such as profit sharing makes me more enthused to participate in decision making.					

