Employee Involvement and its Impact on job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment

(Evidence from the 2011 Workplace Employment Relations study)

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Abstract

The main goal of this research is to explore the impact of different types of employee involvement (EI) on job satisfaction and organisational commitment to give a clearer method for HR practitioners to identify the most suitable type of EI. This study took place through a quantitative methodology using data from the Workplace Employment Relations study in 2011, which is known as the largest dataset in the UK that explored employees’ relations by surveying a total of 21,981 employees in 2,680 workplaces. The findings of the statistical analyses show a strong correlation between both kinds of direct employee involvement (EI-autonomy and EI-decision) with job satisfaction and organisational commitment. However, involvement through influencing decision making was found to have a slightly stronger correlation with both satisfaction and commitment than involvement through giving employees autonomy over their work. In addition, age, gender and employee salary were found to have no influence on the relationship between the three constructs. Based on the findings of the data analysis, this research recommends considering the use of both methods of employee involvement in organisations in various situations, regardless of an employee’s age, gender or salary.

Keywords: Employee involvement; job satisfaction; organisational commitment

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1. Introduction

Market globalisation has increased the rivalry between companies worldwide to acquire better market share. This has led to companies considering better policies and practices to reinforce organisational performance, in turn achieving competitive advantage. Innovation is a key success factor for organisations in different sectors. Nowadays, the changing values of employees and the use of advanced technology have impacted the workplace and the need for human skills [30]. The participation in decision making, employee work autonomy and the sharing of new information and ideas results in an overall innovative environment within the organisation [52].

In the last two decades, organisations have been incorporating the view of involving employees directly in decisions making rather than indirectly through trade unions. In modern organisations, there is a trend of replacing workplace bureaucracy with democracy by focusing on employees’ participation and appreciating the value of human capital [37]. Numerous studies show that the appreciation of workers’ opinions leads to better organisational performance [7, 8, 45, 21]. The new managerial style is focusing on releasing employees’ skills and potential through involving them in influencing the organisations decisions on different levels in order to enhance workplace outcomes.

It is believed that three initiatives that have supported employee participation in the UK are the European Company Statute (ECS), the European Works Council Directive (EWCD) and the Information & Consultation of Employees Directive (ICE) [10]. According to [19], ICE and EWC are considering issues regarding the lower managerial level of worker representation, while ECS is focused more on higher level of workers representation. The new trend of human resources management (HRM) in the UK is more focused on the direct participation of employees in the workplace, ranging from information sharing to decision making. However, there is a concern that under this type of managerial style employees’ voices might be reduced and their representation will be limited in general. The author [50] found that both direct participation and unions can work collaboratively to improve productivity, since direct participation is mostly in areas that are not covered by unions.

The implementation of the ICE in the UK in 2004 has indeed stimulated the direct participation of employees in organisations and forced employers to consult with and keep their employees informed [17]. However, further research is required to analyse the real impact of EI in the workplace. The aim of this research is to investigate the impact of different types of EI on job satisfaction and organisational performance in the UK.

2. Literature review

2.1 Employee involvement

The word ‘involve’ is defined as the cause to participate in an activity or situation [30]. Employee involvement (EI) can be defined as the actual participation of an employee in the decision making process in an organisation [1]. Some authors distinguish between employee involvement and job involvement. They have defined job involvement as the degree to which a person identified the importance of his job to his self-image [20&11]. From this definition, it can be inferred that job involvement focuses on the attachment employees have to their jobs. However, EI refers to the extent to which employees are informed and whether or not they can influence
new decisions [23]. The concept of EI has three main elements: influence, interaction and sharing information
with employees. In addition, having autonomy over work is also considered as EI, since it gives an employee the
ability to influence how he does his work, the pace of his work, the order in which he carries out tasks and when
he conducts his work [43].

Moreover, the term employee participation has been used by many authors to indicate EI, since it refers to the
same concept. For example, employees’ participation in trade unions through representatives is one type of
employee participation which is also an EI approach [5, 26]. Furthermore, some authors combine both
involvement and participation to indicate EI, and the term ‘employee involvement and participation’ (EIP) is
used when referring to the sharing of information in the organisation and participation in the decision making
[43 & 49]. Despite the differences between authors regarding employee involvement terminology, the majority
agree that sharing information and participation in the decision making process are the core of EI [43, 29]. The
concept of EI in this paper covers employee participation in the decision making process and the employee work
autonomy.

2.2 EI and gender

Research shows that ‘greater participation of women lead(s) to better outcomes when innovation and complex
problem-solving are required’ [52: 1063]. However, gender discrimination has been used, to the advantage of
men, especially in selection and promotion. In general, the HR profession is considered a feminine job and
women are recruited more for HR jobs than men, especially in lower level managerial jobs [31]. According to
author [48] there are two main types of sex stereotyping in work. The first type is called descriptive, which
occurs when relying on the characteristics of a certain job that is believed to be occupied by only a male or a
female. The second type is the prescriptive stereotyping, which occurs when it is believed that an employee
succeeded or behaved in the opposite gender’s areas of specialty. This stereotyping has in fact been in the
female’s favour in terms of EI. When the concept of EI has expanded in the HR arena, females were believed to
have the suitable characteristics to apply EI rather than men, due to their positive attitudes towards more
consultations and focusing on relationships [6]. Furthermore, women mostly occupy lower level managerial
jobs, making them experience more EI since senior managers mostly have larger gaps in dealing with lower
level employees. However, earlier studies on managerial attitudes in terms of gender have found that there are
no huge differences between male and female managers in terms of performing tasks and applying different
skills [13].

The authors [31] surveyed 902 managers in large US organisations to examine the presence of EI based on
gender. Their findings show that in organisations that support EI, female managers are more represented in low
level managerial jobs than males. More precisely they found that men have double the chances of being in top
management than women. This proves the claim that top managerial jobs are considered to be masculine jobs as
well as the claim of sex stereotyping in managerial jobs. Their study implies that women are more influenced by
EI as well as being better able to implement EI. However, this is might have occurred due to their dominant
presence in lower level management. Thus the first hypothesis for this study is:
Hypothesis 1:

\[ H_{10}: \text{There is no gender difference in the influence of EI on job satisfaction and commitment} \]

\[ H_{11}: \text{There is gender difference in the influence of EI on job satisfaction and commitment} \]

2.3 EI in the UK

The execution of the Information & Consultation of Employees Directive (ICE) in 2004 was a turning point for EI in the UK [10]. The ICE has given many rights to employees in terms of being more informed and participating in decision making. This indeed urged HRM practices in the UK to become more focused on the direct participation of employees, ranging from information sharing to decision making, as an addition to the involvement through work autonomy [19].

However, the authors in [18] conducted longitudinal case studies on 25 British organisations particularly to investigate the effects of ICE regulations on EI. His study is based on three waves, starting from 2006 by 13 organisations, to the second wave in 2007; the final wave included four organisations in 2009. He found that the ICE regulations have no significant impact on EI in all 25 organisations. Therefore, he argues that ICE will not be simultaneously applied by management and employers are the ones who determine what regulations can be applied and ignored. He recommended that employee representatives pressure management to allow them more involvement. Without this employee action, their privileges would be limited, unless management adopts these regulations over time, which is unlikely [18]. Interestingly, the authors in [17] has predicted these results earlier by stating ‘while the regulations can be expected to prompt the voluntary introduction or reform of organisation-specific information and consultation agreements, the extent to which this will happen is likely to depend on employers’ assessment of employee demand and the risk of the regulations’ negotiating procedure being successfully invoked’ [17:125-126].

The author in [12] conducted a detailed investigation into the changes in EI in the UK. He compared WERS work in 2004 to WERS work in 2011 [16] to see what changes had occurred as a result of the implementation of the ICE regulations, developing an index containing all the items that measure EI. He found that EI had considerably improved by 2011, as shown in Figure 1. Overall, workers who believed they were involved increased by 4%. The literature shows evidence of strong relationships between EI, job satisfaction and organisational commitment, as will be discussed later in this chapter.

The authors in [50] conducted a study on twenty five British companies operating across Europe to investigate direct and indirect EI. They divided EI into four levels based on the involvement depth: not informed, informed, consulted and participated in decision making. In their analysis, they used three statistical methods in the following sequence. Firstly, exploratory factor analysis was used to determine the level of involvement and how it is connected to specific involvement channels. Secondly, cluster analysis based on the dimensions of the exploratory factor analysis was used to determine a common approach of EI being used frequently. Finally, correlation analysis defined the link between different channels of EI used for specific involvement issues and
situations. They found that both direct participation and unions can work collaboratively to improve productivity, since direct participation is mostly in areas that are not covered by unions’ roles.

2.4 Job Satisfaction

Different methods are used to increase job satisfaction within organisations. Interestingly, EI is found to be among the top practices that have positive effects on employee satisfaction. By proving this relationship, it is expected to urge organisations to adopt EI in their managerial practices in order to achieve better job satisfaction for their employees [15].

Job satisfaction is believed to be positively associated with many positive outcomes such as loyalty and organisational commitment. Much research has been conducted to identify what practices and activities could be used by the management to increase job satisfaction for employees [9,53]. The study by the authors in [15] was conducted on 198 employees in the US in order to measure the impact of various HR practices on employees’ behaviours within organisations. They found that promotional opportunities, performance management processes, participation and involvement in decision making are the HR practices that give employees the greatest feelings of being more valued and appreciated, which results in increasing satisfaction, productivity and delivering a better quality of work.

On other hand, it is argued that this relationship is biased and inconsistent across different cultures since most studies on the relationship between EI and job satisfaction are conducted in Western countries, especially the UK and the US. The author in [39] argued that what determines job satisfaction in a certain culture may not be the same determinant of satisfaction in a different culture. His argument states that EI does not necessarily influence job satisfaction in certain cultures, and there are different cultural factors that affect employee satisfaction. However, many empirical studies across different cultures contradict Spector’s claim. The study by the authors in [28] on a sample of 350 employees in New Zealand and Ireland proved a strong positive correlation between the two constructs. Similarly, the authors in [33] conducted an empirical study on 268
employees and found that the more the employees participated in the decision making process the more they were satisfied. Studies show that the more employees are involved and have decision influencing power, the more they are satisfied and committed to work. However, there is a lack of research on both practices that affect EI and the role HRM plays in this relationship [15,153]. Recently, the authors in [44] conducted their study on the police service in Slovakia to identify both internal and external factors affecting job satisfaction. They found that the strongest factors influencing job satisfaction are gender, length of service, working conditions, job location, position, trust in managers and pay level.

Another study the author in [34] proved this relationship between the two constructs by examining 146 American health service administration centres. Their results show strong positive correlations between EI and job satisfaction. This relationship directly enhances the overall organisational productivity. In addition, empirical evidence from the British NHS has also found similar results. This leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2:

\begin{align*}
H_{20}: & \text{ Both kinds of direct EI are not positively associated with job satisfaction} \\
H_{21}: & \text{ Both kinds of direct EI are positively associated with job satisfaction}
\end{align*}

2.5 Organisational commitment

It is believed that through efficient application of either direct or indirect EI, organisational commitment can be enhanced significantly, which may lead to achieving better organisational performance [54]. However, the investigation on the impact of EI on organisational performance is not within the scope of this research.

The clear understanding of organisational commitment and its implications will provide better justifications of employees’ behaviours at work. Of course, negative attitudes such as high absenteeism and low productivity are considered as consequences of weak work commitment, which is not favourable to any organisation. However, in order to avoid these attitudes, the causes of such behaviours should be identified and managed properly. EI is considered to be one of the effective methods of stimulating high organisational commitment [4]. The positive impact of EI on organisational commitment has been investigated by much empirical research [14, 25, 36, 43]. These studies showed that if there is little or no participation of employees in the decision making process; there will be less employee commitment to their work [2].

The authors in [14] did not use the WERS dataset; rather they used the same indicator variable to measure EI on their research sample. They conducted the study in the UK on 5 companies and 3 public sector organisations that had the same organisational change activity. They were able to use a sample of 2,291 employees from all of the 8 organisations that participated in the study. Using multiple regression analysis, the findings of the study confirm previous studies that more EI increases organisational commitment with a coefficient value of $\beta = .404$. The use of EI is found to be more effective to enhance commitment when used on low-level employees. They also recommend that a good relationship between line managers and employees through regular consultations in decision making further enhances commitment and gives the employees the feeling of being appreciated.
Frandale and his colleagues study confirms the validity of the social exchange theory [3] that the more the employees are receiving benefits (employees are being consulted and having their views appreciated), the more they feel commitment to pay back to the organisation.

In addition, organisational commitment was found to act as a mediator between EI and organisational performance. The authors in [30] have reviewed the literature about the relationship between EI and organisational performance and they interestingly found that organisational commitment is a mediator between the 2 constructs. They introduced other elements of employee involvement besides the 2 elements mentioned in the [35] study. The 4 elements are power, information, skills and rewards. However, their argument is based on previous literature and has not been applied empirically. It can be thus hypothesize that:

**Hypothesis 3:**

\[ H_3_0: \text{Both kinds of direct EI are not positively associated with organisational commitment} \]

\[ H_3_1: \text{Both kinds of direct EI are positively associated with organisational commitment} \]

### 3. Data and methods

Henceforth, this research aims to generalise some of the HR and managerial practices; a credible data set is crucial to obtain accurate results. This research is based on secondary data adopted from the 2011 WERS, which is known as the largest dataset in the UK that explored employees’ relations by surveying a total of 21,981 employees in 2,680 workplaces.

The National Centre for Social Research (NatCen) has conducted 6 main studies since the early 70s and the study used in this research is the latest and most comprehensive carried out by NatCen. The study was conducted from 28th January 2011 to 30th August 2011. Furthermore, this study was sponsored by respected and specialised organisations from both public and private sectors namely, the UK Commission for Employment and Skills (UKCES), the Advisory Conciliation and Arbitration Service (Acas), National Institute for Economic and Social Research (NIESR) and the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD).

The official register of British employers (Inter-Departmental Business Register IDBR) was used to select British employers. Two types of samples were used in the study, cross section cases and panel cases. Cross section cases were randomly selected from the IDBR list excluding previously participating workplaces; whereas, panel cases were determined by using workplaces that had participated in the previous WERS study in 2004 to identify new changes in employment relations.

The secondary data adopted from the WERS (2011) study [16] were analysed using SPSS software. Initial screening was conducted to accurately specify those employees who had complete data for items related to EI, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment. Employees whom did not provide answers to questions related to these constructs were removed from the sample. To check that all measurements were reliable, Cronbach's alpha, the most common measure of reliability for Likert scale questions, was used. A score above 0.7 is normally considered an acceptable value for Cronbach's alpha [41]. In addition, the bivariate correlation was
used to measure the strength of the relationship between EI and job satisfaction, as well as between EI and organisational commitment. The value of the correlation ranged from 0 (no correlation) to 1 (perfect correlation), and values closer to one indicated a stronger relationship between the two variables. However, the bivariate correlation is only able to measure the relationship between two variables [41]. Therefore, a regression analysis was used to measure the relationship between all the main variables, EI, job satisfaction and organisational commitment as they related to the three control variables (age, gender and salary).

4. Results

Two types of direct EI were of primary interest. The first was employee involvement as estimated by the level of autonomy that influenced their specific jobs (EI-autonomy). The other type was employee involvement as estimated by employee perception about their organisation, in regards to being kept informed concerning organisational matters, and their ability to influence final decisions (EI-decisions).

4.1 Reliability analysis

All items for all three variables were tested for reliability using Cronbach's alpha. Figure 4 shows the results of the tests of EI-autonomy, EI-decision, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. In all of the four tests the value of Cronbach's alpha is higher than 0.7. The highest score is for EI-autonomy ($\alpha = .89$), and the lowest score for organisational commitment ($\alpha = .76$). From these results it can be seen that all items used to measure both kinds of EI, job satisfaction and organisational commitment are reliable measures, since a high level of internal consistency is evident. Thus, all these variables can be used to test for correlations and regression analysis.
Table 1 presents the change in the value of alpha if the item is deleted. The column on the right shows the value of Cronbach's alpha if the item is deleted. None of the items, if deleted, increased the overall Cronbach's alpha. Therefore, all items were considered in the statistical analysis.

4.2 Data Screening and Subscale Scoring

The WERS dataset contains information on 21,981 employees. However, not all of the employees responded to the questionnaire items of interest to this study. Thus, initial screening reduced the file to those employees who had complete data on the items dealing with EI, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. This resulted in a file containing 17,269 employees that completed all the items of primary interest.

Four subscale scores were obtained as follows:

- Employee Involvement- autonomy (5 items)
- Employee Involvement- decision (8 items)
- Job Satisfaction (8 items)
- Employee Organisational Commitment (4 items)

As described in Chapter 3 the items were responded to on a 5-point Likert scale where 1 = Strongly agree, 2 = Agree, 3 = Neither agree nor disagree, 4 = Disagree, and 5 = Strongly disagree. Employee subscale scores were obtained by summing their responses on each subscale for a total subscale score. Further, because there were a different number of items in the subscales, the total subscale score was divided by the number of items in the scale. This allowed for comparing the scores across the scales.
The screening and scoring resulted in the data file that was used for the analyses. This file contained the item-by-item responses to each of the WERS questionnaire items with the addition of the four subscale scores used for the correlation and regression analyses provided in a later in this chapter.

### 4.3 Demographics

The WERS survey collected a large number of employee personal demographics ranging from religion to sexual orientation and racial/ethnic origin. This study utilized three of the demographics – gender, age, and annual salary in the regression analyses and they are provided in Table 2. It may be seen that the percentage of males and females was similar with there being approximately 10% more males than females (54.8% to 44.9% respectively). Ages ranged from 16 through 65 and older with the highest percentages in the 30 – 59 age ranges. There was a wide range of annual salaries from less than £3000 pounds to over £54,000 with the greatest numbers being in the £8000 to £36,000 range. As also may be seen there were employees that did not provide answers to the questions. However, the sample size of over 17,000 was so large that missing responses had little effect on the subsequent analyses where the three demographics were used as control variables in the regression analyses. The numbers associated with each of the variables (Gender 0-1, Age 1- 7, and Salary 1-14) will be referred to in the analysis section where the descriptive statistics are presented.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
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</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Male</td>
<td>7730</td>
<td>44.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Female</td>
<td>9469</td>
<td>54.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not provided</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>0.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Age</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. 16 - 21</td>
<td>630</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. 22 - 29</td>
<td>2502</td>
<td>14.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. 30 - 39</td>
<td>3748</td>
<td>21.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. 40 - 49</td>
<td>4061</td>
<td>23.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. 50 – 59</td>
<td>4133</td>
<td>23.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. 60 – 64</td>
<td>953</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. 65 and above</td>
<td>263</td>
<td>1.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Not provided</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>0.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Salary in pounds per year</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. £3,120 or less</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. £3,121- £5,200</td>
<td>467</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. £5,201 - £7,600</td>
<td>433</td>
<td>2.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. £7,601 - £8,890</td>
<td>659</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
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<td>5. £8,891 - £11,440</td>
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<td>6.1</td>
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<td>6. £11,441- £13,520</td>
<td>1088</td>
<td>6.3</td>
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<td>7. £13,521 - £16,120</td>
<td>1803</td>
<td>10.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. £16,120 - £19,240</td>
<td>1733</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. £19,241 - £22,360</td>
<td>1047</td>
<td>11.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. £22,361 - £27,040</td>
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<td>11.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>11. £27,041 - £33,800</td>
<td>1079</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. £33,801 - £46,120</td>
<td>1429</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. £46,121 - £54,040</td>
<td>970</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
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<td>14. £54,041 - £54,661</td>
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<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not provided</td>
<td>683</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. Totals of percentages are not 100 because of rounding.*

### 4.4 Bivariate correlations and regression analyses

The analyses were guided by an overall research question as stated below.

**What is the relationship between EI and employee job satisfaction and employee organisational commitment when employee gender, age, and salary are taken into account?**
As discussed earlier direct EI was defined as two types. One type was EI autonomy and the second type was EI decision. Hierarchical multiple regression was used to analyse the data [41]. Regression is used to determine the correlation between an independent variable (IV) and a dependent variable (DV). Multiple regressions allows for multiple IVs. For these data, EI autonomy and EI decision were the primary IVs of interest in respect to the relationship with satisfaction and commitment. Gender, age, and salary were also designated as IVs in order to control for their possible influence in the overall correlation. Thus, there were five IVs. Job satisfaction and organisational commitment were the DVs. Regression is limited to one DV per analysis. Thus, two multiple regression analyses were conducted.

Table 3 provides the descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations for the DVs and IVs. The means and standard deviations are shown in the first two columns. As described in the section above on scoring, the means and standard deviations for satisfaction are based on the 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (Strongly disagree). Thus, the means could have ranged from 1 to 5. The questionnaire items were worded such that the lower the score the more favourable was the employee’s perception. Observation of the means in the table indicate that the employees as a group were quite favourable in respect to job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and their autonomy involvement in their organisations in that the means were closer to the agree/strongly agree end of the scale. The mean for decision involvement (M = 2.75, SD = .96) was closer to neither agreeing or disagreeing with being involved in decisions making in their organisations. As indicated in the note under the table the subscale reliabilities (Cronbach’s alpha) are shown in the diagonal. A reliability of approximately .70 or greater is generally recognised as being adequate to combine items into total scale scores [41]. The reliabilities ranged from .76 to .89 and thus considered as quite adequate. Gender, age, and salary were single item questions and thus not appropriate for reliability analysis.

The control IVs of gender, age, and salary were collected by the WERS questionnaire as categorical variables as shown in the demographics table above. Regression assumes that the variables are continuous with ratio or equal intervals. Because the categories were continuous with equal intervals from low to high for age (7 levels, coded from 1-7) and salary (14 levels, coded from 1-14) they met the regression assumption, as did gender where males were coded as ‘0’ and females as ‘1’. Thus, the gender mean of 1.55 indicates a higher ‘score’ for females which corresponds to the higher percentage of females in Table 1. The mean age (M = 5.36, SD = 1.16) indicates that the employees, on average, were approximately 50 - 59 and the SD of 1.16 indicates that the majority of employees were between the ages of 40 and 64 years of age. These values correspond to 4, 5, and 6 levels in Table1 for age. The average salary (M = 8.83, SD = 3.16) shows that the employees, on average, earned approximately £19,241 to £22,360 per year with the majority earning £11,441 to £36,120 per year based on the SD of 3.16.

The correlations of most interest are shown in the first two rows of Table 3. These are the bivariate correlations between the DVs (Satisfaction and Commitment) with each of the IVs. In observing the first row for satisfaction the highest correlation was between satisfaction and EI decision (r = .64). The correlation between satisfaction and EI autonomy was also high (r = .58). Although less in magnitude, the correlations between decision and autonomy EI followed the same pattern (r = .52, r = .44 respectively). As can be seen, the correlations between the three control variables were small and near zero for both satisfaction and commitment.
All of the correlations are highly statistically significant (p < .001). However, statistical significance depends almost entirely on sample size. When the size is large, as in this study, even near zero correlations will be statistically significant and thus meaningless. In addition, regardless of sample size, statistical significance provides no information about the importance of a correlation.

Effect size is an indicator of the importance of a relationship and is independent of both sample size as well as statistical significance. The correlation coefficient can be interpreted as an effect size. A commonly used rule of thumb for interpreting correlation coefficients as effect size is as follows:

- Small effect size .10
- Medium effect size .30
- Large effect size .50

In the context of effect size, using the above values, the correlations between job satisfaction and EI-decision (r = .64) as well as EI-autonomy (r = .58) can be considered as large effect sizes and indicate important relationships. This would be the case even if they were not statistically significant. Likewise for the correlations between organisational commitment and EI-decision (r = .52) and EI-autonomy (r = .44). Conversely, the correlations for both satisfaction and commitment with gender, age, and salary were statistically significant, but small, and of little practical importance.

Table 3: Means, Standard Deviations, and Bivariate Correlations for Employee Job Satisfaction and EI, Gender, Age, and Salary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Satisfaction</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Commitment</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>.52</td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td>-.03</td>
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<tr>
<td>IVs</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. EI-autonomy</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>-.20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. EI-decision</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Gender</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Age</td>
<td>5.36</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Salary</td>
<td>8.83</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Coefficient Cronbach’s alphas are in parentheses along the diagonal. All correlations are significant at p < .001

Tables 4 and 5 provide the results of the hierarchical multiple regression analyses. This procedure enters the variables in a series of steps. The first step shows the results for the first variable entered. The next step adds the second variable. This continues until all the variables have been entered. For these analyses there were five IVs thus five steps. The first column shows the standardised beta weights (β). Because the weight is standardised the weights can be compared directly. The greater a weight is relative to the other weights the more important it is as a predictor of the DV. A t ratio is associated with each beta weight and its statistical significance is shown (p). The multiple correlation (R) indicates the relationship with the DV. The squared correlation (R2) indicates the shared variance with the DV. The last column is an indicator of effect size (f2).
Table 4 shows the analysis for employee job satisfaction. EI-autonomy was entered as the first step. Its correlation with satisfaction ($R = .58$) is the same as the bivariate $r$ shown in Table 3 because the first step is a single variable. Step 2 adds EI-decision to the model. When the two variables are combined the multiple correlations increase substantially from $.58$ to $.72$ and $R^2$ increases from $.33$ to $.51$. In addition, it may be seen that the beta weight for EI-decision is greater than that for EI-autonomy. This would be expected because the EI-decision bivariate correlation with satisfaction was greater than the EI-autonomy correlation with satisfaction. Steps 3, 4, and 5 add the three control variables to the model. As can be seen they add nothing to the multiple correlation and their beta weights are near zero. They are statistically significant ($p = .001$) only because of the large sample size.

The effect size ($f^2$) is an indicator of the magnitude of importance of the multiple correlations and interpreted as follows:

- Small effect size .02
- Medium effect size .15
- Large effect size .35

Given the above, when autonomy and decision EI are combined the multiple correlation of $.72$ shows a very large effect size ($f^2 = .73$) and suggests that the relationship is an important one. Further, observation of the beta weights autonomy that decision EI contributes the most to the effect size ($\beta = .48$ versus $\beta = .36$). The gender, age, and salary variables, although statistically significant, had negligible contribution to the multiple correlations or effect sizes.

### Table 4: Hierarchical Regression Summary for Predicting Employee Job Satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>Predictors</th>
<th>$\beta$</th>
<th>$t$</th>
<th>$p$</th>
<th>$R$</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>$f^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EI-autonomy</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>93.14</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>.33</td>
<td>.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EI-decision</td>
<td>.36</td>
<td>59.85</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EI-autonomy</td>
<td>.36</td>
<td>59.96</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EI-decision</td>
<td>.47</td>
<td>78.80</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 3</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-3.37</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EI-autonomy</td>
<td>.36</td>
<td>59.43</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 4</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EI-decision</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>78.90</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-3.51</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-3.70</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EI-autonomy</td>
<td>.36</td>
<td>57.93</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EI-decision</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>78.42</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-3.20</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>-3.73</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 6</td>
<td></td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.52</td>
<td>.610</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 provides the multiple regression summary for employee organisational commitment. As may be seen the results are similar to the job satisfaction analysis. The multiple correlation, although large ($R = .57$), was noticeably less than that for job satisfaction as was the effect size ($f^2 = .47$). However, the effect size can be considered as large and important based on the criteria for evaluating effect sizes.
For all hypotheses we reject the null hypotheses except for hypothesis 1. Since gender has no influence on any relationships. The WERS questionnaire data were utilized to determine employee involvement with organisations. Both autonomy and decision involvement was positively correlated with job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The correlations can be considered large in magnitude based on their effect sizes. The correlations of gender, age, and salary were also statistically significant with job satisfaction and organisational commitment although small in magnitude. The next chapter further discusses these findings.

Table 5: Hierarchical Regression Summary for Predicting Employee Organisational Commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>Predictors</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>f²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Step 1</td>
<td>EI-autonomy</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>65.14</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 2</td>
<td>EI-autonomy</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>36.95</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td>.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 3</td>
<td>EI-autonomy</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>56.03</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 4</td>
<td>EI-autonomy</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>36.72</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td>.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 5</td>
<td>EI-autonomy</td>
<td>.39</td>
<td>55.32</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td>.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EI-decision</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>-5.33</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td>.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Salary</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>-7.53</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td>.47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Discussion

Hypothesis 1:

H1₀: There is no gender difference in the influence of EI on job satisfaction and commitment.

The results showed no effect at all of age, gender or salary on the relationship between either EI-autonomy or EI-decision and either job satisfaction or organisational commitment. Thus we fail to reject the null hypothesis. Although demographic variables such as age and salary are considered sensitive to human behaviours, prior research does not show much effect of these two on the relationship between EI and either job satisfaction or organisational commitment. The authors in [44] argue that gender and salary are among the strongest factors influencing job satisfaction. However, our study shows no such influence from either factor on any of the relationships between job satisfaction and EI.

The authors in [35] argue that a low level of pay can be compensated for by employee involvement in the decision-making process. According to our findings, EI-decision was found to be associated with job satisfaction, including pay-level satisfaction, but salary has no effect on this relationship even though pay-level satisfaction is one of the eight items used in this research to measure total job satisfaction. This study adds two main elements to the findings in [35]. Firstly, the more employees are involved, the more they are satisfied,
including with salaries. Secondly, although EI-decision is correlated with satisfaction, as the authors in [35] found, EI-autonomy has a similar level of correlation with satisfaction.

Moreover, the literature shows an effect of gender on EI or vice versa. Both studies in [6,31] argue that females practice EI better than males because they already have the characteristics needed for positive attitudes toward more involvement. According to our results, however, females are not more influenced by direct EI than males. This does not contradict the argument in [6,31]; rather, it proves that there is no gender bias when employees are more involved. Our findings are supported by empirical research that has found no large difference between male and female in terms of performing tasks and applying different skills [13].

**Hypothesis 2:**

\[ H_{21} \]: Both kinds of direct EI are positively associated with job satisfaction.

**Hypothesis 3:**

\[ H_{31} \]: Both kinds of direct EI are positively associated with organisational commitment.

For both hypotheses 2 and 3, we accept the alternative hypotheses. The positive relationship between EI and job satisfaction is supported by many studies that show similar results [33, 53, 9, 15]. Similarly, the literature also supports the findings of a positive correlation between EI and organisational commitment [14, 25, 36, 43, 54]. The distinction of this study is that it proves that both kinds of direct EI impact both job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Having proof of these relationships, especially from a dataset as large as the WERS, has great implications for management. Our findings are consistent with the social exchange theory of Blau in [3] that when a benefit is provided by the organisation to the employee (in this case EI), the employee will usually feel obliged to respond positively in return. This positive response by the employee will always reflect his sense of commitment to the organisation.

Both kinds of direct EI were tested for correlations with job satisfaction and organisational commitment using the data from WERS in 2011, and both were found to have a stronger relationship with job satisfaction than with organisational commitment. Although both kinds of involvement were found to be strongly associated with satisfaction and commitment, EI-decision was found to have the highest correlation. However, this higher correlation does not imply that it is the sole kind of involvement that organisations should encourage to satisfy employees and make them more committed; both kinds of involvement are needed, since they are found to be correlated. The literature also shows that direct involvement through participation in decision making and information sharing has a stronger influence on employees’ behaviours than does work autonomy [14, 15, 53].

EI-autonomy was found to have a positive impact on satisfaction and commitment when applied through different practices such as giving employees the authority to influence how they do the work and the time they start and finish their work. All these actions were found to enhance satisfaction and commitment. In addition, EI-decision also was found to have more influence on satisfaction and commitment when employees were kept informed and allowed to influence final decisions.
6. Conclusion

This study has identified two kinds of direct involvement (EI-autonomy and EI-decision), both of which are associated with job satisfaction and organisational commitment. It therefore has clear significance for proving a positive relationship between EI and both job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The outcome of this research supports the argument for more involvement of employees in decision making and work autonomy. No negative effect of EI was found to exist in either prior research or this study.

Direct EI can be practiced through giving employees autonomy in their work and authority to influence final decisions. EI-autonomy can be introduced by managers through giving employees the authority to influence how they do the work, the order in which they carry out tasks, the time they start and finish their work and the pace at which they work. In addition, EI-decision can be applied by keeping employees informed from the beginning about changes in staffing, financial matters and new decisions, and also by seeking their views, responding to suggestions and—most importantly—allowing them to influence final decisions.

6.1 Limitations and further research

Even though it is an advantage to use a large sample for reliable results, WERS (2011) was conducted three years ago. It does not include changes in EI, job satisfaction and organisational commitment from 2011 to date. More recent data would provide more up-to-date results.

Moreover, the research aimed at investigating the influence of direct EI due to the emphasis it was given by the implementation of the ICE regulations in 2004. Indirect EI is also worth investigating to bring a broader overview of EI in workplaces and how it can affect job satisfaction and organisational commitment. As mentioned in the literature review, there are different levels, forms and scopes that EI can take, and all of them require interviews and questionnaires designed to measure them. The measurement of both kinds of direct EI was based on only 13 items in the questionnaires, which limits the exploration of different approaches to EI in workplaces.

The research used a quantitative approach only, whereas a combination of a quantitative and a qualitative approach would give more depth to an investigation of direct and indirect EI and how they are applied by managers and perceived by employees.

References


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Appendix

Questionnaire

Workplace Employment Relations Study 2011
Carried out for the Department for Business, Innovation and Skills*

SURVEY OF EMPLOYEES

Completing this questionnaire

This is a national survey of people at work. We are interested in your views about your job and your workplace.

You can also complete the questionnaire online. Please see the accompanying letter for information on how to do this.

Everything that you say in this questionnaire will remain confidential.

The questionnaire should take no more than 15 minutes to fill in.

Please use a blue or black pen to complete the questionnaire, and try to answer every question.

Please try to return the completed questionnaire within the next two weeks.

Thank you for your help.

*In collaboration with Acas, UK Commission for Employment and Skills, the Economic and Social Research Council, and the National Institute of Economic and Social Research.
A. ABOUT YOUR JOB

A1. How many years in total have you been working at this workplace? By workplace we mean the site or location at, or from, which you work.

- Less than 1 year
- 1 to less than 2 years
- 2 to less than 5 years
- 5 to less than 10 years
- 10 years or more

A2. Which of the phrases below best describes your job here?

Tick one box only

- Permanent
- Temporary – with no agreed end date
- Fixed period – with an agreed end date

A3. What are your basic or contractual hours each week in your job at this workplace, excluding any paid or unpaid overtime?

Contracted hours (to nearest hour) [ ] [ ]

A4. How many hours do you usually work in your job each week, including overtime or extra hours? Exclude meal breaks and time taken to travel to work.

Usual hours per week (to nearest hour) [ ] [ ]

A5. Do you agree or disagree with the following statements about your job?

Tick one box in each row

- Strongly agree
- Agree
- Neither agree nor disagree
- Disagree
- Strongly disagree
- Don't know

- My job requires that I work very hard
- I never seem to have enough time to get my work done
- I feel my job is secure in this workplace

A6. Think about how people in your kind of job progress – for example get a promotion. Do you agree or disagree that people in this workplace who want to progress usually have to put in long hours?

Tick one box only

- Strongly agree
- Agree
- Neither agree nor disagree
- Disagree
- Strongly disagree
B. ABOUT YOUR WORKPLACE

B1 In the last 12 months, have you made use of any of the following arrangements, and if not, are they available to you if you needed them?

Tick one box in each row

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I have used this arrangement</th>
<th>Available to me but I do not use</th>
<th>Not available to me</th>
<th>Don't know</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Flexi-time</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job sharing (sharing a full-time job with someone)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The chance to reduce your working hours (e.g. full-time to part-time)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working the same number of hours per week across fewer days (e.g. 37 hours in four days instead of five)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working at or from home in normal working hours</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working only during school term times</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paid leave to care for dependents in an emergency</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B2 Now thinking about both your commitments at this workplace and outside of work, do you agree or disagree with the following?

Tick one box in each row

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I often find it difficult to fulfil my commitments outside of work because of the amount of time I spend on my job</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I often find it difficult to do my job properly because of my commitments outside of work</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B3 Apart from health and safety training, how much training have you had during the last 12 months, either paid for or organised by your employer? Please only include training where you have been given time off from your normal daily work duties to undertake the training.

Tick one box only

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>None</th>
<th>Less than 1 day</th>
<th>1 to less than 2 days</th>
<th>2 to less than 5 days</th>
<th>5 to less than 10 days</th>
<th>10 days or more</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

B4 How well do the work skills you personally have match the skills you need to do your present job?

Tick one box only

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>My own skills are</th>
<th>Much higher</th>
<th>A bit higher</th>
<th>About the same</th>
<th>A bit lower</th>
<th>Much lower</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
C. YOUR VIEWS ABOUT WORKING HERE

To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements about working here?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Don't know</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Using my own initiative I carry out tasks that are not required as part of my job</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I share many of the values of my organisation</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel loyal to my organisation</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am proud to tell people who I work for</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Now thinking about the managers at this workplace, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Managers here...</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Don't know</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Can be relied upon to keep to their promises</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are sincere in attempting to understand employees’ views</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deal with employees honestly</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand about employees having to meet responsibilities outside work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encourage people to develop their skills</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treat employees fairly</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In general, how would you describe relations between managers and employees here?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quality</th>
<th>Very good</th>
<th>Good</th>
<th>Neither good nor poor</th>
<th>Poor</th>
<th>Very poor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
E7 Which, if any, of the following academic, vocational or professional qualifications have you obtained? Tick all that apply

- GCSE grades D-G/CSE grades 2-5, SCE O grades D-E/SCE Standard grades 4-7 (square box)
- GCSE grades A-C, GCE ‘O’-level passes, CSE grade 1, SCE O grades A-C, SCE Standard grades 1-3 (square box)
- 1 GCE ‘A’-level grades A-E, 1-2 SCE Higher grades A-C, AS levels (square box)
- 2 or more GCE ‘A’-levels grades A-E, 3 or more SCE Higher grades A-C (square box)
- First degree, eg BSc, BA, BEd, HND, HNC, MA at first degree level (square box)
- Higher degree, eg MSc, MA, MBA, PGCE, PhD (square box)
- Other academic qualifications (square box)
- No academic qualifications (square box)

E8 What is the full title of your main job?

- e.g. Primary School Teacher, State Registered Nurse, Car Mechanic, Benefits Assistant. If you are a civil servant or local government officer, please give your job title, not your grade or pay band.

E9 Describe what you do in your main job. Please describe as fully as possible.

E10 Do you supervise any other employees? A supervisor, foreman or line manager is responsible for overseeing the work of other employees on a day-to-day basis.

- Yes □
- No □
E11 How much do you get paid for your job here, before tax and other deductions are taken out? If your pay before tax changes from week to week because of overtime, or because you work different hours each week, think about what you earn on average.

Tick one box only

- £60 or less per week (£3,120 or less per year)
- £61 - £100 per week (£3,121 - £5,200 per year)
- £101 - £130 per week (£5,201 - £6,760 per year)
- £131 - £170 per week (£6,761 - £8,840 per year)
- £171 - £220 per week (£8,841 - £11,440 per year)
- £221 - £260 per week (£11,441 - £13,520 per year)
- £261 - £310 per week (£13,521 - £16,120 per year)
- £311 - £370 per week (£16,121 - £19,240 per year)
- £371 - £430 per week (£19,241 - £22,360 per year)
- £431 - £520 per week (£22,361 - £27,040 per year)
- £521 - £650 per week (£27,041 - £33,800 per year)
- £651 - £820 per week (£33,801 - £42,640 per year)
- £821 - £1,050 per week (£42,641 - £54,600 per year)
- £1,051 or more per week (£54,601 or more per year)

E12 Which of the following do you receive in your job here?

Tick all that apply

- Basic fixed salary/wage
- Payments based on your individual performance or output
- Payments based on the overall performance of a group or a team
- Payments based on the overall performance of your workplace or organisation (e.g. profit-sharing scheme)
- Extra payments for additional hours of work or overtime
- Contributions to a pension scheme
**E13** To which of these groups do you consider you belong?

*Tick one box only*

- White
  - British
  - Irish
  - Any other white background

- Mixed
  - White and Black Caribbean
  - White and Black African
  - White and Asian
  - Any other mixed background

- Asian or Asian British
  - Indian
  - Pakistani
  - Bangladeshi
  - Chinese
  - Any other Asian background

- Black or Black British
  - Caribbean
  - African
  - Any other Black background

- Other ethnic group
  - Arab
  - Any other ethnic group

**E14** What is your religion?

*Tick one box only*

- No religion
- Christian (including Church of England, Church of Scotland, Catholic, Protestant, and all other Christian denominations)
- Buddhist
- Hindu
- Jewish
- Muslim
- Sikh
- Another religion

**E15** Which of the following options best describes how you think of yourself?

*Tick one box only*

- Heterosexual or straight
- Gay or lesbian
- Bisexual
- Other
- Prefer not to say
Do you have any final comments you would like to make about your workplace, or about this questionnaire?

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire.

Please now return the questionnaire by using the freepost envelope provided.