

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

PUBLIC SERVICE MOTIVATION AND JOB SATISFACTION OF
EMPLOYEES OF METROPOLITAN ASSEMBLIES IN GHANA

KENNEDY ETSE DOGBEY

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BY

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DECLARATION

Candidate Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in the university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature..... Date.....

Name: Kennedy Etse Dogbey

Supervisor's Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis was supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Supervisor's Signature..... Date.....

Name: Dr. Nick Fobih

Co-supervisor's Signature..... Date.....

Name: Dr. Abraham Ansong

ABSTRACT

The aim of this study was to assess the effect of public service motivation, specifically their dimension, on job satisfaction amongst the staff of the metropolitan assemblies in Ghana. Simple random sampling technique was used to collect data from 321 staff of the six metropolitan assemblies through self-administered questionnaires. Partial least squares (PLS) structural equation modelling was used to test the hypothesis postulated. The findings revealed that all the dimensions of public service motivation i.e. attraction to public participation, compassion to public values, compassion and self-sacrifice were significant in positively affecting job satisfaction. The study also revealed that self-sacrifice is the highest contributor to public service motivation with commitment to public values being the lowest. It was therefore concluded that public service motivation is a good predictor of job satisfaction in the Metropolitan Assemblies in Ghana. It was therefore recommended that directors/managers of Metropolitan Assemblies are advised to ensure that much attention is paid to the staff regarding their levels of PSM as it significantly affects their job satisfaction in the public sector.

KEYWORDS

Public Service Motivation

Attraction to Public Participation

Commitment to Public Values

Compassion

Self-sacrifice

Job Satisfaction

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DEDICATION

To my late Dad, Mr. W.K. Dogbey

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

The fundamental question of how to motivate purposeful action and performance in public organizations remains with us. There is no shortage of theories, but there is a lack of clear evidence to inform choices among the myriad alternatives. To what extent should organizations emphasize intrinsic or extrinsic motivators? To what extent should managers focus attention on antecedents of an individual's motivation to work in the public service? What role can public service motivation play to ensure job satisfaction in public service organizations? Over the past four decades or so, job satisfaction has generated considerable interest among the research community across the globe. Although this research has sometimes produced conflicting findings, and the overall explanatory power of job satisfaction has been widely debated over that time, the drive to understand and explain job satisfaction remains, specifically in public organizations (Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001; Sousa-Pouza and Sousa-Pouza, 2000; Vroom, 2003). One such area is the link between the dimensions public service motivation (PSM) and job satisfaction.

Background to the Study

Many countries are initiating public sector reforms that seek to improve job satisfaction of government employees through measures like pay for performance and prospects of promotions. This is because public sector employee motivation is critical to the general public sector performance. Hence, public service motivation and job satisfaction has become an interesting phenomenon in

recent times. For example, current developments in research on public sector motivation and job satisfaction emphasize the important role of job satisfaction among government employees in several nations (Houston, 2005; Park & Rainey, 2008; Perry & Hondeghem, 2008). Some findings from the Belgian public sector suggest that individual public service motivation significantly correlates with organizational work outcomes (Vandenabeele, 2009).

Perry and Wise (2015) defined public service motivation (PSM) as an individual's predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organisations. They identified three theoretical bases of PSM: rational, norm-based, and affective. Rational motives are grounded in maximising individual utility; norm-based motives involve a desire to serve the public interest; affective motives are grounded in human emotion and are characterized by a desire and willingness to help others (Perry & Wise, 2015). These provide a useful framework for understanding PSM (Brewer, Selden & Facer, 2010).

Therefore, the theory suggests that individuals having a high level of PSM enter the public sector with a similar set of values. Those common "belief systems" facilitate their identification with other members of the team (Van Dick, Christ, Stellmacher, Wagner, Ahlswede, Grubba, & Tissington, 2004). In that light, it has been demonstrated that the level of PSM of public employees leads to productive organizational outcomes such as job performance, organizational citizenship behavior and job satisfaction (Moynihan and Pandey 2007; Perry 2000; Taylor 2007; cited by Taylor 2008)

In PSM research however, job satisfaction is considered to be a consequence of PSM (Perry & Wise, 2005). People who are motivated to serve the public interest have been reported to be more satisfied with their job (Taylor, 2007). In recent times, several scholars have chosen to analyze PSM in the workplace (Steijn, 2015; Taylor, 2016). They argue that rather than just focus on a worker's motivation gotten from extrinsic rewards to pursue the common good when examining its relationship with work outcomes, it is also important to look at the predisposition of the employee to fulfill the worker's need to serve the public interest.

Most efforts to explain job satisfaction have been dominated by the work motivation (Ellickson, 2010). Job satisfaction has been defined as the 'positive emotional state resulting from appraisal of one's job or job experiences' (Locke, 2005). In other words, the more a job is able to meet a worker's needs, the higher will be the worker's job satisfaction. Thus, when it comes to the relationship between PSM and job satisfaction, workers who have a strong interest to serve the public interest are likely to be satisfied with their jobs if they believe that their jobs have helped them to fulfill their public service motives as posited by the PSM theory. The few scholars who have investigated these variables have indeed found a significant relationship between PSM and job satisfaction (Steijn, 2010, 2008; Taylor, 2015).

Statement of the Problem

Motivated employees are the cornerstones of all organizations, as work motivation is one crucial determinant of individual and organizational outcomes (Schriesheim, & Carson, 2002). This holds true not only in the private sector, but also the public, and the non-profit sectors. Public administrations have been subjected to pressures coming from the public, who expect public agencies to reduce their operational costs and also users of public services, who expect high-quality services from public agencies (Castaing, 2016). However, the reward motivation of public sector employees is not representative of that of the general labour force (Shamir, 2015; Crewson, 2010; Perry, 2009). Many paradigms and theories have sought to answer the longstanding question: “what motivates employees?”, specifically in the public sector which takes charge of the provision of public goods to citizens without the motive of making profits financially (Pandey & Stazyk 2008).

Recently, the public service motivation construct has been used to determine what motivates public servants in the West (Perry, 1996, 1997, 2000, 2010; Taylor, 2007; Bright, 2007; Perry et al., 2008). Although many studies have confirmed the existence of the construct of public service motivation, these studies were only conducted in the USA (Perry, 1996, 1997, 2000; Crewson, 1997; Houston, 2000, 2006; Camilleri, 2007), France (Castaing, 2006), Korea (Choi, 2001; Kim, 2006), UK and Germany (Vandenabeele, Scheepers and Hondeghem, 2006), Australia (Taylor, 2007), China (Liu, Tang & Zhu, 2009); with little information about developing countries such as Ghana.

However, Ghana's public sector is large with the state being the principal formal employer of workers across the health, education, municipal and local assemblies, and other civil services (Abugre, 2014). The public sector in Ghana, just like those in many sub-Saharan African countries, have over the years experienced economic crisis from the time of independence to date (Killick, White, Kayizzi-Mugerwa & Savane, 2001). This necessitated the government of Ghana to undertake a series of measures to reform her public sector organizations (UNCTAD, 2004). An evaluation of the public sector reform programs (PSRPs) concluded that the public sector employees were found to be demoralized as productivity concerns are relegated to the background due to widespread absenteeism, moonlighting, corruption, ill-motivation and political hiring (Owusu, 2006). Most public workers condone with these negative behaviors with the excuse that "it was merely a government job and did not require much effort as the private sector would require" (Lambert, 2001; Wright & Bonett, 2007).

That notwithstanding, the studies conducted in developed countries show that PSM is linked to important work-related attitudes and behaviours such as job satisfaction (Rainey, 1982; Naff and Crum, 1999; Taylor, 2007; Bright 2008; Steijn 2008; Taylor 2008; Wright & Pandey 2008), altruism, trust in government, serving the public or one's country, civic involvement, and political participation (Brewer & Selden, 1998, 2000; Brewer et al., 2000; Wright & Pandey, 2011). PSM has a positive relationship on all of these variables thereby stressing the importance of PSM research to be conducted in Ghanaian public organizations.

More importantly, although a few studies (Taylor, 2007; Liu et. al. 2009) have tested the relationships between PSM and job satisfaction, few have analysed the relationship between PSM and job satisfaction at the dimensional level, though scholars (Perry, 2010; Houston, 2012; Kim, 2009; Vandenabeele, Scheepers & Hondeghem, 2013) have insisted that PSM is a multidimensional construct. When PSM dimensions are analysed concurrently, some dimensions are likely to play a more dominant role than others in influencing work outcomes (Perry, 2010; Kim, 2009; Vandenabeele, 2015). To explore these pressing needs in research, the study used the Partial Least Square approach to establish the relationship and further assess the predictive effect of the dimensions of PSM on job satisfaction of staff of the Metropolitan Assemblies in Ghana.

Purpose of the Study

The general objective of the study was to assess the effect of PSM on Job Satisfaction of staff of Metropolitan Assemblies in Ghana. The specific objectives were to

1. determine the level of PSM dimensionality
2. determine the level of job satisfaction
3. assess the effect of the attraction to public participation on employees' job satisfaction
4. assess the effect of the commitment to public values on employees' job satisfaction
5. assess the effect of the compassion on employees' job satisfaction
6. assess the effect of the self-sacrifice on employees' job satisfaction

Research Questions

1. What are the levels of PSM dimensionality in the Metropolitan Assemblies in Ghana?
2. What are the levels of job satisfaction in the Metropolitan Assemblies in Ghana?

Research Hypothesis

- H₁: Attraction to public participation positively affects employees' job satisfaction
- H₂: Commitment to public values positively affects employees' job satisfaction
- H₃: Compassion positively affects employees' job satisfaction
- H₄: Self-sacrifice positively affects employees' job satisfaction

Significance of the Study

The study would be beneficial to managers of public organizations as outcomes of the research would give insight about public employees' motivation in achieving organizational outcomes. Also, policy makers would use it as a guide towards decision making on public sector administration and management. That notwithstanding, researchers would find the study useful because it adds to their knowledge and guides them in methods and tools of analysis for their subsequent studies.

Delimitation

The study focuses solely on dimensions of PSM as propounded by Perry and Wise (1990) and its effect on Job satisfaction. The study area is delimited to only the Metropolitan Assemblies in Ghana. The study area therefore excludes all other municipal and district assemblies. The results of the study therefore, can only be generalised for workers in the Metropolitan Assemblies since workers in other local government establishments may have different views concerning PSM and its effect on their job satisfaction.

Limitations

One of the major limitations of the study was the use of questionnaire. It did not allow the researcher to probe further for reasons behind the responses given by the respondents. Thus, self-administered research instrument like the questionnaire does not afford the researcher the opportunity to further interrogate the issues presented by the respondents. To help minimise the effects of this limitation on the data for the study, a little education was given to respondents on the background of the study to help generate sincere responses.

Another limitation of the study was the sample size. The inability of the researcher to engage all the members in the sample affected the generalisation of findings by using sample statistics to estimate population parameters. The researcher also had to spend time and resources locating some of the respondents. With this limitation, the database presented by the human resource department by the Assemblies for sampling had people who had recently retired and those on leave. This made the data collection exercise very difficult as some

of the pre-selected respondents were on leave, while others had retired. This did not naturally allow respondents who might have been selected into the sample. To help address this, the researcher sampled additional 10 people from each category on standby and used them to replace respondents who were absent or indisposed.

Organisation of the study

The first chapter introduced the study, giving a background to the study, statement of the problem, general objectives, specific objectives, research questions, significance of the study, delimitation of the study, limitations of the study, definition of terms and the chapter organisation. The second chapter focuses on the review of related literature. The third chapter deals with the research methods which includes the study area, the study design, research approach, population of the study, sampling and sample size, data needs, data collection techniques, data analysis techniques, sources of data, tool for data collection and the structure of the questionnaire, reliability and analysis of data will be discussed. Chapter four deals with the analysis of data collected from the respondents. The analysis will present various results in graphs, charts, tables and diagrams. Chapter five presents the summary of the study, the conclusions drawn as a result of the discussions and analysis of data and recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter reviews related and relevant literature on PSM by scholars and other researchers and its effect on job satisfaction. It reviews relevant previous work including relevant theoretical reviews. It explains some of the theories that frame the present study; and the empirical reviews and document the results of other studies that are closely related to the research work.

Theoretical Review

This section will address a theoretical review of motivational issues. It will in particular focus on public service motivation and their relationship with work outcomes such as job satisfaction.

Public Service Motivation (PSM) Theory

PSM theory posits that individuals decide to enter the public service for reasons other than material or financial ones (Perry & Wise (1990). For them, salary is not their priority, and the maximization of this kind of reward does not correspond to their ideals. For instance, individuals filled with self-sacrifice values do not expect much of material incentives. Conversely, empirical studies indicate that an increase in extrinsic motivators may even reduce the positive impacts of intrinsic factors (i.e., PSM) on work motivation (Frey & Jegen 2001; Georgellis, Iossa, & Tabvuma 2008; Weibel, Rost, & Osterloh 2010).

Perry and Wise (1990) defined PSM as an individual's predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and

organisations. They identified three theoretical bases of PSM: rational, norm-based, and affective. Rational motives are grounded in maximising individual utility; norm-based motives involve a desire to serve the public interest; affective motives are grounded in human emotion and are characterized by a desire and willingness to help others (Perry and Wise, 1990). These provide a useful framework for understanding PSM (Brewer, Selden and Facer, 2000).

Therefore, the theory suggests that individuals having a high level of PSM enter the public sector with a similar set of values. Those common “belief systems” facilitate their identification with other members of the team (Van Dick et al. 2004). In that light, it has been demonstrated that the level of PSM of public employees leads to productive organizational outcomes such as job performance, organizational citizenship behavior and job satisfaction (Moynihan and Pandey 2007; Perry 2000; Taylor 2007; cited by Taylor 2008)

Specific Types of Motivation in the Public Sector

Motivation in the public sector is strongly linked to the institutional setting, as has been discussed above. From a theoretical viewpoint, institutional theory may provide further insights into the origins of employee motivation in the public sector. Values, norms, and rules - as the defining parts of institutions - infuse social structures with values and promote stability and persistence over time (Peters, 2000). Viewed as organizations, institutions are shaped in response to their external environment and transcend to the individual level of an employee’s identity, influencing his/her values and motives, which in turn, define

a range of permissible and prohibited behavior (Ritz & Brewer 2013; Perry, 2000).

Thus, employee motivation in the public sector is a function of the degree to which an organization shares the individual's values or provides opportunities for the employee to satisfy these values (Christensen & Wright 2009). In addition, it is not the sector that is the decisive element in the development of motivation. Instead, employees' values are influenced by the organization's degree of 'publicness'. This characteristic defines organizations not only in the public sector, but also in the private and non-profit sectors (Brewer, 2015). However, the following distinguishes between two major types of employee motivation in the public sector: public sector motivation and public service motivation. In doing so, there is a disentanglement of the various roles public sector organizations play both in public servants' motivation and in their internalization of different types of values (Christensen & Wright 2009).

Public sector motivation

The first motivation concept with a key focus on public organizations is public sector motivation. According to institutional theory, public sector motivation implies a "logic of consequentiality" involving institutional rules and interpretations to be treated as alternatives in a rational choice problem (French & Emerson, 2014). Rational choice theory characterizes administrators as generally rational individuals (constrained by certain informational and cognitive boundaries) who have a fixed set of preferences and who seek to maximize their utility (Neumann & Ritz, 2015).

The assumption of rationality implies that an individual will choose the alternative that yields the greatest value for him and that is likely to occur (Neumann & Ritz 2015; Gordon, 2001). As far as the attractiveness of public sector employment is concerned, there are several institutional values and extrinsic incentives that allow for individual utility maximization. Public organizations, for instance, offer relatively high job-security and protection against dismissal, good career perspectives, relatively high salaries in low- and mid-level ranks, stable salaries overall, as well as a robust salary development scale, all of which can be attractive to certain individuals motivated by such benefits (Buelens & Van den Broeck, 2007; French & Emerson, 2014; Lewis & Frank, 2002; Perry & Hondeghem, 2008).

Furthermore, pension schemes for public employees generally guarantee security and independence, and the attractiveness of a civil service career is that it practically guarantees a certain standard of living in retirement (OECD, 2013). It should also be noted that public organizations often offer more favorable working hours and vacation schemes. Thus, public sector motivation is defined as the desire to behave in accordance with motives grounded in an individual's self-interest and directed at extrinsic incentives typically found in the public sector. This includes, for instance, job-security, guaranteed salary- and career-development, and further privileges. That said, it may be concluded that certain incentives motivate individuals regardless of their employers' sector (French & Emerson 2014).

In this line of reasoning, the relationship between employee and employer reflects a form of psychological contract based on an exchange of loyalty and duty in return for salary and privileges. Such a relationship is different from an exchange of effort and performance in return for skill development and employability. Public sector motivation is based more on the former type of psychological contract, in which the attainment of output and outcome goals is of secondary interest to an employee. First and foremost, an employee performs certain actions based on the experience of individual needs being satisfied. Shirking behavior is a typical consequence if public organizations are unable to satisfy employees' needs in regard to the incentives described above, since organizational outcomes are not to the fore for the individual (Francois 2000). Thus, public sector motivation is closely linked to the specific work context and working conditions within government organizations. Nevertheless, such working conditions also exist in the private sector, although they are far more common in the public sector (Wright 2001).

Public service motivation

The second type of motivation, public service motivation, has been part of the scientific discourse in public administration literature for more than 25 years (Ritz et al. 2016), and is the first theory to specifically address the topic of employee motivation in the public sector, although it also applies to public service-related jobs in other sectors. Public service motivation fits very well into “logic of appropriateness” as distinguished by institutional theory (Perry & Wise, 2013), employees act not only out of self-interest; instead, their actions are driven

by rules of appropriate and exemplary behavior inherent to the institution. Such rules, “are followed because they are seen as natural, rightful, expected, and legitimate.

Actors seek to fulfill the obligations summarized in a role, an identity, a membership in a political community or group, and the ethos, practices and expectations of its institutions. Embedded in social collectivity, they do what they see as appropriate for themselves in a specific type of situation” (Ritz et al., 2016). Viewing public service motivation within this context responds to a call for more contextualized and less individual level-based types of motivations, distinguishing it from certain classical and - above all - process-based types of employee motivation (Perry 2000).

Initially, the concept of public service motivation was defined as “an individual’s predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organizations” (Perry & Wise 2001), while more recent definitions, such as the one put forward by Perry and Hondeghem (2008), have adopted a broader perspective, describing it as a type of motivation which generally refers to “motives and action in the public domain that are intended to do good for others and shape the well-being of society” (Perry and Hondeghem 2008).

The concept is deeply rooted in history (Vandenebeele & Van Loon 2015). The idea that public officials should be concerned with the public interest, leaving aside individual interests, can be traced as far back as to Aristotle and Plato. In addition, Confucius found moral standards to be the best preparation for public

life. Throughout history, the idea regularly surfaces in various guises – in the works of philosophers such as Thomas of Aquinas, Rousseau and John Rawls, for instance –, and it became a consistent feature in the majority of dominant western public service systems (Horton, 2008). Nevertheless, it was not until Rainey (1982) first mentioned public service motivation and Perry and Wise (1990) first formalized the definition and theory thereof, that this became a concept in its own right.

Numerous concepts related to public service motivation such as altruism, prosocial motivation and public service ethos, have been part of public administration and adjacent disciplines for a long time. Research on public service motivation based the concept on a full range of behavioral motives, taking into account the fact that individuals' motives are mixed (Brewer et al. 2000). Perry & Wise (2015) included rational, norm-based, and affective motives in their definition. Kim and Vandenberg (2010) distinguish between instrumental motives, value-based motives, and identification with beneficiaries as the main drivers of public service motivation. These different types of motives are reflected in the research on measurement of public service motivation. The first measurement scale developed by Perry (1996) comprised four dimensions. These were: attraction to public policy making, commitment to the public interest, compassion, and self-sacrifice.

An international team of sixteen researchers further developed the so-called Perry-scale into a four-dimensional measure, designating its dimensions attraction to public service, commitment to public values, compassion and self-

sacrifice (Kim et al., 2013). Other researchers added their own measurement dimensions, such as democratic governance (Vandenabeele 2008; see also Giauque et al. 2011) or shortened the original scale to create an abridged measurement instrument (Coursey & Pandey 2007). Research on public service motivation has increased enormously and an increasingly global research community has responded to Perry and Wise's (1990) call for the advancement of theory and measurement on public service motivation.

Motives of PSM

An individual's PSM can be founded in different types of motives reflecting different ways of expressing this pro-social motivation. Based on the theoretical framework for explaining individual decisions to contribute personal resources to the collectivity, Perry and Wise (1990) originally conceptualized an individual's PSM as originating from three types of basic human motives: norm-based, affective and rational motives.

Norm - based motives

Norm - based motives are founded in socially internalized norms of loyalty and duty to serve the interests of government and society (Perry & Wise, 2015; Perry, 2001). When someone is occupied with the provision of public services it is normatively appropriate to do what is considered best for society as a whole. Therefore, this type of PSM is the one most clearly connected to commitment to public values.

Affective motives

Affective motives rest on emotional bonding and general human interdependence. In this sense, individuals express a desire to do good for others and society because of emotional influence of the situation in question (Perry & Wise, 2015). Dating back to Adam Smith 'empathy from imagining oneself in the place of the other person' is considered a very likely motive for altruism and altruistic giving (Kolm, 2006). Thus, the desire and willingness to help can arise from personal identification with other people/groups of citizens, but also from genuine conviction about the importance of a certain social program for helping people in need (Perry & Wise, 2015). In this respect Frederickson and Hart (2014) talk about a special 'patriotism of benevolence' among public service providers. With respect to affective expressions of PSM it is, however, important to note that it is not an individual's ability to show empathy that is interesting but rather the extent to which feelings of empathy serves to motivate the individual to deliver public services.

Rational motives

According to Perry and Wise (2015) rational motives are founded in rational, individual utility maximization. In this sense, individuals are expected to participate in public service delivery out of need for power and reinforcement of one's image of self-importance. For example, by participating in the process of policy formulation concerning a specific public service, one can use this as an instrument to advocate special interests. This type of motive associated with public service is the most controversial as it contradicts the pro-social content of

PSM by referring to motives for realizing private rather than public interests. However, rational motives essentially only mean that an individual make decision based on assessment of the gains/losses in welfare by choosing among various alternative actions (Le Grand, 2015).

Dimensions of PSM

Although research has relied on a number of different measures of PSM, there is growing recognition that PSM is composed of multiple dimensions (Wright 2008). First suggested 29 years ago, Perry and Wise (1990) proposed that PSM can have dimensions associated with three types of motives: affective, norm-based, and rational. Building on this multidimensional framework, Perry (1996) later developed a 24-item measure of PSM that identified four dimensions of the PSM construct: attraction to public policy, commitment to the public norms and duties, compassion, and self-sacrifice.

Since then, many scholars have used Perry's PSM dimensions and items to measure PSM (Kim 2009; Wright 2008). Even though this 4D structure and its respective measurement items were originally developed based on samples within the United States, they have been used (often with changes) to measure PSM across other cultures and languages including Australia (Taylor 2007), Belgium (Vandenabeele 2008), China (Liu, Tang, & Zhu 2008; Liu et al. 2011), Germany (Ritz & Waldner 2011), Italy (Cerase & Farinella 2009), Malta (Camilleri 2006), South Korea (Kim, 2009a, 2009b), the Netherlands (Leisink & Steijn 2009), and Switzerland (Giauque et al. 2011).

The growing use of Perry's (1996) 4D measure of PSM has raised some specific concerns regarding the generalizability of its 4D framework in other countries. Although some international scholars have provided evidence the four original dimensions must be supplemented with culturally specific dimensions (Cerase & Farinella 2009; Giauque et al. 2011; Vandenabeele 2008), others have suggested that some of the dimensions developed in the United States must be omitted (Leisink & Steijn 2009; Liu, Tang, & Zhu 2008) or even combined (Ritz & Waldner 2011; Vandenabeele 2008a) when conducting research in other countries.

Others have suggested that commitment to public interest dimension needs to concentrate more on a personal disposition to pursue public values (Castaing 2006; Leisink & Steijn 2009; Taylor 2007), and the items of compassion do not always represent affective motives (DeHart-Davis, Marlowe, & Pandey 2006; Moynihan & Pandey 2007; Wright 2008). Using lessons from past research, Kim and Vandenabeele (2015) have recently proposed a number of changes to the current multidimensional measures of PSM that would address its weaknesses and support the development of a more universal measure that can be used globally. Building on Perry's (1996) multidimensional measure of PSM, they argue that PSM should continue to be conceived as a 4D construct, with Self-Sacrifice (SS) as the foundational concept representing the altruistic or pro-social origins of PSM. In addition to SS, they propose three other dimensions—attraction to public participation (APP), commitment to public values (CPV), and compassion

(COM)—that, respectively, represent instrumental, value-based, and affective motives.

Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is one of the most widely focused areas of interest in public administration. Thus, for many years, studies on job satisfaction have generated considerable interest among researchers globally; therefore, research discussions have generally focused on what variables actually impact employees' satisfaction with their jobs, which in turn leads to improved productivity in work organizations. Job satisfaction can be described as an employee's affective response to his/her work as a result of a comparison between the actual outcomes and the expected or required outcomes (Smith & Jones, 2011). This is consistent with the famous Lockian definition of Job satisfaction as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state" that is "a function of the perceived relationship between what one wants from a job and what one perceives it is offering" (Spector, 2003).

Thus, job satisfaction is an individual's subjective feeling that reflects the extent to which his/her needs are met by the job. Consequently, Spector (2003) sums up job satisfaction simply as "the extent to which people like their jobs". Empirical support varies on the effects of job satisfaction on employees, and most available evidence is related to simple correlations with organizational variables (Wang & Lee, 2009). While some researchers believe that there is a strong evidence of a positive relationship between meaning and job satisfaction (Hackman & Oldham, 2001; Spreitzer, Kizilos, & Nason, 2005; Thomas & Tymon, 2015), others believe that an individual's choice of job satisfaction is a

psychological need and that meeting this need results in job satisfaction (Conger & Kanungo, 2012; Greenberger, Strausser, Cummings, & Dunham, 2000; Parker, 2003). Since deficiencies in employee job satisfaction or an individual's commitment to his/her work can jeopardize the health of the organization by opening paths to burnout (Whitehead & Lindquist, 2005; Whitehead, Lindquist, & Klofas, 2001), absenteeism (Lambert et al., 2005), and staff turnover (Camp, 2004; Camp, Saylor, & Gilman, 2005).

Thus, Ahiauzu (2005) advocates that African social science researchers and management experts should make a concerted effort to identify the salient features and the underlying principles of the indigenous African workplace. This can help empirical investigations in the area of public sector management that have positive consequences for sub-Saharan African organizations. The more we know about the African worker and his or her thought system, the more effective we shall be in managing him or her (Ahiauzu, 2005).

PSM and Job Satisfaction

PSM have been linked to various outcome variables (Vandenabeele 2008a; Gange and Deci 2005). Several studies have found a relationship between job satisfaction and public service motivation, albeit with different effect size. Park and Rainey (2007 & 2008) have found a moderate to strong correlation between public service motivation and job satisfaction, whereas others (Vandenabeele 2009; Taylor 2007 & 2008; Castaing 2006) have found smaller correlations.

In an extension of literature on employee motives, many studies of work motivation in the public sector have asked individuals to assess their levels of satisfaction with the work environments' fulfillment of important needs or its provision of desired rewards (Gabris & Simo, 2000; Jurkiewicz, Massey, & Brown, 2014; Newstrom, Reif & Monczka, 2001). Thus, job satisfaction is important because "examining what employees want from their jobs and comparing it to what they are getting reveals the need deficiencies that instigate goal directed behavior" (Jurkiewicz, Massey, & Brown, 2014).

Attraction to Public Participation and Job Satisfaction

As a multifaceted term 'Attraction to Public Participation' is related to 'politics', policy and community engagement of citizens and be traced back to Aristotle (Leonhard 2007). However, by defining attraction to public participation as a rational dimension that maximizes selfless gains emphasizes the common good agenda of citizens (Perry, 2015). In this context, attraction to public participation comprises of 'participation in the process of policy formulation'. Therefore, Kim (2016) proposes that it is a dimension which is based more on an affective than a rational motive due to its interpersonal and relational characteristics. He proceeds from the assumption that APP also appeals to people who see themselves as 'political' and who enjoy discussing politics. Work in the public administration, by means of its exclusive connection to public participation is well equipped to satisfy this interest (Vandenabeele & Van de Walle, 2008).

These mutually non-exclusive motives can be satisfied through various characteristics and context of public jobs like, for example, 'involvement in the

design of policies’, ‘influencing the contents of policies’, ‘opportunities to speak directly to and discuss with politicians’, and ‘politics and policy as important spheres that are discussed in daily life’. Summarizing the present literature, APP consists of a main motive which is satisfied by the exertion of influence on people, institutions and policies leading to a higher self-esteem, coupled with individual satisfaction and the achievement of personal goals though advancing the interest of the public. In that light a public sector employee who has this predisposition of attraction is easily satisfied with the job since it fulfils an intrinsic desire that cannot be satisfied with extrinsic forms of motivation (Perry & Wise, 2015).

Commitment to Public Values and Job Satisfaction

Values generally are defined as “judgments of worth” or preferences having “certain weight in the choice of action” that are enduring overtime (Lyons, Duxbury & Higgins 2006; Van der Wal et al. 2006). Public values are identified as those that give government organizations their distinctive public purposes, such as commitment to accountability, openness, inclusiveness (stakeholder participation), equity, and the pursuit of community and public benefits (Beck Jørgensen, 2013; Boyne 2011; Bozeman 2009; Van der Wal et al. 2016; West & Davis 2011). Research shows that values are associated with behaviours such as choosing decision-making styles, weighing ethical considerations, achieving outcomes, and motivating the workforce. The latter has recently attracted considerable interest among scholars under the introduction of public service motivation (Alonso and Lewis 2001; Brewer, Selden & Facer 2000; Conner &

Becker 2003; Coursey et al. 2008; Perry & Wise 2015; Wright & Pandey 2008). At issue are not only efforts to portray a positive public image, but also to fulfil an innate need and desire. Hence, commitment to public values can be seen as the support for goals or values as evidenced by practice, increasingly is used.

Commitment bridges the abstract notion of values and the empirical actions that support them. For example, commitment to “meeting the needs of citizens” is taken to include specific managerial actions that further (or “realize”) this end. Commitment refers to a range of supportive actions rather than any one specific action. To know the extent of managerial commitment to public values is to know the extent of a range of actions that support some public value (Berman & West 2003; Hopkins, Hopkins, & Mallette 2001; Lamsa & Savolainen 2000). In that light, public sector employees who have these keen desires to commit to public values are in most cases would be satisfied with their jobs since it gives them the opportunity to meet these predispositions that are geared towards serving the common good.

Compassion and Job Satisfaction

Rynes, Bartunek, Dutton, and Margolis (2012) suggest that the central motive for civil servants should be the “patriotism of benevolence” which means an extensive love of all people within contemporary political boundaries and the imperative that they must be protected in all of the basic rights granted to them by the enabling documents. It suggests that the concept of patriotism of benevolence combines love of regime values and love of others. Patriotism of benevolence is termed compassion in Perry’s PSM which may be understood to describe an

emotional state (Perry, 2015). Compassion is also associated with feeling of condolence, pity, sympathy, empathy, and commiseration, all of which are synonymous with one another and are connected to altruism or the “unselfish concern for the welfare of others” (Atkins & Park, 2012; Radey & Figley, 2007).

The nature of compassion include an element of equity, by way of the sense of fellow feeling involved, a sense of suffering with rather than having power over (Whitebrook, 2002). The compassion of one subject depends on his/her first reaction to suffering (Rynes et al., 2012; Whitebrook, 2002). Compassion is an essential element in effective direct public sector work practice (Radey & Figley, 2007). In order to help clients, public sector workers must develop rapport and empathize with the citizens (McCann & Pearlman, 2011). Yet, as public workers’ hearts go out to their clients through their sustained compassion, there is a great tendency to ensure better provision of public goods. In that light, energy from compassion can lead to a sense of flourishing which public sector workers experience the joy of helping others and find satisfaction with their work (Radey & Figley, 2007).

Self-sacrifice and Job Satisfaction

Self-sacrifice measures the willingness to bypass one’s own needs in order to help others and society. Currently, different scholars put forward different views on the concept of self-sacrifice either based on traits or behaviour. In the trait perspective, self-sacrifice is demonstrated when a person has a willingness to take risks and loss for the gain of others (Yorges et al., 1999; Mulder & Nelissen, 2010). In the behavior perspective, self-sacrifice is portrayed when a person

shows a kind of self-sacrificing behaviour in the management of an organization, in this case, organizations that are instituted to serve the public. Choi and Mair-Dalton (2011) believes that a self-sacrificing employee describes an employee who voluntarily temporarily or permanently give up personal interests, privileges and welfare for the interests of the organization (Hoogervorst et al., 2012; Bout, 2013).

In summary, the self-sacrificing employee is to put welfare of others before their personal interests. Hence, a public sector employee who has this sense of self-sacrifice is often satisfied with the job in the public sector as working in this sector is normally described as a ‘sacrificial’ one in developing countries (Owusu 2006).

Conceptual Framework

The dimensions of PSM construct are attraction to public participation (APP), commitment to public values (CPV), compassion (COM), and self-sacrifice (SS). The consideration of the relationships between PSM and its dimensions shows that it is more reasonable to define PSM as a formative construct (Perry and Hondeghem 2008). The PSM construct needs to be conceptually and operationally applied in respect to work outcomes, specifically Job satisfaction (JS).

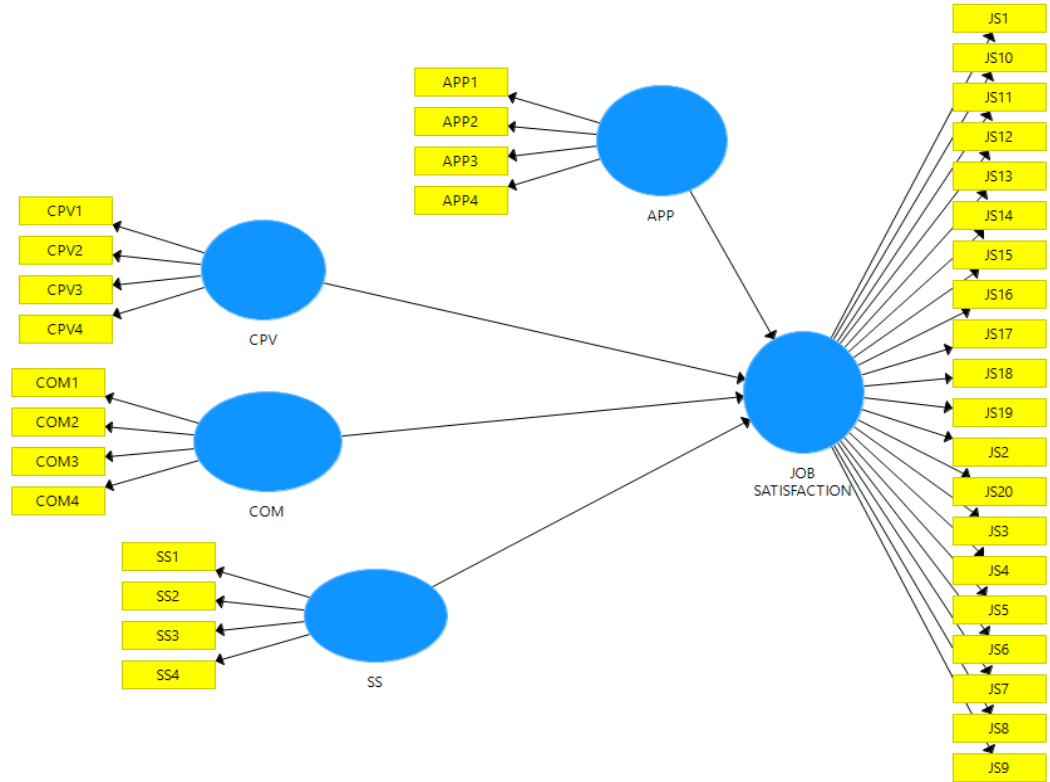


Figure 1: Conceptual Framework

Author's Construct (Dogbey, 2019)

The model for this study was structured to reflect the relationships between the dimensions of PSM and Job satisfaction. Attraction to public participation (APP), commitment to public values (CPV), compassion (COM), and self-sacrifice (SS) positively influencing Job Satisfaction (JS).

Lessons Learnt

While research has shown that PSM exists in many countries (Vandenabeele, Scheepers & Hondeghem, 2006; Houston, 2011; Kim, et, al., 2013), its validity as a universal construct still suffers from conceptual and operational definitions of PSM in different cultural contexts display considerable variety (Vandenabeele, 2008; Giauque, Ritz, Varone, Anderfuhren-Biget &

Waldner, 2011; Liu, Hui, Hu, Yang & Yu, 2011), which are not always consistent with the initial PSM theory (Kim, et. al., 2013). Thus, even in countries where the general PSM construct has been demonstrated to exist, differences exist in sub-dimensions of the construct (Vandenabeele, Scheepers & Hondeghem, 2006; Kim, 2009a; Kim, 2009b) and in their antecedents and consequences (Vandenabeele & Van de Walle, 2008; Houston, 2011).

Moreover, as scholarly work on PSM continues to extend to other geographical regions, most studies still focus on the nature of PSM in developed countries (Liu, Thang & Zu, 2008; Liu, Du, Wen & Fan, 2012). There is little research on the nature and motives of public employees in the developing world or more traditional societies (Liu, 2009; Liu & Tang, 2011). Most of the studies were carried out in Asia, Europe, North and South America, raising questions regarding the applicability of their findings to developing African economies such as Ghana. Again, nurses and other professionals in the public sector were the main focus of the studies much to the neglect of the metropolitan assemblies' service sector which currently employs the largest number of local government employees in Ghana. The dominant study design employed was the survey method, implemented using self-administered questionnaires.

The reason cited was to arrive at conclusions applicable to fairly representative proportions of the population involved in each case. Simple random sampling was applied in selecting respondents from homogeneous populations. Regarding the dimensions of PSM, the researchers in all cases adopted the Perry and Wise (1990) four-dimensional scale comprising of

attraction to policy making, commitment to norms and duties, compassion and self-sacrifice with little using Perry and Kim's (2015) four dimensional categorisation which included attraction to public participation (APP), commitment to public values (CPV), compassion (COM) and self-sacrifice (SS), which is the focus of this study, hence no empirical study could be presented with regards to their relationship with job satisfaction. This study therefore contributes to empirical literature that would be important to researchers investigating this phenomenon.

Summary

This chapter reviewed on theoretical and conceptual issues relating to public service motivation, its dimensions namely; attraction to public participation, commitment to public values, compassion, and self-sacrifice; and job satisfaction as captured in prior studies. Key issues from the review informed the conceptual framework of the study. Regarding the dimensions of PSM, researchers in all cases adopted Perry and Wise (1990) four-dimensional scale comprising of attraction to policy making, commitment to norms and duties, compassion and self-sacrifice, however, these dimensions have been modified with Perry and Kim's (2015) four dimensional categorization to include; attraction to public participation (APP), commitment to public values (CPV), compassion (COM) and self-sacrifice (SS), which is the central focus of the study. The review will further prove beneficial in methodology, analysis, presentation of findings, discussions, conclusions as well as recommendations. The next chapter centres on the methodology of the study.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODS

Introduction

This chapter contains the methodology of the study. It presents the chosen research methods, justifying their fitness for the study's objectives. According to Pallant (2007), the methodology chapter permits comparison with other studies and in so doing deepening appreciation of the work plan and enabling the possibility of replicating this study in the future. Additionally, the chapter entails discussions and comparison of the weaknesses, strengths, similarities as well as the differences between the selected methodologies and thus guarantees consistency with recognized academic practice (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Specifically, this chapter explains the study area, approaches to research, population, sample and sampling procedure. It also gives explanations on the data collection procedures, data preparation, instrument design, pre-test, reliability testing, field work, data analysis procedures, and the ethical requirements in the conduct of the study.

Research Approach

According to Yates (2003), there are two main approaches to conducting research, namely the quantitative research and qualitative research. He emphasised that the quantitative approach functions by developing testable hypothesis as well as theories which can be generalised. The quantitative approach is based on information that can be measured numerically, hence it is the purpose or objective of the survey that gives direction as to the approach that

should be used. These questions are presented as information converted into numbers. The data collection techniques used under the quantitative research approach is usually questionnaires, surveys, personality test and standardized research instruments (Creswell, 2013).

One of the main advantages of the quantitative approach is the relative speed with which research is conducted. Additionally, it is a scientific, fast and easier alternative, which enables statistical analyses of data, generalisation of findings, drawing of logical conclusions based on numerical values and comparability of studies (Crotty, 1998; Amaratunga, Baldry, Sarshar & Newton, 2002). It is also possible to use quantitative method in analysing data with statistical methods since it is easier to generalize the findings. Another advantage is that the final results are based on quantities rather than interpretations, which may simplify potential future development and comparison with the work. The quantitative approach is, however, criticized for its rigidity, artificial nature and ineffectiveness in gauging human behaviour as well as not helpful in generating theories (Crotty, 1998). The quantitative approach is adopted for this research not only because of the nature of the study objective, research questions and hypotheses, but also because of the advantages it offers over the qualitative approach.

Research Design

Specifically, the researcher employed the explanatory research design, because the study sought to identify any relationship between a set of variables (dependent and independent) as well as determine the best predictor(s) of the

dependent variable from independent variables of the study (Creswell, 2012). Also, the descriptive-inferential survey design was adopted for this study. Surveys are a type of research design involving the collection and analysis of large amounts of quantitative data from a sizeable population using descriptive and inferential statistics (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). According to Saunders, Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2011), the survey is a popular as well as an authoritative strategy that gives researchers more control over the research process and is comparatively easy to explain and understand.

It is popular, because it allows the collection of a large amount of data from a suitable population in a highly economical way. Data is often obtained by using a questionnaire administered to a sample. Data obtained through the survey with a questionnaire (when it is used as data collection instrument) are standardised, allowing for easy comparison. It is also simple and flexible and it makes it possible to evaluate a programme or project that has been implemented. Firstly, the vast expanse of the selected Metropolitan Assemblies necessitated the distribution of instruments to a fairly representative sample drawn from the population. Secondly, there was a need to capture each Metropolitan Assembly in Ghana. This called for the adoption of simple and cost-effective measures to maximize the usage of available resources, an advantage offered by the chosen method (Saunders et.al, 2011).

Study Area

In Ghana, the local government consists of the Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assembly. The key factor which determines an Assembly to be a

Metropolitan is the population size and settlement characteristics of the area. The Act stipulates that a metropolis is a local government unit or area with a minimum population of 250,000 people (Local Government Act 462 of 1993). However, the study focuses on the six metropolitan assemblies i.e. Kumasi, Accra, Tema, Sekondi-Takoradi, Tamale and Cape Coast.

The Metropolitan Assembly has three main functions namely, executive, legislative and deliberative. It exercises political and administrative authority and provides guidance, gives direction, supervise all other administrative authorities in the district and perform such functions as may be provided under any other enactment including local economic development, social protection and other emerging roles (Section 10 (3) of the Local Government Act, 1993 (Act 462)). All of these functions require a huge number of highly qualified and motivated staff to achieve these said constitutional provisions. It is some of these features and reasons that motivated the researcher in choosing the Metropolitan Assemblies in Ghana for the study.

Study Population

Van der Stede, Young, and Chen (2005) defined a population as the entire set of elements about which the survey researcher wishes to make generalisation, whilst Babbie (2005) defined a target population as “the theoretically specified aggregation of study elements”. The population for this study is made up of all staff of the Metropolitan Assemblies in Ghana. The target population consists of the staff of all Metropolitan Assemblies in Ghana which was selected mainly because of its proximity to the researcher, as well as cost and financial constraint.

Section 38 of the Local Government Act 462 of 1993 (First Schedule) establishes sixteen (16) Departments for Metropolitan Assemblies i.e. the Central Administration, Finance, Education, Youth and Sports, Health, Agriculture, Physical Planning, Social Welfare and Community Development, Natural Resources Conservation Dept Forestry Game & Wildlife Division, Works, Industry And Trade, Disaster Prevention and Management, Transport, Urban Roads, Waste Management, Budget & Rating and Legal Department (A Guide To District Assemblies In Ghana, 2016).

Under these arrangements, all staff of these departments of the Metropolitan Assembly (responsible for providing the required technical expertise for local level development) are automatic members of the Local Government Service (LGS) after its establishment. The Departments are headed by Heads of Departments, who are responsible for the efficient and effective performance of the functions and responsibilities assigned to the respective departments. The study population therefore consists a total staff strength of 4793 as indicated in Table 1.

Table 1: Number of Staff in the Metropolitan Assembly

Name of Metropolitan Assembly	Staff strength
Accra	1944
Tema	744
Kumasi	1032
Sekondi-Takoradi	579

Table 1 continues

Cape Coast	244
Tamale	250
Total	4793

Source: Human Resource Department of Metropolitan Assemblies, 2019

Sampling and Sampling Procedure

The sample survey is conducted to achieve a representative sample of the target population by contacting individuals and respondents (Bryman, 2012), which can be a “method of primary data collection based on communication with a representative sample of individuals” (Zikmund, 2012). The sampling techniques have various considerations that are: necessity, effectiveness, and time and cost limitations (Saunders, et al., 2011; Sarantakos, 2005).

Sampling techniques are divided into probability sampling and non-probability sampling (Zikmund, 2012). The probability sampling technique focuses on the techniques that produce a highly representative sample (Zikmund, 2012). The goal is to collect representative sample and a small unit collection from a population and to produce an accurate generalisation. Examples include: simple random, systematic, stratified, and cluster (Saunders et al., 2011; Zikmund, 2012). The probability sampling technique applies statistical means to select the sample, which reflects a more technical superiority and reduces sampling bias and error (Zikmund, 2012). However, the non-probability sampling technique focuses on how a sample and a small collection of cases or units describe social phenomena (Zikmund, 2012).

The goal is to collect specific cases, events, or actions and elucidates thereby deepening the understanding of the process of social life and its context. Examples include: haphazard, quota, purposive, snowball, deviant case, sequential, and theoretical (Saunders et al., 2011). In non-probability sampling, the chosen item of the population is unknown and the judgment of the investigator impacts the selection of a sampling unit (Uma, 2003; Zikmund, 2012). The sampling techniques should fit the research methodological approach hence in this research study; the simple random sampling of various staff categories of staff in the selected Metropolitan Assemblies was used.

Sample Size

A sample size is the number of observations that are included in the research study (Zikmund, 2012), and it is the “absolute size of the sample that is important, not its size relative to the population”. Bryman (2012) argues that the best sample size depends on the degree of accuracy required, the degree of variability and diversity in the population, and the number of different constructs examined simultaneously when analysing data. Sample size can be determined by precision and confidence (Sekaran, 2010). Precision is how close the research study estimate is to the true population as a function of the range of variability in the sampling distribution of the mean while confidence is how true the research study estimate is to the population, that is, the greater the precision required the larger the sample size needed (Sekaran, 2010).

The confidence level can range from 0% to 100%, where a 95% confidence level (significant level of $p \leq 0.05$) is the conventionally accepted

level for most social sciences and business research studies (Sekaran, 2010; Bryman, 2012). The contributing element of a sample size involves the magnitude of population correlations, number of constructs, level of analysis details, level of result precision, and availability of times and budgets (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The minimum sample size is “to have at least five times as the number of variables to be analysed, and the more acceptable sample size would have a 10:1 ratio” (Hair et al., 2006). To select an optimum sample size, Roscoe (1975) emphasizes that between 30 and 500 is suitable for most research studies. The sample size plays an important role in the proposed data analysis technique of around 100 and 200 responses in the case of advanced statistical methods, such as the Partial Least Squares in the structural equation modeling technique (Hair et al., 2006).

A sample size in a range of 150 to 400 is suggested, that is subject to considerations of model complexity, missing data, and error variance of questions and items (Hair et al., 2006). Using these criteria and based on the Krejcie and Morgan (1970) sample determination table, a sample size of 357 staff was randomly drawn using simple random sampling. Thus, 400 survey questionnaires were distributed to the respondents of the Metropolitan Assemblies with the expectation of obtaining a high response rate (Sekaran, 2010).

Measurement of Variables

The main dependent variable of this study is job satisfaction. Due to its general acceptance as a research instrument, the MSQ short form was used to measure job satisfaction for public sector employees. The MSQ was modified to

include a biographical data consisting of categorical items like gender, education, and job position. The MSQ (Weiss et al., 1967 as cited in Abugre (2014)) is a good standard for measuring the overall outcomes of employees' intrinsic and extrinsic job contexts. The long form of the MSQ consists of 100 items, 5 items per facet. The short form was created from the long form for research purposes, and consists of 20 items i.e. JS1, JS2, JS3, JS4, JS5, JS6, JS7, JS8, JS9, JS10, JS11, JS12, JS13, JS14, JS15, JS16, JS17, JS18, JS19 and JS20 (see Appendix A), which are also divided into intrinsic and extrinsic job context items. Each item is measured by a Likert-type scale from 1 (very dissatisfied) to 5 (very satisfied). General satisfaction of employees is determined by measuring all 20 items, and scores for each respondent's intrinsic, extrinsic, and general satisfaction are calculated by adding the mean scores for the related questions and dividing it by 20. A study by Hirschfeld (2016) concluded that revising the MSQ short form resulted in no significant difference in the factor structure with an internal reliability of 0.781.

Public service motivation on the other hand was measured at the dimensional level with a set of items derived from the instrument developed by Perry and Kim's (2015). The four-dimensional constructs include; attraction to public participation (APP) was measured on a Likert-type scale with four items i.e. APP1, APP2, APP3 and APP4 (see Appendix A). Commitment to public values (CPV) also measured on a Likert-type scale with four items i.e. CPV1, CPV2, CPV3, and CPV4 (see Appendix A). Compassion (COM) was also measured on a Likert-type scale with four items i.e. COM1, COM2, COM3 and

COM4 (see Appendix A) and self-sacrifice (SS) finally measured on a Likert-type scale with four items i.e., SS1, SS2, SS3 and SS4 (see Appendix A). Like all the other items measured in this study, PSM is measured on a five-point response scale, ranging from ‘Weak Agreement’ (1) to ‘Very Strong Agreement’ (5). A study by Vandenberg (2015) concluded that the generalizability of the scale was supported with a composite internal reliability of 0.861, with recommendation of further validity tests when research is conducted in other contexts especially developing countries.

Data Analysis Methodology and Justification

The structural equation modelling (SEM) technique has been considered to be one of the most important components of applied multivariate statistical analyses and has been employed by many researchers in different fields such as economics, education, marketing, medicine, and a variety of other social and behavioural sciences (Al-Ansari et al., 2013). According to Babin, Hair and Boles (2008), SEM can be seen as “a statistical methodology that takes a confirmatory (i.e., hypothesis-testing) approach to the analysis of a structural theory on a given phenomenon”. Also, Wong (2013) sees SEM as a term that conveys two essential notions of the procedure: (a) that the causal processes under study are provided by a group of structural (i.e., regression) equations, taking into account the measurement error, and (b) that these structural associations can be modeled pictorially to facilitate a clearer conceptualization of the theory and hypotheses under study.

SEM is a significantly complex statistical technique for measuring relations between constructs, including latent variables and observed variables (Hair et al., 2011). Latent variables represent conceptual terms employed to express theoretical concepts or phenomena. Observed variables, also referred to as measures, indicators or items, are variables that are measured directly. Latent variables can be exogenous (independent variables), or endogenous (dependent variables) (Kline, 2011). He went on further to differentiate between latent variables and observed variables as follows: 1) The theoretical constructs/latent variables are graphically symbolized by a circle, while 2) the indicator, measure, items, question or observable variable is graphically represented by a square or rectangle. A latent variable is then defined as a hypothetical construct or an unobservable construct, which is a theoretical notion that is not directly measurable, but is useful nonetheless.

A latent variable can only be inferred from multiple measured variables, which are also known as manifest variables, indicators, items, or observed measures (Wong, 2013). The literature review on SEM discriminates between two dissimilar operationalisation of the relationships between constructs/latent variables and their observed indicators: (1) the reflective indicators/principal factor and (2) the formative indicators/composite index measurement models of the latent variable (Coltman, Deinney, Midgley & Venaik, 2008). There are two main approaches to structural equation modeling namely co-variance based SEM (CB-SEM) and variance based or PLS SEM. CB-SEM attempts to model parameters that will minimize the variance between the calculated and observed

covariance matrices yielding goodness-of-fit indexes as a result of the magnitude of these differences (Andeev, Heart, Moaze & Pliskin, 2009). PLS-SEM methodology on the other hand is used to maximise the variance of all dependent variables instead of using the model to explain the covariance of all indicators (Ringle et al., 2009). Hence parameter estimates are produced based on the ability to minimize the residual variances of the endogenous variables (Henseler et al., 2009; Esposito Vinzi et al., 2010).

The Partial Least Squares path modelling technique was selected in this research study mainly due to its ability to deal with normality violations (i.e. multivariate normality) thus it does not require the hard assumption of the distributional properties of raw data, among other rationales that include; PLS handles both reflective and formative indicators. PLS ensures against improper solutions by the removal of factor indeterminacy; PLS is robust in dealing with data noise and missing data; PLS applies many parameters in a complex model with normal residual distributions; PLS handles collinearity in the independent latent variables; PLS has more statistical power than a maximum-likelihood covariance-based SEM method and is a prediction-oriented technique in maximising the variance explained in the latent variables; PLS allows simultaneous modelling of the relations among latent variables; PLS combines regression and factor analysis within the measurement model in each run; PLS is more advantageous in case of new and refined measures; and PLS does not necessitate a large sample size (for example, 200 or fewer cases), (Haenlein & Kaplan, 2004; Henseler, Ringle & Sinkovics, 2009; Ronkko & Evermann, 2013).

Reflective and formative Indicators

On the one hand, conventional measurement practice in management and policy research is based upon reflective indicators, whereby observed indicators are supposed to reflect variations in latent variables (Navarro, Losada, Ruzo & Díez, 2010). For this reason, the path of causality is supposed to run from the latent variable to the observed indicators and, thus, changes in the latent variable are expected to be shown in changes in all observed indicators, including a multi-item scale (Diamantopoulos, 2008). On the other hand, formative indicator models assume the opposite direction of causality (that the indicators cause the latent variable), such that the content of the indicators defines the meaning of the latent variable.

An implication of this observation is that classical test theory's reflective indicators must be internally consistent, whereas no such requirement exists for formative indicators (Coltmanetal., 2008). According to Moser (2007), these decision rules should support the researcher in deciding whether a latent variable is formatively or reflectively modelled. In the following, a short overview of the applied constructs and their measurement approach is provided: (1) PSM 4D constructs (formative) and (2) Job satisfaction constructs (reflective).

Instrument Design

A standardized questionnaire was developed to collect the necessary data for the proposed PLS approach. The questionnaire contained only closed and direct questions. The questionnaire design process also included the determination of the required scale level to evaluate the indicators of the PLS

measurement model. All questions, except a few concerning the demographic information of the Metropolitan Assemblies and respondent characteristics, were measured with five-point rating scales as used in the literature that was reviewed. The five answer categories of each rating scale were described verbally and numerically in order to ensure equidistance (Moser, 2007). The survey instrument was a paper-based questionnaire, which was administered to staff in the selected Metropolitan Assembly. According to Neelankavil (2007), questionnaires guarantee greater uniformity, consistency and objectivity in data collected as well as provides privacy and convenience for respondents during completion while guaranteeing greater anonymity. The questionnaire was made up of thirty-six items consisting of mainly close ended questions. The questions on the questionnaire were grouped into four sections, A to C. Section A comprised of the Background information of the staff of the selected Metropolitan Assemblies. Section B was made up of the constructs measuring the four-dimensions of PSM and Section C comprised of constructs measuring Job satisfaction.

Yates (2003) pointed it out that a likert-scale is a measurement instrument that enables one to relate qualitative constructs with quantitative metric units. They are said to be the most reliable as well as the most widely used scale in measuring people's attitudes, opinions and beliefs (Yates, 2003). They have the advantage of being easy to construct because they enable the researcher to put together respondents' scores on a diverse range of items into a single index. According to Zikmund (2012), scaling is realized when high-scoring and low-

scoring individuals differ in their responses on each of the items selected for inclusion in the index.

Responses were converted into a directory for each question/item and analysed. The questionnaire paid careful attention to the areas related to research objective, potential respondent, communication method, time and cost availability, and stressed good questions and items design, and layout structure (i.e. content, wording, language, structure, sequence, and length).

Pre-Test and Questionnaire Modification

The primary data and pre-testing of the survey questionnaire can provide useful information for conducting a situational analysis (Creswell, 2013) and uncovering biased or ambiguous questions and items through pre-testing the adequacy, reliability, and validity of the research instrument (Saunders et al., 2011; Sekaran, 2010; Zikmund, 2012). Zikmund (2012) defines the pre-testing process as “a collective term for any small scale exploratory research technique that uses sampling but does not apply rigorous standards”. Latent variables are validated (content validity) when the scales are subjected to a pretesting technique to assure that the wording of individual questions and items are understandable, and that the different questions and items developed measure similar dimensions. The collected feedback from the pre-testing process is used to revise the draft survey questionnaire in order to modify and further improve it (Ticehursts & Veal, 2000). The selected group for pre-testing is not different from the actual participants (Zikmund, 2003).

Literature has different viewpoints, regarding the pilot study sample size. Hunt, Sparkman, and Wilcox (1982) recommend a sample size between 12 and 30; however, Blumberg, Cooper and Schindler (2008) recommend a sample size of between 25 and 100. The first version and prototype of the survey questionnaire was pre-tested on a convenience sample of 21 knowledgeable individuals, using the simple random sampling technique to underline difficulties in completion and understanding questions and items, to improve investigator familiarity with respondents, and to evaluate fieldwork arrangement and average completion time and cost (Sekaran, 2010), which can help to establish the content validity (Saunders et al., 2011).

These individuals included staff of the Komenda Edina Eguafu Abirem (KEEA) Municipal Assembly (n=13) academic researchers (n=2). The respondents were asked to evaluate each statement and comment on wording, presentation, design and layout, syntax, question and item validity, integration, comprehensibility, ambiguity, and time duration (Dillman, 2011). Based on the 20 returned responses, the survey questionnaire was further amended where it was appropriate. Issues were found to include the following: the instructions and wording were generally understandable; the time duration for completing the questionnaire was around 10 to 15 minutes; some questions were modified and reworded. The reliability (i.e. coefficient alpha) of the instrument was tested and the results are displayed in Table 2.

Reliability Testing

As suggested by Hair et al. (2006), the coefficient alpha of 0.60 or above mean suggests that, the items are performing well in capturing a specific latent variable. The overall results of latent variables composite coefficient alpha fell within the acceptable ranges that were from 0.686 to 0.822 (Table 2).

Table 2: Reliability of scale

Variable	No. of items	Sample	Cronbach's Alpha
Attraction to public participation (APP)	4	20	0.693
Commitment to Public Values (CPV)	4	20	0.686
Compassion (COM)	4	20	0.750
Self-Sacrifice (SS)	4	20	0.822
Job Satisfaction (JS)	20	20	0.792

Source: Field data, Dogbey (2019)

Data Collection Procedure

The data collection procedures and their instruments depend on the availability of facilities, time, costs, the degree of accuracy, the expertise of investigator, and other data gathering resources and techniques (Sekaran, 2010). The duration for the questionnaire was about two-months with a total number of seven research assistants, one assigned to each Metropolitan Assembly except for the Tamale Metropolitan Assembly with two research assistants. These research assistants were trained on the knowledge and ethics of the study to ensure that the outcome of the research was not compromised.

A survey questionnaire can be administered through two approaches: interview-completed, where the interviewer reads the questions and the statements and records the respondent's answers; and respondent-completed, where the respondent reads and fills out the questionnaire without help (Blumberg et al., 2008). Other elements of questionnaire administration are that the investigator considers the quality and rate of responses and the practicalities and problems of administration to be able to reduce the possibility of non-response bias and common method bias (Creswell, 2013).

Thus, the respondent completed (for those respondents who can read and write) approaches were used in this research study to obtain information from the respondents. In the case of the respondent completed sample, the researcher was present upon request to probe any incomplete answers and to clarify any unclear questions (Sekaran, 2010). The self-administrated (drop-and-collect) survey was used with the advantages of: administrative speed, response rate, questions and items clarity, motivation, anonymity, and sample and quality control (Creswell, 2013). The information was kept confidential and the research study outcomes were provided upon request. Even though self-administered surveys come with some disadvantages, they were minimised where possible and did not outweigh the benefits provided by high response rates in a short period of time.

Data Preparation and Processing

Data collected through survey-based research is suitable for computer analysis. The large amount of raw data gathered during this research study requires editing, sorting, coding, error check, and mathematical calculation

(Zikmund, 2012). Raw data is subject to editing and coding to check and verify errors before the statistical analysis is conducted (Blumberget al., 2012; Zikmund, 2012). The data editing process checks and adjusts data for omissions, reliability, and consistency before coding and later transferring to data storage processes (Sekaran, 2010; Zikmund, 2012). Upon receiving, the investigator checks the survey questionnaire completeness and eligibility of respondents. Then, the data coding process identifies and classifies each response with numerical scores and symbols (Zikmund, 2012). After that, cleaning and screening data requires data to be coded, consistent, and checked for missing values (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; Hair et al., 2006). Lastly, data is entered into the computer using a number of statistical software programs (i.e. SPSS 19.0 and Smart-PLS 2.0 M3) to obtain descriptive and inferential statistical analyses, to summarise information and data, and to examine the research questions and hypothesised conceptual model (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; Ringleetal., 2005).

Data Editing and Coding

The raw data was subjected to editing and coding to check and verify errors before the process of data analyses was conducted (Sekaran, 2010; Zikmund, 2012). The process of data editing provided a check for data omission, reliability, and validity before coding and later transferring into the data analysis software (Blumberg et al., 2008). Upon receiving the survey questionnaires, they were checked for both completeness and eligibility of respondents, resulting in three survey questionnaires that were found to be incomplete hence discarded. Furthermore, the process of data coding was to identify and classify each

response with numerical scores and symbols (Creswell, 2013). The survey questionnaire consisted primarily of pre-coded questions and items. All questions and items were examined and checked to ensure that they were consistent with pre-coded data.

Data Cleaning and Screening

The processes of data cleaning and screening required data to be coded, and checked for missing responses and values in the returned survey questionnaires (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; Hair et al., 2006). These processes improved the accuracy of data analyses and ensured that assumptions for data analysis techniques were not violated (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; Hair et al., 2006). Checking the accuracy of data was important by verifying out-of range responses, values, means, and standard deviations in order to be credible (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In dealing with missing data, Bryman (2012) suggests three methods that are pair-wise deletion (exclude missing data on variables involved in a particular computation), list-wise deletion (exclude missing data on variables involved in all computations), and imputation (replace missing data with mean estimate values). Missing data was not an issue in this research study as only three survey questionnaires were returned incomplete.

Response Rate

The survey questionnaire research strategy was selected to study 357 cases of the staff of the Metropolitan Assemblies using the simple random technique type with 324 returned survey questionnaire samples, 321 samples

were selected, excluding three incomplete ones. Excluding five cases with severe internal non-response or incomplete one and/or more sections, there was an effective sample of 321 to proceed with the survey questionnaire analysis process, which represented 89.91% of the total number of survey questionnaires sent.

Table 3: Response Rate

Categories	Frequency	Percentages
Target Sample	357	100
Total responses	324	90.7
Incomplete responses	3	0.84
Total usable responses	321	89.91

Source: Field data, Dogbey (2019)

The response rate fell within the response rate of 50%, 60% and 70% proposed by Babbie (2005) to be adequate, good and very good respectively, and well above the average response rate of 35.7% (+/- 18.8), which was normal for a research study conducted at the organisational level (Baruch & Holtom, 2008). Thus, a total of 321 usable and completed survey questionnaires were received for a response rate of 89.91%, as shown in Table 3 with a breakdown from each metropolitan assembly in Table 4.

Table 4: Valid Responses from each Metropolitan Assembly

Metropolitan Assembly	Frequency	Percentages
Kumasi	48	15.0
Accra	63	20.0

Table 4 continues

Tamale	45	14.0
Tema	50	15.6
Sekondi-Takoradi	61	19.0
Cape Coast	54	16.4
Total	321	100

Source: Field data, Dogbey (2019)

Data Analysis Procedure

Data collected were analysed quantitatively using both descriptive and inferential statistics. The data were first edited for errors and coded. Objective one sought to assess the levels of attraction to public participation (APP), commitment to public values (CPV), compassion (COM), self-sacrifice (SS) and job satisfaction (JS). Mean values were used for the analysis of objective one and two. The assessment was done using a scale ranging from 1 to 5 with 1 to 2.9 representing low levels and 3 to 5 representing high levels of a variable. The mean point of the scale minus (.1) was used as the cut-off point, as applied by Dess and Lumpkin (2005), and replicated by Yeboah (2011). Analysis was done using IBM SPSS Statistic version 19. By virtue of the nature of objectives 3, 4, 5 and 6, structural equation modelling techniques were used for the analyses.

Ethical Consideration

In order to ensure strict adherence to ethical standards of research, a clause assuring respondents of anonymity and confidentiality was also inserted in the introductory paragraph of the questionnaire. This was further buttressed by the exclusion of questions bordering on the identity of respondents and their

respective firms. These were some of the steps taken to ensure adherence to accepted ethical standards and practices, respect for participants as well as trust and confidence in the integrity of the study.

Chapter Summary

The study adopted the quantitative research design. A total of 375 respondents were randomly sampled from a population of 4793. The study used questionnaire as the instrument for gathering from the respondents. The data was processed with SPSS and structural equation modelling to examine the specific objectives of this study. Descriptive statistics such as frequencies and percentages were used to analyse the demographic results whiles the structural equation modelling was adopted for the specific objectives of the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Introduction

This chapter discusses the findings of the study with regard to the objectives. The chapter begins with a discussion on the demographic characteristics and knowledge background of the respondents. It continues with the determination of the levels of PSM dimensionality and job satisfaction which was done using IBM SPSS, examining the effect of attraction to public participation (APP), commitment to public values (CPV), compassion (COM) as well as self-sacrifice (SS) on job satisfaction (JS). Analyses for these were done, using the partial least squares (PLS) approach to structural equation modelling (SEM).

Background Characteristics of Respondents

This section presents the background characteristics of the respondents. Some of the issues considered under the section were the sex, category, age, level, department, years worked and the academic qualification of the respondents in the Metropolitan Assembly. From the study, the majority (52.6%) of the respondents were males, whilst the remaining 47.4 per cent were females. The gender dimension of the analysis was important because Liu (2008) argued that differences in the socio-cultural roles assigned to both sexes create differential influences in their attitudes and perceptions of public service motivation. Table 5 presents results on the age characteristics of the respondents. The Table shows that majority (52.3%) of the respondents were within the ages of 21 and 30 years

of age, 37.7 per cent were within the ages of 31 and 40 years, 8% within the ages of 41-50, whilst 24 per cent were within 51 and 60 years of age. The results show that the respondents were spread across different active working age cohorts.

Another issue considered under the section was the category of staff as presented in Table 5. The results show that 72.6 percent, which represents the majority of respondents were classified a Government of Ghana (GoG) workers whilst the remaining, representing the minority (27.4%) were classified as Internally Generated Fund (IGF) workers. This classification was based on the staff's source of salaries in the Metropolitan Assembly. Also, the study sought to investigate the level of staff of the respondents. The results as presented in Table 8 indicated that majority of the staff (52.3%) were non-managerial level in the Metropolitan Assembly whilst the remaining 47.7 per cent were holding managerial positions. Regarding the departments that the respondents were in, majority (22.4%) were in the Agriculture department. This was followed by the Education and Youth and Sports representing 17.8% and 17.4% respectively. The Finance and Health department had equal number of respondents of representing 12.5 percent of total respondents with the Department of Social welfare and Community Development constituting five per cent of total respondents. However, the Physical Planning Department recorded the lowest number of respondents representing eight per cent of the total number of employees.

Subsequently the study considered the number of years worked by each respondent as presented in Table 5. The results showed that majority (34.9%) of the respondents worked with their respective Metropolitan Assemblies within 1 to

5 years. This was followed by 32.7 and 19.9 per cent of respondents working within the range of 11 to 15 years and 6 to 10 years respectively. 12.5 percent representing the minority of respondents had worked in their respective Metropolitan Assemblies for a minimum of 16 years and above. That notwithstanding, the study further gathered information regarding the academic qualification of the respondents. As indicated in Table 5, majority of respondents had their First Degree, representing 33 per cent of respondents. This was followed by workers with the Post-graduate certificates and Professional certificates each representing 27.4 and 24.3 per cent respectively. However, respondents with HND/Diploma certificates were in the minority (15.3%). This discounts the perception that the public sector is made up of staff with little or no educational qualifications in Ghana.

Table 5: Demographic Characteristics of respondents

		Frequency	Percent
Sex	Male	169	52.6
	Female	152	47.4
	Total	321	100
Category of staff	Government of Ghana (GOG)	233	72.6
	Internally Generated Fund (IGF)	88	27.4
	Total	321	100
Age of respondents	21-30	168	52.3
	31-40	121	37.7
	41-50	8	2.5

Table 5 continues

	51-60	24	7.5
	Total	321	100
Level of Staff	Managerial	153	47.7
	Non-Managerial	168	52.3
	Total	321	100
Department of Staff	Central	32	10.0
	Administration		
	Finance	40	12.5
	Education	57	17.8
	Youth and Sports	56	17.4
	Health	40	12.5
	Agriculture	72	22.4
	Physical Planning	8	2.5
	Social Welfare and Community Development	16	5.0
	Total	321	100
	Years worked	1-5 years	112
6-10 years		64	19.9
11-15 years		105	32.7
16 years and above		40	12.5
Total		321	100
Academic qualification	HND/Diploma	49	15.3
	First degree	106	33
	Post graduate	88	27.4
	Professional	78	24.3
	Total	321	100

Source: Field data, Dogbey (2019)

Levels of PSM Dimensionality in Ghanaian Metropolitan Assemblies

Based on the conceptual framework in the second chapter, this study sought to examine the effect of the dimensions of PSM on job satisfaction. It became necessary to determine the levels of each of these dimensions in the Metropolitan Assemblies in Ghana. The assessment of the levels was to enhance both understanding of the relationships among the variables and the relevance of any recommendations stemming from the study. Objective one sought to determine the levels of PSM's dimensions on job satisfaction. These dimensions are; attraction to public participation (APP), commitment to public values (CPV), compassion (COM) and self-sacrifice (SS) (see Appendix A). The level of each variable was independently determined, using a mean scale of 1 to 5 with 1 to 2.9 indicating low levels and 3 to 5 indicating high levels. The cut-off point was arrived at using the mean of the scale.

Level of Attraction to Public Participation in Ghanaian Metropolitan Assemblies

APP consists of a main motive which is satisfied by the exertion of influence on people, institutions and policies leading to a higher self-esteem, coupled with individual satisfaction and the achievement of personal goals though advancing the interest of the public. In that light a public sector employee who has this predisposition of attraction is easily satisfied with the job since it fulfils an intrinsic desire that cannot be satisfied with extrinsic forms of motivation (Perry & Wise, 2015).

The results of the study showed that the respondent staff of the Metropolitan Assembly placed great priority on attraction to public participation. The respondents agreed that meaningful public service was of great importance to them ($\mu=4.4517$). Also, respondents agreed to the fact that it was important to contribute to activities that tackle social problems in their communities ($\mu = 4.3271$). The respondents strongly agreed to the fact that it was of great importance to contribute to the common good in society ($\mu=4.1028$) and subsequently affirming the fact that staff in the Metropolitan Assemblies admired people who initiated or were involved in activities that aided the community as a whole ($\mu=4.078$). This showed that respondents within the Metropolitan Assembly had a good sense of being attracted to public participation. The overall mean score ($\mu=4.2391$, Table 6) further suggests that staff within the Metropolitan Assemblies in Ghana put in great effort in participating in endeavours that allure to the public good.

Table 6: Level of Attraction to Public Participation

Attraction to Public Participation	Mean	Std. Deviation
Meaningful public service is very important to me	4.4517	.74057
It is important to contribute to activities that tackle social problems	4.3271	.95958
It is important for me to contribute to the common good	4.1028	.91789
I admire people who initiate or are involved in activities to aid my community	4.0748	.81816
Total	4.2391	

Scale (Mean): 0-2.9= low and 3-5= high

Source: Field data, Dogbey (2019)

Level of Commitment to Public Values in Ghanaian Metropolitan Assemblies

Commitment refers to a range of supportive actions rather than any one specific action. To know the extent of managerial commitment to public values is to know the extent of a range of actions that support some public value (Berman & West 2003; Hopkins, Hopkins, & Mallette 2001; Lamsa & Savolainen 2000). In that light, public sector employees who have these keen desires to commit to public values are in most cases would be satisfied with their jobs since it gives them the opportunity to meet these predispositions that are geared towards serving the common good.

The results of the study showed that the respondent staff of the Metropolitan Assembly portrayed a high level of commitment to public values. This was represented in Table 7 with respondents agreeing to the fact that it was fundamental that the interests of future generations were taken into account when developing public policies ($\mu=4.6262$), with respects to the fact that that there must exist equal opportunities for every citizen and stressing on the need to act ethically in the Metropolitan Assembly as public servants, the respondents agreed highly with a mean score of 4.4704 and 4.0779 respectively. However, with the least mean score ($\mu=3.7477$), though demonstrating a high level of agreement, respondents emphasized on the importance of the reliance on the continuous provision of public services by the Government through the Metropolitan Assembly. With a total mean score of 4.2306 as represented in Table 7, it is evident that staff within the Metropolitan Assemblies in Ghana showed a high level of commitment to public values.

Table 7: Level of Commitment to Public Values

Commitment to Public Values	Mean	Std. Deviation
It is fundamental that the interests of future generations are taken into account when developing public policies	4.6262	.76473
I think equal opportunities for citizens are very important	4.4704	.63730
To act ethically is essential for public servants	4.0779	1.21328
It is important that citizens can rely on the continuous provision of public services	3.7477	.96915
Total	4.2306	

Scale (Mean): 0-2.9= low and 3-5= high

Source: Field data, Dogbey (2019)

Level of Compassion in Ghanaian Metropolitan Assemblies

Compassion is an essential element in effective direct public sector work practice (Radey & Figley, 2007). In order to help clients, public sector workers must develop rapport and empathize with the citizens (McCann & Pearlman, 2011). Yet, as public workers' hearts go out to their clients through their sustained compassion, there is a great tendency to ensure better provision of public goods. In that light, energy from compassion can lead to a sense of flourishing which public sector workers experience the joy of helping others and find satisfaction with their work (Radey & Figley, 2007).

The results of the study showed that the respondent staff of the Metropolitan Assembly possessed a high level of compassion. As indicated in Table 8, respondents emphasized the fact that they get very upset when other people were being treated unfairly ($\mu=4.3988$) and also felt sympathetic to the

light of the underprivileged in the society ($\mu=4.3247$). that notwithstanding, staff of the Metropolitan Assemblies agreed to the fact that they empathize with other people who face difficulties in society ($\mu=4.2960$) and also considered the welfare of others in the society as very important ($\mu=4.2461$). With an overall mean of 4.2309 as presented in Table 8, it is clear that staff respondents within the Ghanaian Metropolitan Assembly had a high level of compassion.

Table 8: Level of Compassion

Compassion	Mean	Std. Deviation
I get very upset when I see other people being treated unfairly	4.3988	.88910
I feel sympathetic to the plight of the underprivileged	4.3427	.94589
I empathize with other people who face difficulties	4.2960	.71782
Considering the welfare of others is very important	4.2461	.99618
Total	4.2309	

Scale (Mean): 0-2.9= low and 3-5= high

Source: Field data, Dogbey (2019)

Level of Self-sacrifice in Ghanaian Metropolitan Assemblies

Self-sacrifice is portrayed by an employee who puts the welfare of others before their personal interests. Hence, a public sector employee who has this sense of self-sacrifice is often satisfied with the job in the public sector as working in this sector is normally described as a ‘sacrificial’ one in developing countries (Owusu, 2012).

The results of the study showed that the respondent staff of the Metropolitan Assembly possessed a moderately high level of self-sacrifice. As

indicated in Table 9, respondents agreed to the assertion that they were willing to make sacrifices for the good of society ($\mu=4.4455$) by agreeing to the fact that there must exist a good plan that is targeted towards making life better for the poor, even if it cost them money ($\mu=4.1745$). Respondents subsequently agreed to the assertion that they believed in putting the civic duty before self ($\mu=4.0717$) and though comparatively low, respondents in the Metropolitan Assemblies in Ghana agreed that they were willing to risk personal loss to help society ($\mu=3.6199$). With an overall mean of 4.0779 (see Table 9), it can be evaluated that the respondents of the Metropolitan Assembly possessed high level of self-sacrifice.

Table 9: Level of Self-sacrifice

Self-sacrifice	Mean	Std. Deviation
I am prepared to make sacrifices for the good of society	4.4455	.89669
I would agree to a good plan to make a better life for the poor, even if it costs me money	4.1745	1.02199
I believe in putting civic duty before self	4.0717	.93433
I am willing to risk personal loss to help society	3.6199	.99629
Total	4.0779	

Scale (Mean): 0-2.9= low and 3-5= high

Source: Field data, Dogbey (2019)

Level of Job Satisfaction in Ghanaian Metropolitan Assemblies

Objective two sought to determine the levels of job satisfaction in the Metropolitan Assemblies in Ghana. Job satisfaction is an individual's subjective feeling that reflects the extent to which his/her needs are met by the job.

Consequently, Spector (2003) sums up job satisfaction simply as “the extent to which people like their jobs”. In that light, the Metropolitan Assemblies in Ghana, having a staff strength of about 4793 needs to have a desired level of satisfaction in the execution of their jobs as their actions or inactions may have negative consequences to the society. The study used the Job Satisfaction Survey instrument popularly called the MSQ developed by Weiss et al. (1967) as cited in Abugre (2014), which has been thoroughly tested in both private and public organizational studies globally. The level of each variable was independently determined, using a mean scale of 1 to 5 with 1 to 2.9 indicating low levels and 3 to 5 indicating high levels. The cut-off point was arrived at using the mean of the scale.

The results of the study in Table 10 showed that the respondent staff of the Metropolitan Assembly were satisfied with the chance to be ‘somebody’ in the community ($\mu=4.3022$) as well as agreeing to being satisfied with the chance to do things for other people ($\mu=4.1994$). Also, the respondents agreed to being satisfied with the chance to do something that made use of their abilities ($\mu=4.1776$) which was further buttressed with the agreement to the chance to do different things from time to time ($\mu=4.1526$), in addition to being satisfied to try their own methods of doing their jobs ($\mu=4.0467$). This was supported by Jackson (2004) that employees in developing countries like Africa would tend to derive their personal goals from complex set of tasks that are challenging. Regarding the chance for respondents to tell people what to do, respondents agreed highly to their level of satisfaction ($\mu=4.0467$) by further indicating the

feeling of accomplishment they got from the job ($\mu=3.8224$) discounting the view that there was a common phenomenon in most sub-Saharan countries where public sector employees are found to be demoralized as productivity concerns are relegated to the background due to widespread absenteeism, moonlighting, corruption, feeling of non-accomplishment and political hiring (Owusu, 2006).

Subsequently, respondents of Ghanaian Metropolitan Assemblies agreed to the assertion that they were able to do things that do not go against their conscience ($\mu=3.7975$), in addition to being satisfied with the way the co-workers get along amongst themselves ($\mu=3.79440$). Regarding their level of satisfaction to the competencies of their immediate supervisor in making decisions, respondents moderately agreed to that ($\mu=3.7477$) by affirming the issue of keeping busy all the time ($\mu=3.7009$) and the praise they get from doing a good job ($\mu=3.6480$) which is a key component in motivating staff intrinsically (Wright & Bonett, 2007). That notwithstanding, respondents also moderately agreed to the satisfaction they get from their supervisors' abilities to handle the workforce ($\mu=3.6231$) as it gives the staff the freedom to use their own judgement in executing their tasks ($\mu=3.5981$) which opposes the of Kuada (2010) that most African employees have the inclination of following every aspect of their superiors' instructions at the detriment of their own creativity.

As unemployment and job security is on the rise in Ghana, especially in the private sector, respondents in the Metropolitan Assembly agreed to the satisfaction of being provided with steady employment ($\mu=3.4486$) coupled with the chance to advance in the job ($\mu=3.2462$), good implementation of the policies

($\mu=3.1994$) and favourable working conditions in the Metropolitan Assemblies ($\mu=3.1745$). However, in spite of the foregoing, respondents indicated a low level of satisfaction to the chance of independence needed in the execution of tasks ($\mu=2.9252$) and the issue of the pay congruence with the amount of work done in the Metropolitan Assembly ($\mu=2.7726$) though Judge et al., (2016) argue that the common and most important aspect of job satisfaction is the satisfaction with the pay, hence their low level of agreement. These findings are however consistent with findings about low incomes leading to job dissatisfaction in the public sector (Asiedu & Folmer, 2007; Faye et al., 2013; Okpara, 2004). As a result, most public sector workers end up condoning with these negative behaviours with the excuse that “the pay is small” and thereby looking for other means of supplementing their incomes (Woode, 2015).

With an overall mean of 3.8313, as presented in Table 10, it can be observed that respondents within the Metropolitan Assemblies in Ghana had a moderately high level of satisfaction with their job as opposed to (Abugre, 2014) who concluded that employees in the Ghanaian public sector exhibit a moderately low level of overall job satisfaction.

Table 10: Level of Job-Satisfaction

Job Satisfaction	Mean	Std. Deviation
I'm satisfied with the chance to be “somebody” in the community	4.3022	.92818
I'm satisfied with the chance to do things for other people	4.1994	.90007
I'm satisfied with the chance to do something that makes use of my abilities	4.1776	.89247

Table 10 continues

I'm satisfied with the chance to do different things from time to time	4.1526	1.15315
I'm satisfied with the chance to try my own methods of doing the job	4.0467	.70777
I'm satisfied with the chance to tell people what to do	4.0467	1.07282
I'm satisfied with the feeling of accomplishment I get from the job	3.8224	.97288
I'm satisfied with being able to do things that do not go against my conscience	3.7975	1.10091
I'm satisfied with the way my co-workers get along with each other	3.7944	.90559
I'm satisfied with the competence of my supervisor in making decisions	3.7477	.83021
I'm satisfied with being able to keep busy all the time	3.7009	1.10013
I'm satisfied with the praise I get from doing a good job	3.6480	.88251
I'm satisfied with the way my boss handles his/her workers	3.6231	.99277
I'm satisfied with the freedom to use my own judgment	3.5981	1.06823
I'm satisfied with the way my job provides for steady employment	3.4486	.89338
I'm satisfied with the chance of advancement on the job	3.2492	1.04293
I'm satisfied with the way company policies are put into practice	3.1994	.92743
I'm satisfied with the working conditions	3.1745	1.02199
I'm satisfied with the chance to work alone on the job	2.9252	1.00965
I'm satisfied with my pay and the amount of work I do	2.7726	1.21501
Total	3.8313	

Scale (Mean): 0-2.9= low and 3-5= high

Source: Field data, Dogbey (2019)

Specifying the Structural Model

According to Hair, Sarstedt, Hopkins, and Kuppelwieser (2014), the use of these techniques required that certain underlying assumptions were met before the results can be relied upon. These assumptions are related to sample size, multicollinearity, indicator reliability, construct reliability, discriminant validity, convergent validity as well as outer model significance. Prior tests were, therefore, carried out to ensure that these assumptions were met.

Sample Size

For sample size, Hair et al.'s (2011) formula for calculating the minimum sample size requirement for use in PLS-SEM was applied. The minimum sample size should be equal to the larger of the following (1) ten times the largest number of formative indicators used to measure one construct or (2) ten times the largest number of structural paths directed at a particular latent construct in the structural model. For this study, the largest number of structural paths directed at a particular latent construct in the structural model is 20. Hence, the minimum sample size will be $20 * 10 = 200$. While the 10 times rule offers a rough guideline for minimum sample size requirements, PLS-SEM, like any statistical technique, requires researchers to consider the sample size against the background of the model and data characteristics (Hair et. al.,2012). Specifically, the required sample size should be determined using power analyses based on the part of the model with the largest number of predictors. Since $321 > 200$, the minimum sample size requirement was duly met.

Multicollinearity

Pallant (2007) suggested that tolerance values below .10 and variable inflation factor (VIF) values of above 10 indicated multicollinearity among independent variables, thereby hindering the development of good PLS-SEM models. The tolerance values ranging from (0.363) to (0.743) and V.I.F values also ranging from (1.346) to (2.756), obtained from this analysis indicated the absence of multicollinearity between the exogenous variables. Table 11 displays the tolerance values as well as VIF values for the predictor variables.

Table 11: Multicollinearity amongst exogenous variables

Exogenous variable	Collinearity	
	Tolerance	VIF
Attraction to Public Participation (APP)	0.743	1.346
Commitment to Public Values (CPV)	0.628	1.592
Compassion (COM)	0.550	1.817
Self-Sacrifice (SS)	0.363	2.756

Source: Field data, Dogbey (2019)

Indicator Reliability

Indicator reliability specifies which part of an indicator’s variance can be explained by the underlying latent variable. A common threshold criterion is that more than 50% of an indicator’s variance should be explained by the latent construct. To get the indicator reliability values, each of the outer loadings is squared. With respect to the squared loadings, values ≥ 0.7 are preferred whilst

values ≥ 0.4 are acceptable (Hulland, 1999). These threshold values also mean that the shared variance between a construct and its indicator is larger than the variance of the measurement error (Esposito Vinzi et al., 2010). The indicators used in this model can be said to be reliable because all the squared loadings ranging from 0.403 to 1.000 (Appendix C) are within the acceptable threshold of 0.4 or higher (Hulland, 1999). In that light, some indicators i.e. APP1, APP3-4, CPV1, CPV3-4, COM2, JS2-7, JS9-11 and JS13-19 were dropped since they could not meet the threshold established.

Construct Reliability (Internal Consistency Reliability)

Although small indicator reliabilities may point to a given indicator's inadequate measurement of a construct, it is usually more important that all the construct's indicators jointly measure the construct adequately (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). This can be assessed by means of the construct reliability (Rodgers & Pavlou, 2003), which requires indicators assigned to the same construct to reveal a strong mutual association. Subsequently, the composite reliability measure (synonymous with factor reliability) can be used to check how well a construct is measured by its assigned indicators. Composite reliability can vary between 0 and 1. The preferred Composite reliability value is any value that is higher or equal to 0.70 even though values higher or equal to 0.5 are acceptable (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). In this section, internal consistency reliability is tested by extracting the Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability coefficient (Appendix C). All latent variables have the appropriate levels of Cronbach's alpha ranging from 0.700 to 1.000 and composite reliability values ranging from 0.601 to 1.000

(Appendix C). The model can therefore be said to have internal consistency reliability.

Convergent Validity of the Measurement Model

According to Gotz et al. (2010), a common measure to examine convergent validity in SEM models is the average variance extracted (AVE). AVE includes the variance of its indicators captured by the construct relative to the total amount of variance, including the variance due to measurement error. An AVE of less than 0.5 is considered insufficient as more variance is due to error variance than to indicator variance (Rogers & Pavlou, 2003). Hence, support is provided for convergent validity when each construct's average variance extracted (AVE) is 0.50 or higher (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Hair et al., 2011). In this section, convergent validity was tested by examining the AVEs of all the variables (see Appendix C). It was illustrated that the validity of the measurement scale was convergent, because all latent variable had AVEs of 0.5 or higher i.e. from 0.653 to 1.000 (Appendix C).

Discriminant validity

It is also recommended to test determine whether a study has discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2011). To ensure discriminant validity for each latent construct, the square roots of the average variance extracted (AVEs) should be larger than any of the correlations involving that latent construct (Hair et al., 2011). One method for assessing the existence of discriminant validity is the Fornell and Larcker's (1981) criterion. This method suggests that the square root

of AVE of each latent variable can be used to establish discriminant validity, if this value is larger than other correlation values among the latent variables.

Table 12: Fornell-Larcker Criterion for Checking Discriminant Validity

Variable	APP	COM	CPV	JS	SS
APP	1.000				
COM	0.196	0.817			
CPV	0.357	0.389	1.000		
JS	0.517	0.528	0.515	0.722	
SS	0.475	0.657	0.605	0.684	0.808

Source: Field Data (2019)

The second option for verifying discriminant validity is examining the cross loadings of the indicators. It is recommended that the measurement indicators' loadings on their assigned constructs should be in an order of magnitude larger than their loadings on the other constructs (Hair et al., 2012). Table 12 shows the square root of the AVE for each construct is higher than the other correlation values among the different latent variables, while Appendix D shows the cross-loadings for the indicators. It can be confirmed from Table 12 that the model demonstrates an appropriate level of discriminant validity, because the individual square roots of the AVEs for each latent variable is higher than any of the correlations shown below or above them. Additionally, the loadings of each indicator on its construct are higher than the cross loadings on other constructs (Appendix D). Thus, it can be concluded that the latent variables have discriminant validity.

However, the Fornell-Larcker criterion performs very poorly, especially when indicator loadings of the constructs under consideration differ only slightly (thus, all indicator loadings vary between 0.60 and 0.80). When indicator loadings vary more strongly, the Fornell-Larcker criterions’ performance in detecting discriminant validity issues improves but is still rather poor overall. (Voorhees, Brady, Calantone, & Ramirez, 2016). As a remedy, Henseler, Ringle and Sarstedt (2015) propose assessing the Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT) of the correlations. According Henseler et al (ibid), to a latent construct has discriminant validity when its HTMT ratio is below 0.850. The results presented in Table 13 show HTMT values well below 0.850.

Table 13: Heterotrait - Monotrait Ratio (HTMT)

	APP_	COM	CPV	JS	SS_
APP					
COM	0.288				
CPV	0.357	0.419			
JS	0.603	0.600	0.561		
SS	0.527	0.823	0.668	0.846	

Source: Field survey, 2019

Outer Model Significance

Finally, Wong (2013) recommended that all outer model loadings should be significant at the chosen alpha level. As presented in Appendix E all T-statistics of the outer model loadings are larger than 1.96 meaning that all outer model loadings are significant at the chosen alpha level of .05.

Explanation of Target Endogenous Variable Variance

The R^2 is a measure of the model's predictive accuracy. Another way to view R^2 is that it represents the exogenous variable's combined effect on the endogenous variable(s). Henseler et al. (2009) recommended labelling R^2 measures of 0.67, 0.33 and 0.19 for independent latent constructs in the inner path model as substantial, moderate and weak, respectively. The results (Table 14) show that the coefficient of determination, R^2 , for the Job satisfaction endogenous latent variable is 0.548 with an Adjusted R^2 of 0.538. This means that the four latent variables i.e. APP, CPV, COM and SS moderately explain 54.8% of the changes in Job satisfaction amongst staff of the Metropolitan Assemblies in Ghana, as shown in Table 14.

Table 14: Structural Model Coefficient of Determination and Assessment

Endogenous Variable	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Assessment
Job Satisfaction	0.548	0.538	Moderate

Source: Field data, Dogbey (2019)

Predictive Relevance (Cross-validated Redundancy)

The Q^2 is used to assess the predictive relevance of the inner model. This measure builds on a sample re-use technique, which omits a part of the data matrix, estimates the model parameters and predicts the omitted part using the estimates (Hair et al., 2014). The smaller the difference between predicted and original values, the greater the Q^2 , and thus the model's predictive accuracy. Specifically, a Q^2 value larger than zero for a particular endogenous construct indicates the path model's predictive relevance for this particular construct (Chin, 1998; Henseler et al., 2009) It should, however, be noted that while comparing the

Q^2 value to zero is indicative of whether an endogenous construct can be predicted; it does not say anything about the quality of the prediction (Rigdon, 2010; Sarstedt et al., 2014).

In addition to the previous criteria, it is necessary to assess the predictive relevance of the independent latent variables (Stone-Geisser's Q^2 test) (Roldán & Sanchez-Franco, 2012). It is claimed that a Q^2 larger than 0 means that the model has predictive relevance, whereas a Q^2 lower than 0 implies that the model is deficient in predictive relevance (Hiar et al., 2011; Roldán & Sanchez-Franco, 2012). Table 15 demonstrates that the Q -squared coefficients for the predictive relevance associated with each latent variable block in the model, through the dependent latent variables, all are larger than zero, which indicates that the model has predictive relevance.

Table 15: Predictive Relevance of the Independent Constructs

Latent variable	Q^2
APP→JS	0.226
CPV→JS	0.226
COM→JS	0.226
SS→JS	0.226

Source: Field data, Dogbey (2019)

Effect Sizes (f^2) of Exogenous Variables

The effect size for each path model is determined by calculating Cohen's f^2 . The f^2 is computed by noting the change in R^2 when a specific construct is eliminated from the model. Based on the f^2 value, the effect size of the omitted construct for a particular endogenous construct can be determined and values of

0.02, 0.15, and 0.35 can be viewed as indicating that an independent latent variable has a small, moderate or large effect respectively at the structural level (Roldán & Sanchez-Franco, 2012).

Table 16: Effect Sizes

Latent variable	f²	Assessment
APP→JS	0.116	moderate
CPV→JS	0.025	small
COM→JS	0.046	small
SS→JS	0.098	small

Source: Field data, Dogbey (2019)

Table 16 indicates that the effect sizes of the various structural paths in the model where APP→JS is moderate, CPV→JS is small, COM→JS is small and SS→JS is also small.

Hypothesis Testing

This study sought to assess four hypotheses. These include assessing the effects of attraction to public participation (APP), commitment to public values (CPV), compassion (COM) and self-sacrifice (SS) on job satisfaction (JS) within Metropolitan Assemblies in Ghana.

The Effect of Attraction to Public Participation (APP) on Job Satisfaction

The third research objective sought to assess the effect of attraction to public participation on job satisfaction of staff in the Metropolitan Assemblies in Ghana. Through the application of the Pls algorithm in the Smartpls (Ringle et al., 2005) software, the analysis of the data collected showed that attraction to public participation had a positive and significant effect on Job Satisfaction.

H₁: *Attraction to public participation positively affects job satisfaction*

Analysis and scrutiny of the data collected showed that attraction to public participation (APP) had a significant effect on job satisfaction (JS) ($\beta=0.266$, $p<0.05$; Table 17, Figure 2). The beta coefficient in the same direction as hypothesized, hence the hypothesis “*Attraction to public participation positively affects job satisfaction*” was supported.

Table 17: Structural model results for hypothesis 1,2,3 and 4

Hypothesis	Beta	Std Dev.	t-value	P-value	Interpretation
APP→JS	0.266	0.039	6.833	0.000	Significant
CPV→JS	0.133	0.067	1.984	0.047	Significant
COM→JS	0.194	0.071	2.749	0.006	Significant
SS→JS	0.350	0.080	4.371	0.000	Significant

Source: Field data, Dogbey (2019)

This means that an increase in attraction to public participation would result in an increase in the job satisfaction of staff within the Metropolitan Assemblies in Ghana. It further suggests that Metropolitan Assemblies that are able to record high levels of attraction to public participation would have their staff very satisfied with their jobs. These results indicate that work in the public administration, by means of its exclusive connection to public participation is well equipped to satisfy this interest (Vandenabeele & Van de Walle, 2008).

The Effect of Commitment to Public Values on Job Satisfaction

The fourth research objective sought to assess the effect of commitment to public values on job satisfaction of staff within the Metropolitan Assemblies in

Ghana. Through the application of the PLS algorithm in the Smartpls (Ringle et al., 2005) software, the analysis of the data collected showed that commitment to public values had a positive and significant effect on Job Satisfaction.

H₂: *Commitment to public values positively affects job satisfaction*

Analysis and scrutiny of the data collected showed that Commitment to public values (CPV) had a significant effect on job satisfaction (JS) ($\beta=0.133$, $p<0.05$; Table 17, Figure 2). The beta coefficient in the same direction as hypothesized, hence the hypothesis “*Commitment to public values positively affects job satisfaction*” was supported. This means that an increase in commitment to public values would result in an increase in the job satisfaction of staff within the Metropolitan Assemblies in Ghana. It further suggests that Metropolitan Assemblies that are able to record high levels of commitment to public values would have their staff very satisfied with their jobs. Research shows that commitment to public values that are associated with behaviours such as achieving outcomes, and motivating the workforce leads to job satisfaction in an organization (Beck Jørgensen 2002, 2007; Boyne 2002; Bozeman 2002, 2007; Van der Wal et al. 2006; West & Davis 2011).

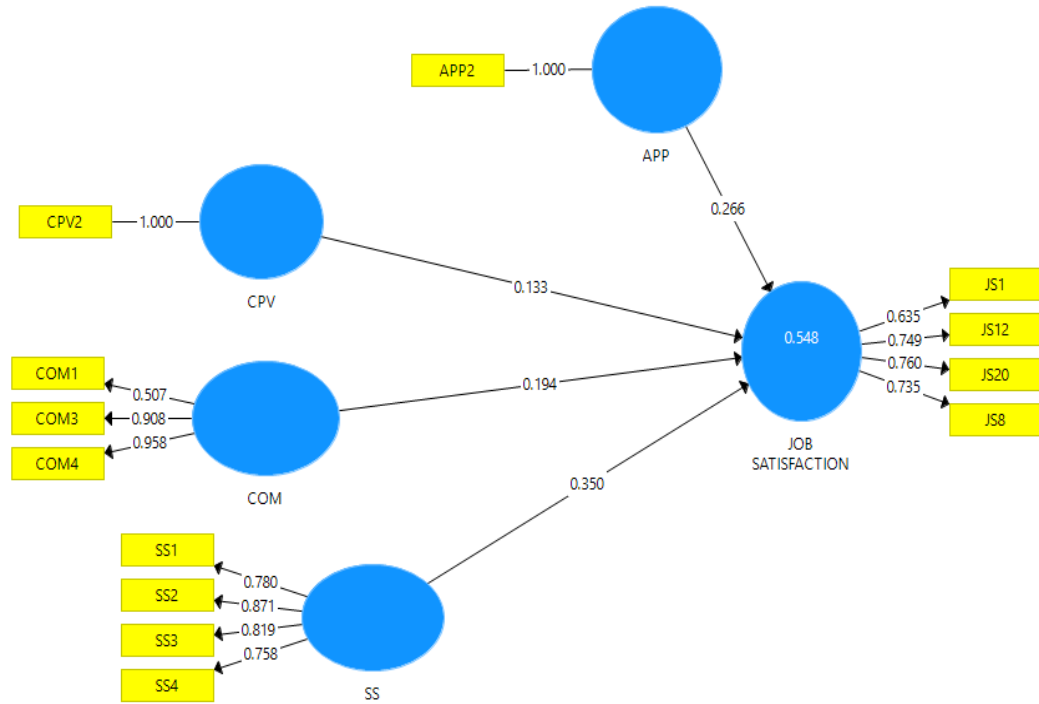


Figure 2: Outer and inner model results

Source: Field data, Dogbey (2019)

The Effect of Compassion on Job Satisfaction

The fifth research objective sought to assess the effect of compassion on job satisfaction of staff within the Metropolitan Assemblies in Ghana. Through the application of the PIs algorithm in the Smartpls (Ringle et al. ,2005) software, the analysis of the data collected showed that compassion had a positive and significant effect on Job Satisfaction.

H₃: *Compassion positively affects job satisfaction*

Analysis and scrutiny of the data collected showed that Compassion (COM) had a significant effect on job satisfaction (JS) ($\beta=0.194$, $p<0.05$; Table 17, Figure 2). The beta coefficient in the same direction as hypothesized, hence the hypothesis “*Compassion positively affects job satisfaction*” was supported.

This means that an increase in compassion would result in an increase in the job satisfaction of staff within the Metropolitan Assemblies in Ghana. It further suggests that Metropolitan Assemblies that are able to record high levels of compassion would have their staff very satisfied with their jobs. These results are consistent with the findings of Liu, Zhang and Lv (2014) who found a positive correlation between job satisfaction and compassion and further elaborated that compassion had a marginally positive effect on job satisfaction.

The Effect of Self-sacrifice on Job Satisfaction

The final research objective sought to assess the effect of self-sacrifice on job satisfaction of staff within the Metropolitan Assemblies in Ghana. Through the application of the PIs algorithm in the Smartpls (Ringle et al. ,2005) software, the analysis of the data collected showed that self-sacrifice had a positive and significant effect on Job Satisfaction.

H₄: Self-sacrifice positively affects job satisfaction

Analysis and scrutiny of the data collected showed that Self-sacrifice (SS) had a significant effect on job satisfaction (JS) ($\beta=0.194$, $p<0.05$; Table 17, Figure 2). The beta coefficient in the same direction as hypothesized, hence the hypothesis “*Self-sacrifice positively affects job satisfaction*” was supported. This means that an increase in self-sacrifice would result in an increase in the job satisfaction of staff within the Metropolitan Assemblies in Ghana. It further suggests that Metropolitan Assemblies that are able to record high levels of self-sacrifice would have their staff very satisfied with their jobs. These results indicate that the self-sacrifice of employees can be properly channeled towards

the effective achievement of public goals (Owusu, 2016) since the Metropolitan Assembly provides them with that opportunity to serve selflessly.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has analysed and discussed data on the demographic characteristics of the staff of Metropolitan Assemblies in Ghana. It assessed the levels of attraction to public participation (APP), commitment to public values (CPV), compassion (COM), self-sacrifice (SS) and Job Satisfaction (JS) of staff of Metropolitan Assemblies in Ghana. The chapter further assessed the effect of attraction to public participation (APP), commitment to public values (CPV), compassion (COM) and self-sacrifice (SS) on Job Satisfaction (JS) using the application of the PIs algorithm in the Smartpls (Ringle et al., 2005) software. However, the MSQ scale measuring job satisfaction must be critically reviewed to validate its applicability in the African context since most of the factors were not meeting the internal indicator reliability test. The next chapter deals with the summary, conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The concluding chapter of this study starts with a summary of the objectives of the study, methodology as well as data analyses techniques. It progresses with a summary of the key findings relating to each objective, conclusions, recommendations as well as suggestions for future research

Summary

The main aim of the study was to assess the effect of public service motivation on job satisfaction of staff of Metropolitan Assemblies in Ghana. Specifically, the study sought to assess the levels of each dimension of PSM i.e. attraction to public participation (APP), commitment to public values (CPV), compassion (COM) and self-sacrifice (SS) on Job Satisfaction (JS). It further assessed the effect of the dimensions of PSM on job satisfaction.

To help achieve the objectives, four supporting hypotheses were formulated and tested accordingly. The study employed partial least squares structural equation modelling as the main statistical technique for testing the hypotheses. From a population of 4793, 357 staff of the Metropolitan Assemblies in Ghana i.e. Accra, Tema, Cape Coast, Sekondi-Takoradi, Kumasi and Tamale were sampled, using the simple random technique. In all, 321 valid responses were obtained, thus an 89.91% response rate. Following a successful pre-test, self-administered questionnaires developed from a thorough review of the existing literature and tested for reliability and validity, were distributed to

respondents. The instrument centred on the demographic characteristics of the staff as well as the dimensions of PSM and job satisfaction.

Data on the demographic characteristics were analyzed using descriptive statistics, including frequencies and percentages. Analyses on the effect of the dimensions of PSM on job satisfaction were done using the partial least squares structural equation modelling technique. IBM SPSS Statistic version 19 and Smart PLS version 2.0 were employed in analyzing the data. A summary of the key findings of the study follows. An Alpha level of 0.05 was used for all tests of significance. The major findings as they related to the specific objectives and hypotheses of the study have been summarized accordingly.

The focus of the first objective was on the levels of PSM Dimensionality of the respondents (staff) of the Metropolitan Assemblies, and the main issues that emerged were:

1. Respondent (Staff) of the Metropolitan Assemblies exhibited high levels of attraction to public participation ($\mu= 4.2391$), commitment to public values ($\mu=4.2306$), compassion ($\mu= 4.2309$) and self-sacrifice ($\mu= 4.0779$).
2. The respondents agreed highly on all issues regarding attraction to public participation with attraction to meaningful public service deemed as very important ($\mu=4.4517$) and the admiration of people who initiate or are involved in activities to aid the community being the lowest contributor ($\mu=4.0748$)

3. The respondents also demonstrated a high level of commitment to public values with the agreement to the fact that it was fundamental that the interest of the future generations were taken into account when developing public policies ($\mu=4.6262$) and the importance of the reliance on the continuous provision of public services by the Government through the Metropolitan Assembly being the lowest contributor ($\mu=3.7477$)
4. The respondent staff of the Metropolitan Assembly possessed a high level of compassion by emphasizing their highest agreement to the fact that they get very upset when other people were being treated unfairly ($\mu=4.3988$) and also considered the welfare of others in the society as very important ($\mu=4.2461$), though being the lowest contributor.
5. The respondent staff of the Metropolitan Assembly also possessed a moderately high level of self-sacrifice with the highest agreement to the assertion that they were willing to make sacrifices for the good of society ($\mu=4.4455$) and they were willing to risk personal loss to help society ($\mu=3.6199$) being the lowest contributor.

The focus of the second objective was on the levels of job satisfaction of the respondents (staff) of the Metropolitan Assemblies, and the main issues that emerged were:

1. The respondents agreed highly to the fact that they generally were satisfied with the job at the Metropolitan Assemblies in Ghana ($\mu=3.8313$).

2. The respondents also affirmed their satisfaction by agreeing to highly to the fact that working in the Metropolitan Assemblies in Ghana gave them the chance to be ‘somebody’ in the community ($\mu=4.3022$) but however portrayed the least form of agreement to the chance of independence needed in the execution of tasks ($\mu=2.9252$) and the issue of the pay congruence with the amount of work done in the Metropolitan Assembly ($\mu=2.7726$) being the lowest contributors

The third, fourth, fifth and sixth objective focused on the effect of the dimensions of PSM on job satisfaction.

1. Attraction to public participation had a positive effect on job satisfaction ($\beta=0.266$, $p<0.05$, $R^2=0.548$)
2. Commitment to public values had a positive effect on job satisfaction ($\beta=0.133$, $p<0.05$, $R^2=0.548$)
3. Compassion had a positive effect on job satisfaction ($\beta=0.194$, $p<0.05$, $R^2=0.548$)
4. Self-sacrifice had a positive effect on job satisfaction ($\beta=0.350$, $p<0.05$, $R^2=0.548$)

Thus, the dimensions of PSM i.e. APP, CPV, COM and SS moderately explain 54.8% of the changes in Job satisfaction amongst staff of the Metropolitan Assemblies in Ghana

Conclusions

The following conclusions were drawn based on the findings of the study. For the first objective, it is concluded that there is a high level of public service motivation (attraction to public participation, commitment to public values, compassion and self-sacrifice) amongst Metropolitan Assemblies with attraction to public participation and self-sacrifice being the highest and lowest respectively.

With respect to the second objective, it can also be concluded that there exists a high level of satisfaction amongst the staff of Metropolitan Assemblies in Ghana with due to the fact that working in the Metropolitan Assemblies in Ghana gave them the chance to be ‘somebody’ in the community however there existed little chance of independence needed in the execution of tasks and the issue of the pay incongruence with the amount of work done in the Metropolitan Assembly

With respect to the hypothesis tested, it can be concluded that all the dimensions of PSM had a positive effect on job satisfaction of the staff within the Metropolitan Assembly and these effects were significant at varied degrees. Of all the dimensions of PSM, self-sacrifice was the highest contributor to job satisfaction, followed by attraction to public participation and compassion. Commitment to public values however, was the least contributor to job satisfaction in the Metropolitan Assemblies in Ghana

In summary it is concluded that PSM positively affects job satisfaction and hence directors or managers of Metropolitan Assemblies must channel these

unique predispositions in their staff to ensure that it yields the greatest benefit to their respective metropolis and by extension to Ghana as a whole.

Recommendations

Based on the key findings and conclusions presented, directors/managers of Metropolitan Assemblies are advised to:

1. ensure that much attention is paid to staff of the Metropolitan Assembly regarding their high levels of PSM as it can be meaningfully channeled towards greater achievement of public goals
2. invest adequate time ensuring that staff are given a favourable degree of independence in the performance of tasks and also match up pays with the amount of work done to enhance the level of job satisfaction amongst the staff
3. educate staff on the need for self-sacrifice in the Metropolitan Assembly as it is the highest contributor to job satisfaction.
4. motivate employees to stay constantly committed to public values as it aids in ensuring effectiveness in the execution of tasks geared towards the common good of society
5. align goals of the Metropolitan Assembly to suit the tenets of PSM as staff would easily recognize with it and execute tasks productively

Furthermore, with regards to policy direction, results from the study, without a doubt, imply that policy makers need to provide some form of education that would highlight the importance of PSM in public corporations how its effective channeling can translate into increased job satisfaction.

Suggestions for further research

It is suggested that further research be carried out in developing countries to aid in the generalizability of the scale measuring the dimensions of PSM. This will provide in-depth clarification with regard to how each dimension of PSM relates to one another as well as how that relationship enhances job satisfaction. In addition, a replication of this study within the Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MMDA's) in Ghana would give insight into the differences in the level of PSM and job satisfaction within these sectors. Finally, a study involving the role of organizational commitment as a mediator in enhancing the PSM-Job satisfaction relationship can be undertaken.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Questionnaire

UNIVERSITY OF CAPECOAST

SCHOOL OF BUSINESS

DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT

**QUESTIONNAIRE ON PUBLIC SERVICE MOTIVATION (PSM) AND
JOB SATISFACTION OF EMPLOYEES OF METROPOLITAN
ASSEMBLIES IN GHANA**

Dear Sir/Madam,

This research instrument is designed to assess the effect of Public Service Motivation (PSM) on job satisfaction of employees of the Metropolitan Assemblies in Ghana. This is in partial fulfillment in the award of a Master's degree at the University of Cape Coast. As a result, any information given would be treated with utmost confidentiality. Please select the appropriate options for the questions by checking their corresponding boxes.

Section A: Background of respondents

1. Category of staff: [1] Government of Ghana (GOG) [2] Internally Generated Fund (IGF)
2. Sex of respondent: [1] Male [2] Female

3. Age (years) of respondent: [1] 21 and 30 [2] 31 – 40 [3] 41 –50 [4] 51 – 60 [5] Above 60
4. Level of Staff [1] Managerial [2] Non-Managerial
5. Department of staff
6. Name of Metropolitan Assembly.....
7. Number of years working with the Metropolitan: [1] Below 3 years [2] 3 – 6 years [3] 7 – 10 years [4] 11 – 14 years [5] Above 14 years

Section B: Dimensions of Public Service Motivation

8. Please indicate the extent of your **agreement** with the following statements on a 5-point scale (Please circle your answer). Where 1 = Weak agreement and 5 = Very Strong agreement

CODE	STATEMENTS					
	Attraction to Public Participation (APP)					
APP1	I admire people who initiate or are involved in activities to aid my community	1	2	3	4	5
APP2	It is important to contribute to activities that tackle social problems	1	2	3	4	5
APP3	Meaningful public service is very important to me	1	2	3	4	5
APP4	It is important for me to contribute to the common good	1	2	3	4	5
	Commitment to Public Values (CPV)					
CPV1	I think equal opportunities for citizens are very important	1	2	3	4	5

CPV2	It is important that citizens can rely on the continuous provision of public services	1	2	3	4	5
CPV3	It is fundamental that the interests of future generations are taken into account when developing public policies	1	2	3	4	5
CPV4	To act ethically is essential for public servants	1	2	3	4	5
	Compassion (COM)					
COM1	I feel sympathetic to the plight of the underprivileged	1	2	3	4	5
COM2	I empathize with other people who face difficulties	1	2	3	4	5
COM3	I get very upset when I see other people being treated unfairly	1	2	3	4	5
COM4	Considering the welfare of others is very important	1	2	3	4	5
	Self-Sacrifice (SS)					
SS1	I am prepared to make sacrifices for the good of society	1	2	3	4	5
SS2	I believe in putting civic duty before self	1	2	3	4	5
SS3	I am willing to risk personal loss to help society	1	2	3	4	5
SS4	I would agree to a good plan to make a better life for the poor, even if it costs me money	1	2	3	4	5

Section C: Job Satisfaction

9. Please indicate the extent of your **agreement** with the following statements on a 5-point scale. (Please circle your answer) Where 1 = Weak agreement and 5 = Very Strong agreement

CODE	STATEMENTS					
	I'm satisfied with.....					
JS1	being able to keep busy all the time	1	2	3	4	5
JS2	the chance to work alone on the job	1	2	3	4	5
JS3	the chance to do different things from time to time	1	2	3	4	5
JS4	the chance to be "somebody" in the community	1	2	3	4	5
JS5	the way my boss handles his/her workers	1	2	3	4	5
JS6	the competence of my supervisor in making decisions	1	2	3	4	5
JS7	being able to do things that do not go against my conscience	1	2	3	4	5
JS8	the way my job provides for steady employment	1	2	3	4	5
JS9	the chance to do things for other people	1	2	3	4	5
JS10	the chance to tell people what to do	1	2	3	4	5
JS11	the chance to do something that makes use of my abilities	1	2	3	4	5
JS12	the way company policies are put into practice	1	2	3	4	5
JS13	my pay and the amount of work i do	1	2	3	4	5
JS14	the chance of advancement on the job	1	2	3	4	5
JS15	the freedom to use my own judgment	1	2	3	4	5

JS16	the chance to try my own methods of doing the job	1	2	3	4	5
JS17	the working conditions	1	2	3	4	5
JS18	the way my coworkers get along with each other	1	2	3	4	5
JS19	the praise i get from doing a good job	1	2	3	4	5
JS20	the feeling of accomplishment i get from the job	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you

APPENDIX B

Krejcie and Morgan's Sample Size Determination Table

N	S	N	S	N	S
10	10	220	140	1200	291
15	14	230	144	1300	297
20	19	240	148	1400	302
25	24	250	152	1500	306
30	28	260	155	1600	310
35	32	270	159	1700	313
40	36	280	162	1800	317
45	40	290	165	1900	320
50	44	300	169	2000	322
55	48	320	175	2200	327
60	52	340	181	2400	331
65	56	360	186	2600	335
70	59	380	191	2800	338
75	63	400	196	3000	341
80	66	420	201	3500	346
85	70	440	205	4000	351
90	73	460	210	4500	354
95	76	480	214	5000	357
100	80	500	217	6000	361
110	86	550	226	7000	364
120	92	600	234	8000	367
130	97	650	242	9000	368
140	103	700	248	10000	370
150	108	750	254	15000	375
160	113	800	260	20000	377
170	118	850	265	30000	379
180	123	900	269	40000	380
190	127	950	274	50000	381
200	132	1000	278	75000	382
210	136	1100	285	1000000	384

APPENDIX C

Measurement model results

Latent Variable	Indicators	Loadings	Loadings Squared	Coefficient Alpha	Composite Reliability	AVE
APP	APP2	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
COM	COM1	0.507	0.301	0.761	0.849	0.667
	COM3	0.908	0.825			
	COM4	0.958	0.918			
CPV	CPV2	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
SS	SS1	0.780	0.608	0.823	0.882	0.653
	SS2	0.871	0.759			
	SS3	0.819	0.671			
	SS4	0.758	0.575			
JS	JS1	0.635	0.403	0.700	0.812	0.601
	JS8	0.735	0.540			
	JS12	0.749	0.561			
	JS20	0.760	0.578			

APPENDIX D

Cross loadings between measures

Variable	APP	COM	CPV	JS	SS
APP2	1.000	0.196	0.357	0.517	0.475
COM1	-0.182	0.507	0.179	0.098	0.412
COM3	0.287	0.908	0.320	0.443	0.539
COM4	0.151	0.958	0.403	0.564	0.662
CPV2	0.357	0.389	1.000	0.515	0.605
JS1	0.329	0.228	0.141	0.635	0.411
JS12	0.405	0.220	0.445	0.749	0.383
JS20	0.463	0.399	0.618	0.760	0.660
JS8	0.267	0.637	0.159	0.735	0.447
SS1	0.384	0.643	0.535	0.536	0.780
SS2	0.448	0.358	0.602	0.540	0.871
SS3	0.338	0.593	0.423	0.644	0.819
SS4	0.376	0.523	0.398	0.464	0.758

APPENDIX E

T-values for outer model

Indicator	APP	COM	CPV	SS	JS
APP2	4.055				
COM1		12.786			
COM3		20.921			
COM4		17.845			
CPV1			7.655		
SS1				13.802	
SS2				34.317	
SS3				39.576	
SS4				16.296	
JS1					7.655
JS8					10.774
JS12					12.791
JS20					26.475