

**EFFECTS OF ORGANISATIONAL POLICIES AND
PRACTICES ON JOB SATISFACTION AMONG
EMPLOYEES IN INTERNATIONAL NON-
GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS (INGOs)**

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Abstract

Since International Non-Governmental Organisations (INGOs) gained United Nations' recognition in the 1950s, they have continued to grow in stature as key global players. Consequently, a lot of research attention has been devoted to the global influence of INGOs and the management challenges that they face. Despite steady increase in the number of research publications that focus on a wide range of INGO issues, employee job satisfaction has yet to receive serious research attention. This study seeks to fill that gap by examining forms and levels of job satisfaction among INGO employees in the United Kingdom and Africa.

The study explores the influence of INGO mission, culture, structure and HRM policies and practices on employee job satisfaction. The questions addressed in this research focus on how employees perceive their jobs and the performance of INGOs in executing corporate missions, application of principles and values, working relations between headquarters and field locations and HRM policies and practices . Data collection involved 35 in-depth interviews with employees in various INGOs in the UK and Africa. The secondary method for data collection is questionnaire administration.

Findings from this research contribute to what is currently known about job satisfaction in the INGO sector. Interpreting accounts of work experiences through dialectical mechanisms represents a unique and dynamic approach to the study of job satisfaction. Furthermore, the finding that effective application of corporate principles and values remains a critical factor as far as job satisfaction among INGO employees is concerned challenges the thinking that 'corporatisation' and 'professionalization' have robbed the sector of its values.

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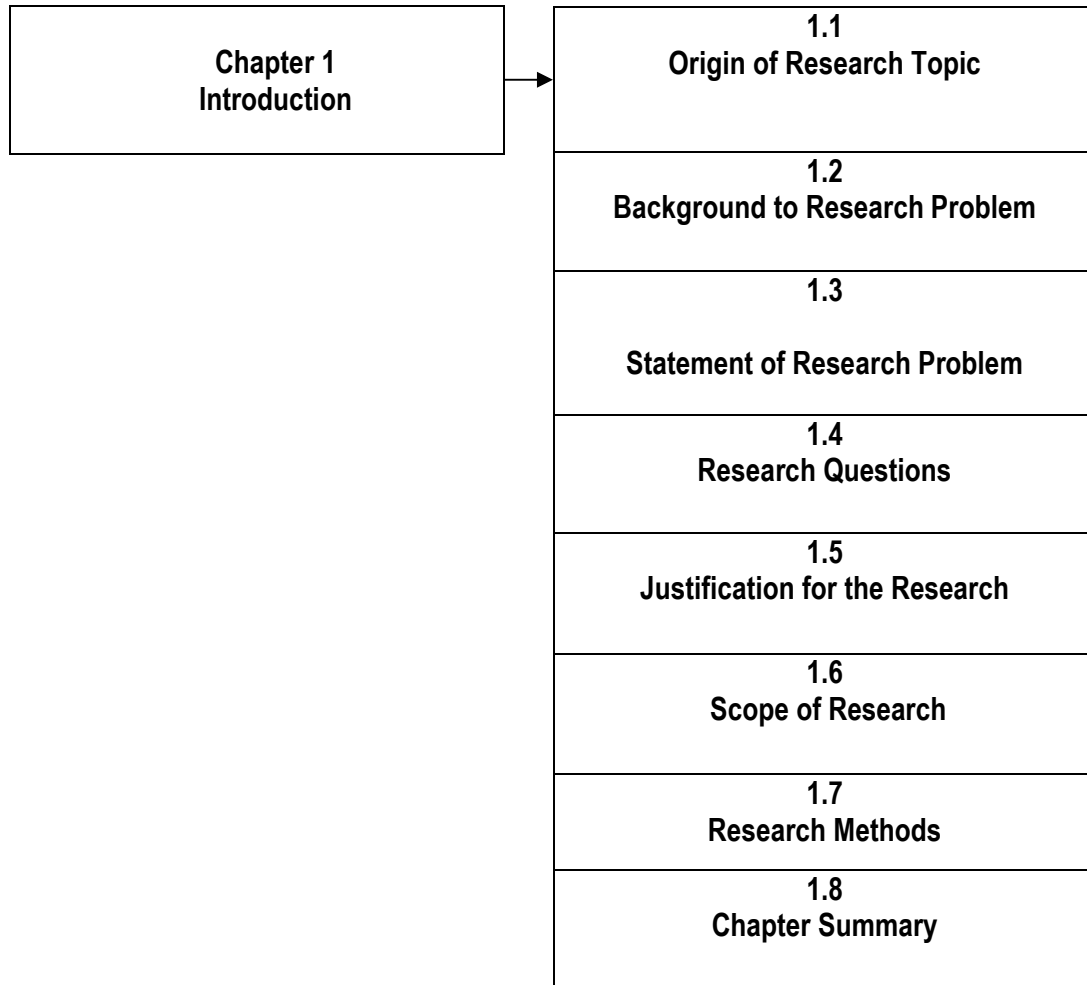
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STRUCTURE OF CHAPTER 1



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Origin of Research topic

This researcher's interest in the topic of this dissertation goes back to the workshop on 'Conflict resolution and stress management' that he attended in Copenhagen in 2000. At the workshop that was organised for senior field managers of the International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies (IFRC), most of the participants described their jobs as 'very stressful' but 'satisfying'. The way the managers described their jobs interested this researcher. The managers also told this researcher that their commitment to the principles of the Red Cross Movement was a critical factor in their decision to remain with IFRC even though they could secure better conditions of service in other organisations.

The contradictions apparent in the views expressed by the field managers made a strong case for the investigation of job satisfaction as perceived by IFRC personnel and employees in other International Non-Governmental Organisations (INGOs).

1.2. Research Problem : Background

The United Nations used the term Non-Governmental Organization (NGO) for the first time in 1950 to describe organisations that had consultative status at its Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) but no affiliation with governments (Vakil, 1997). Globalisation has contributed to the accelerated growth enjoyed by INGOs (Dichter, 1999). The fact that in 2006, the INGO sector accounted for one third or \$5.5 billion of annual global multilateral aid flows (Lewis, 2006) testifies to the global influence of NGOs (Salamon & Anheier, 1996b). According to the Global Policy Forum the number of NGOs that have General Consultative Status with ECOSOC increased from 100 to 137 or by 27% between 1998 and 2008 (GPF, 2009).

As global players, INGOs face stiff competition for financial, material and human resources (Simeant, 2005) like international business organisations. Other key challenges that INGOs face include meeting stakeholders' demand for greater accountability, transparency and efficiency (Lindenberg & Dobel, 1999; Anheier & Themudo, 2002). In an operating environment characterised by the factors identified above, corporate survival becomes central to management strategy as today's INGO is 'forced to be more corporation-like and less church-like. Its primary concern, though rhetorically is still to actualise social visions, is also to cater to a market place (of ideas, funders, backers, supporters'. (Dichter, 1999:54).

1.3. Statement of research problem

Against the background above this researcher argues that the conflicting demands that most organisations in the sector face underline the complexity of INGO management. Some of the key demands that INGOs have to address are as follows:

- (i) In order to survive INGOs have to operate as efficiently as business organisations but in doing so they must not sacrifice their missions or lose their legitimacy (Walker, 2007; Beck et.al, 2007; Dolnicar et. al., 2008)
- (ii) INGOs are values-based organisations but in operating according to their principles and values , they must be pragmatic and flexible enough to work with and meet the requirements of different stakeholders (Hailey, 2000; Mowles, 2008; Van Woudenberg, 2005)
- (iii) INGOs must give equal priority to and combine effectively strategic issues such as resource mobilisation and allocation that are handled at the headquarters level and programme implementation that is carried out in field locations (Suzuki, 1998) .

(iv) Effectiveness of INGOs depends mainly on the commitment of their employees

(Brewster & Lee, 2006; Brown et al., 2004). In order to maximise employee commitment they have to adopt commitment-focused SHRM philosophy (Nishii et al., 2008). INGOs also have to control costs to be competitive which implies that they have to adopt control-focused SHRM philosophy(Nishii et al., 2008). Considering that the two SHRM philosophies are in conflict with each other, the challenge before INGOs is to maintain a balance between commitment-focused and control- focused SHRM philosophies.

The demands outlined above are discussed in detail in Sections 2.8 to 2.11 as some of the challenges that INGO face which have implications for the nature and level of job satisfaction perceived by their employees. The main problem addressed in this research is that of understanding the effects that INGO policies and practices have on job satisfaction perceived by their employees. An organisation's human resource management systems, policies and procedures shape employees' perceptions of what is fair and where there is a perception of unfairness employees are more likely to manifest negative work attitudes (Peccei, 2004; Edgar & Geare, 2005). HR practices that organisations adopt also affect employees' job satisfaction and stress levels (Peccei, 2004). Similarly, Strategic HRM activities such as team deployment, human resource planning, training and development, performance/career management, and employee involvement are related to employee motivation (Papazisi, et. al. , 2005: 719).

1.4. Research Questions

In order to address the problem stated above, this research seeks to answer the questions below.

1. What effects do the missions or specialities of INGOs have on the job satisfaction of their employees?

The International Classification for Non-profit Organizations (ICNPO) (Salamon & Anheier, 1996a) discussed in Chapter 2 indicates that INGOs are diverse in terms of their missions or mandates. This research question focuses on the influence of INGO type on the job satisfaction of employees based on the following assumptions:

- (a) employees in different INGOs are committed to specific corporate missions; and
- (b) the differences in missions between INGOs also imply that working environments in INGOs will influence employee job satisfaction differently
- (c) employees' satisfaction with their jobs has impact on their commitment to corporate mission.

This research question explores how employees' perceptions of the execution of corporate missions, and satisfaction with their specific jobs influence their decision to continue their careers in the INGO sector and their commitment to INGO missions. This research question covers the important issues as to why people work for INGOs and other non-profit organisations and why they remain in those organisations (Schepers et. al., 2005).

Central to this research question is the adaptation of the international Classification of Non-Profit Organisations (ICNPO) (Salamon & Anheier, 1996a). Instead of the multiple classification system that ICNPO adopts for INGOs, INGOs whose employees participated in this research are classified in Section 2.2 based on their core activities as defined by their missions.

2. What effects does working according to corporate principles and values have on the job satisfaction of INGO employees?

INGO employees are guided by their organisations' principles and values in carrying out their activities. INGO employees often face ethically challenging situations therefore it is not realistic for them and their organisations to expect they will always be able to adhere strictly to their principles and values (Van Woudenberg, 2005). This research question focuses on the effects that working according to corporate principles and values have on employee job satisfaction.

3. What effects do the working relations between INGO Headquarters and field offices have on the job satisfaction of employees?

How INGO employees based at the headquarters and field offices perceive their working relations influences the level or form of job satisfaction that they manifest. The differences in how INGO headquarters and field offices perceive the effectiveness of each other's performance highlight the tensions in headquarters – field offices working relations (Suzuki, 1998; Fyvie & Alastair, 1999). Whilst field offices implement programmes and plans, managers and departments at the headquarters provide strategic, financial and technical support required for successful programme implementation (Suzuki, 1998).

Poor or ineffective communication and the harsh realities of field operations influence the perception of headquarters by field offices and affect the conduct of working relations between both parties (Suzuki, 1998). The difference between level of support expected by the field offices and that provided by the headquarters, most often, leads field offices to see the headquarters as distant, bureaucratic and unhelpful (Suzuki, 1998). This research question examines the effects that the perceptions above have on job satisfaction of INGO employees in both locations.

4. What effects do the HRM policies and practices in INGOs have on job satisfaction of employees?

INGOs face global competition for resources just like other international organisations (Simeant, 2005). In order for them to meet the needs of their stakeholders INGOs adopt management principles and techniques from the business sector (Lewis, 2003). Examples of some of the theories and concepts that have been 'imported' into INGO management are strategic management, in search of excellence, and participatory management (Lewis, 2003). This research question addresses the effects that HRM practices informed by the concepts above have on employee job satisfaction in INGOs.

5. What are the differences and similarities in job satisfaction perceived by INGO employees based in the United Kingdom and Africa ?

Studies focusing on organisations in other sectors reported that employees working in different locations perceive their work environment differently even when they belong to the same organisation (Newman, 1975). Most international NGOs have headquarters in the United Kingdom (UK) and field offices in Africa.

This research question explores the effects that differences in socio-cultural and operational environments have on job satisfaction of employees by comparing nature and level of job satisfaction of employees in both locations based on the four research questions raised earlier.

For each research question quantitative analysis of survey data involved the decision whether to accept or reject the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between job satisfaction and the variables covered by each research question.

1.5. Justification for the research

By 1999, researchers had produced about 6700 articles and dissertations on different aspects of job satisfaction (Oshagbemi, 1999). Research interest in job satisfaction and other work related attitudes could be traced back to the Hawthorne studies conducted in the 1930's (Judge et al., 2001). A recent study traced the history further back to the 1900s when scholars focused on the effects of mental monotony, fatigue and boredom on employee output (Wright, 2006). Research interest in job satisfaction remains high and organisations measure job satisfaction because of the belief that it has implications for work related outcomes such as productivity, absenteeism and turnover (Bussing et. al., 1999; Koh & Boo, 2001; Schyns & Croon, 2006). It has also been argued that researching job satisfaction could be rewarding in itself because pleasure or satisfaction are '*desirable by nature*' (Smith, 1974:273).

The job satisfaction literature is very rich in terms of the range of professions, sectors and geographical locations covered. However, careful survey of job satisfaction literature by this researcher revealed that few studies focused on work – related attitudes among employees in International Nongovernmental Organisations (INGOs) or HRM in the sector (Brewster & Lee, 2006). Even those studies did not have employee job satisfaction as their focus but analysed management practices and factors that motivate INGO employees.

It is encouraging to note that the number of studies that focus on INGOs continues to increase due to the sector's rising profile. However, the observation that most of the publications on INGO issues 'rarely adds up to comprehensive analysis informed by history, theory or the application of more rigorous methodologies' (Lewis, 2006: 187) gives cause for concern. The conceptual understanding of INGOs has not improved because of the preponderance of descriptive, sectarian and parochial studies contributed by academic activists and practitioners (Najam, 1999, cited in Lewis, 2006).

Specific contributions that this research makes to knowledge are addressed in detail in Chapter 6. In summary, the contributions are as follows:

- (i) This research fills the current gap in job satisfaction literature that has no contribution focusing on job satisfaction among employees of international NGOs.
- (ii) Beyond the traditional understanding and treatment of job satisfaction as a measurable variable in many studies, this research provides a dynamic understanding of the concept of job satisfaction. Such understanding evolves from the dialectical approach that underpins the conceptual framework for this research; and
- (iii). The cross-cultural perspective of INGO job satisfaction that the study provides represents a unique contribution to literature.

1.6. Scope of Research

The research problem stated in Section 1.3 above is addressed with focus on INGOs that have operations in the UK and Africa. Focusing on INGOs in both locations is based on the assumption that in-depth understanding of the forms and levels of employee job satisfaction in both locations will improve academic understanding of job satisfaction especially as it relates to the INGO sector. This researcher's decision to focus on INGOs that operate in the United Kingdom and Africa is discussed further in Section 4.4.

1.7. Research Methods.

In the mixed research methods model adopted in this research, qualitative research method (Qual) is the primary method and quantitative method (quan) the secondary method. The 35 in-depth interviews conducted for INGO employees in Africa and the United Kingdom provided the qualitative data for this research (Appendices A1 & A2). Each interview was treated as a case in line with the multiple case study design adopted in this research. This researcher analysed accounts of interview participants with the aid of Nvivo8 software, Microsoft Office Word and Excel. The conceptual framework for this research that is based on Hegel's dialectic guided the integrated analysis of interview data and results obtained from statistical analysis of questionnaire responses. The steps followed in analysing interview data, the conduct of integrated data analysis and the descriptive characteristics of interview participants are discussed in Sections 4.5.2, 4.7 and 5.2 respectively.

The quantitative approach involved the administration of Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) designed by Paul Spector (1997) and analysis of responses using the cross tabulation function of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS Version 15.0). This researcher analysed 148 questionnaires that were properly completed by survey participants. The descriptive characteristics of survey participants are analysed in Section 5.3. and the steps followed in analysing questionnaire responses are explained in Section 4.6.2.

1.8. Summary

This thesis is divided into six chapters. This introductory chapter provided the background to the research problem, stated the research problem and the questions designed to address the problem.

The chapter also covered the justification for this research and its scope.

Chapter 2 covers the critical review of literature based on the themes that are relevant to research questions.

Chapter 3 focuses on the presentation of conceptual framework for this research.

Chapter 4 provides detailed explanation and justification for the research methods and the procedures followed in conducting this research.

Chapter 5 addresses the presentation and analysis of findings.

Chapter 6 summarises the main argument in this research, discusses research findings, outlines the contributions that this research makes to knowledge and suggests an agenda for further research.

The next chapter deals with the review of literature relevant to the research questions raised in Section 1. 4.

STRUCTURE OF CHAPTER 2

Chapter 2 Introduction	2.1 Introduction
	2.2 INGO Definition & Classification
	2.3 Concept of Job Satisfaction
	2.4 Theories of Motivation
	2.5 Theories of Job Satisfaction
	2.6 Dynamic Model of Job Satisfaction
	2.7 Measures of Job Satisfaction
	2.8 INGO Missions & Job Satisfaction
	2.9 INGO Culture & Job Satisfaction
	2.10 INGO Organisational Structures & Job Satisfaction
	2.11 HRM in INGOs & Job Satisfaction
	2.12 Tensions & Contradictions in INGO Management
	2.13 Hegelian Dialectic
	2.14 Pragmatic Critical Realism
	2.15 Chapter Summary

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

The picture of 'the current state of NGO research' (Lewis, 2006) painted in Chapter 1 reinforced the need to provide a robust theoretical foundation for this research. Such foundation is necessary to bridge the gap in conceptual understanding of INGOs that was identified earlier (Najam, 1999; cited in Lewis, 2006).

This chapter reviews contributions that the researcher considered relevant to the research problem and questions raised in Chapter one. The discussion of classification of INGOs (2.2) is followed by clarification of the concept of job satisfaction (2.3). The clarification of the job satisfaction concept provides context for the discussion of theories of motivation (2.4) as the bases for situational theories of job satisfaction (2.5) and dynamic model of job satisfaction (2.6). The model provides typology of qualitative forms of job satisfaction adopted in the conceptual framework discussed in Chapter 3.

Review of job satisfaction theories is followed by a discussion of methods for measuring job satisfaction (2.7). Issues that are relevant to the research questions raised in Chapter one are discussed under INGO missions (2.8), INGO culture (2.9), INGO organisational structures and (2.10), Human Resources Management in INGOs (2.11).

Section 2.12 summarises the tensions and contradictions identified in INGO management based on the discussions in Sections 2.8 to 2.11. In Section 2.13 Hegelian dialectic is proposed as mechanism to explore and synthesise tensions and contradictions highlighted in Section 2.12 based on Pragmatic Critical Realist research philosophy that is explained in Section 2.14. The chapter ends with a summary (2.13) that highlights key issues arising from the literature and insights that informed the conceptual framework presented in the chapter that follows.

2.2. INGO Definition and Classification.

NGOs are 'self-governing, private, not-for-profit organisations that are geared to improving the quality of life of disadvantaged people (Vakil, 1997:2060). Another definition that emphasises missions or activities to differentiate NGOs from other non-profit organisations describes them as '*organisations of individuals and donors committed the promotion of a particular [set of] issue(s) through advocacy work and/or through operational activities whereby services are provided* ' (Doh & Teegen, 2003: 206 -207).

The revised version of The International Classification of Non-profit Organisations (ICNPO) published by Salamon and Anheier (1996a) addressed the controversies surrounding the definition and classification of INGOs to some extent (Vakil, 1997). According to the ICNPO, non-profit organisations are organised or partly institutionalised, private or nongovernmental, and self-governing entities that do not distribute any profits that they may generate to their directors (Salamon & Anheier, 1996a). Using scope of operations and type of activities as its parameters, the ICNPO grouped non-profit organisations including INGOs as follows:

Group 1 Culture and Recreation

Group 2: Education and Research

Group 3: Health

Group 4: Social Services,

Group 5: Environment

Group 6: Development and Housing,

Group 7: Law, Advocacy and Politics,

Group 8: Philanthropic Intermediaries and Voluntarism Promotion,

Group 9: International

Group 10: Religion

Group 11: Business and Professional Associations, Unions and

Group 12: NGOs Not Elsewhere Classified.

All the groups above except those from eight to 12 have subgroups that list specific activities that NGOs carry out. For example Civic and Advocacy Organisations (7 100), Law and Legal Services (7 200) and Political Organisations (7 300) are listed under Group 7. National or single focus NGOs are classified based on their specific area of activity. NGOs that work internationally come under Group 9 and they are classified as International NGOs in their home countries. Outside their home countries, classification of International NGOs depends on the focus or nature of their activities.

Based on the principle adopted by ICNPO for the classification of INGOs an INGO such as Christian Aid belongs to Group 9 in the United Kingdom. The same organisation comes under Groups 3,4,5,6, 7 and 10 in African countries where it implements health, social services, development and advocacy programmes either directly or through partners. From the Christian Aid illustration, it is clear that the ICNPO classification of multi-purpose INGOs could further complicate instead of simplify INGO classification.

This researcher overcame the challenge posed by ICNPO classification of multi-purpose INGOs by differentiating INGOs based on their core purpose or activity. This researcher adopted that pragmatic approach to enable him to address research questions that focus on effects of INGO mission and operating environments on employees' job satisfaction. With the adapted ICNPO classification framework presented below in Table 2.1, this researcher classified Christian Aid as a Human Rights and Peace organisation because advocacy and supporting economic justice are central to its mission. Classification of all the INGOs that participated in this research is shown in Table 2.2.

Table 2.1 International Classification of Non-profit Organisation (ICNPO) Adapted for INGOs

Group 9: International : 9100: International Activities

1. Exchange/Friendship/Cultural Programs :
Programs and services designed to encourage mutual respect and friendship internationally.
2. Development Assistance Associations
Programs and projects that promote social and economic development abroad.
3. International Disaster and Relief Organisations
Organisations that collect channel and provide aid to countries during times of disaster and emergency.
4. International Human Rights and Peace Organisations
Organisations that promote and monitor human rights and peace internationally.

Table : 2.2 Classification of INGOs that participated in this research

No.	INGO	Classification
1	Inter. Federation of Red Cross & Red Cres. Societies (IFRC)	Disaster & Relief
2	Amnesty International	Human Rights & Peace
3	Footsteps International	Development
4	Christian Aid	Human Rights & Peace
5	Wateraid	Development
6	Tearfund	Development
7	Womankind	Human Rights & Peace
8	International HIV/Aids Alliance	Development
9	Oxfam	Development
10	Green Peace Movement	Development
11	CARE International	Development
12	International Alert	Human Rights & Peace

Source: Developed for this research by the author

The definitions of NGO stated earlier (Vakil, 1997; Doh & Tegen, 2003) apply to INGOs even though they differ from NGOs mainly because they operate internationally. Having defined INGOs and classified INGOs whose employees took part in this research, the section below examines the concept of job satisfaction.

2.3 Concept of Job Satisfaction

Locke's definition of job satisfaction as '*pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from one's appraisal of one's job or job experiences*' (Locke, 1976:1300) is cited in most studies on job satisfaction. The definition establishes that there is an affection dimension to job satisfaction because it involves emotion and it has a cognitive element because how an employee appraises job experience and therefore job satisfaction is different from other types of satisfaction (Mason & Griffin, 2002). Another definition of job satisfaction that is based on expectancy theory describes it as *an affective (that is, emotional) reaction to a job that results from the incumbent's comparison of actual outcomes with those that are desired, expected, deserved and so on*' (Smith, 1992:49). Expectancy theory of motivation is discussed later in this section as an example of process theory of motivation.

Locke's (1976) definition of job satisfaction adopted in this study and other definitions of job satisfaction have been criticised for not providing testable variables for the development of job satisfaction theories (Bussing et al., 1999). The criticism seems to suggest that theory development can only result from testing of hypothesis, which as a feature of positivism has dominated job satisfaction research for long. This researcher believes that conceptual clarification is central to better understanding of job satisfaction as it provides platform for theory development. Instead of dwelling on definitional inadequacies as barriers to theory development, philosophical and methodological shortcomings that most studies in the job satisfaction literature suffer from deserve attention. As the foundation for job satisfaction theories, theories of employee motivation are discussed below.

2.4.1 Theories of Motivation

Motivation has its origin in the Latin term 'movere' meaning 'to move' (Baron et. al., 2002) and in the work context, it has been defined from different perspectives. Motivation is the combination of personal and work characteristics that influence people to perform tasks freely in order for their organisation to achieve its objectives and for them to meet their needs (Van Niekerk, 1993). Motivation also involves individual and job characteristics that account for employee job-related behaviour (Schultz & Schultz, 1998).

The following links that have been made in the literature between motivation and job satisfaction justify a review of motivation theories in this study:

- (a) Intrinsic and extrinsic motivating factors influence level of employee job satisfaction (Armstrong, 2006; Furnham, 1992);
- (b) Motivation studies focus on employee feelings and emotions that are also relevant in understanding job satisfaction (Fisher, 2000; Baron et. al., 2002; Sempene et. al., 2002), and
- (c) Needs-based theories of job satisfaction rely on concepts from motivation theory to explain job satisfaction in terms of what employees want from their jobs and what they actually get from their jobs (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005)

The importance of workplace characteristics in understanding employee motivation is downplayed by Spector (2003) who maintains that motivation is an internal state that leads employees to engage in particular behaviours. An example of such behaviour is how much effort an employee decides to channel towards work objectives that meet his or her needs or desires (Spector, 2003). Beach (1980) similarly sees motivation as the drive to reach a work-related goal or achieve a reward. The concepts of motivation put forward by Spector (2003) and Beach (1980) are similar to the extent that both agree that motivation originates from within the employee. Both scholars regard motivation as being intrinsic meaning that an individual engages in an activity out of interest and satisfaction that such activity provides (Gagne & Deci, 2005; Broedling, 1977).

Unlike Spector (2003) who focuses more on intrinsic aspect of motivation, Beach (1980) regards extrinsic motivation as equally important. The importance of both intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of employee motivation is evident in the concept of motivation as *'internal factors that impel action and ...external factors that can act as inducements to action'* (Locke & Latham, 2004:388). Extrinsic motivation involves a situation where an employee carries out a task because its successful completion will attract a reward or enable him or her to avoid unpleasant consequences (Gagne & Deci, 2005). Extrinsic factors in employee motivation relate to the rewards or incentives that work environment provides for achieving work objectives (Beach, 1980; Broedling, 1977).

It is also argued that employees are motivated in different ways and by different factors (Terez, 2001). In order to improve academic understanding of motivation by capturing various perspectives on the subject a holistic approach is necessary (Baron et. al., 2002; Locke & Latham, 2004). Such holistic approach involves considering motivational factors in jobs, individuals and organisational characteristics and recognising the interrelationships among the factors and characteristics (Baron et. al., 2002).

Motivation theories are categorised as either process or content theories based on their focus or emphasis (Schepers et al; 2005; Marchington & Wilkinson, 2005). That categorisation forms the basis for the discussion of motivation theories below starting with the review of content theories of motivation.

2.4.2 Content theories of motivation

Content theories of motivation also referred to as needs- based theories of motivation assume that all individuals have the same set of needs (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005). The theories generally focus on what motivates individuals. Needs-based theories also contend that the context in which needs arise are stable (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977). As key examples of content theories of motivation, Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs, Herzberg et al.'s (1959) two-factor theory and Alderfer's (1972; cited in Huitt, 2004) Existence, Relatedness and Growth (ERG) model are discussed below.

Hierarchy of Needs

Maslow's (1954) 'hierarchy of needs' provides the basis for what is referred to in the literature as needs-satisfaction theories of motivation. It is regarded as the most influential contribution to personality theory (Jaffee, 2001). Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs is predicated on the position that over their life span the behaviour of human beings is geared toward physiological, safety, belongingness, love, esteem and self actualization needs (Jaffee, 2001). The progression to higher- level needs from lower-level ones is motivated by the individual's desire to realise his or her full potential by attaining self actualisation (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005).

The views of Jaffee (2001), and Arnolds and Boshoff (2002) underline lack of agreement among scholars on the validity and utility of hierarchy of needs as a theory of motivation. Jaffee (2001), and Arnolds and Boshoff (2002) agree that the hierarchy of needs is a theory of human development. However, Arnolds and Boshoff (2002) disagree with Jaffee's (2001:79) description of hierarchy of needs as a 'theory of motivation'. For example, the construct of self-actualisation in the hierarchy of needs is regarded as unclear and therefore difficult to operationalise (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005).

In Maslow's (1954) defence, a case has been made that the 'hierarchy of needs' was largely misinterpreted because its critics did not consider subsequent studies on theory of motivation that showed how an individual progresses from an unhealthy mental state to a healthy one (Dye et. al., 2005).

The popularity of the ' hierarchy of needs' and the face validity that it enjoys even though it was not based on consistent evidence led to what researchers described as '*Maslowian Paradox*' (Dye et. al., 2005:1379) . In other words , Maslow's idea of a hierarchy of needs " *has been enthusiastically and often uncritically adopted ...as if it were true rather than as an interesting but problematic set of observations about what motivates us and how we mature psychologically*" (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005: 197).

Motivation – Hygiene Theory

The Motivation –Hygiene Theory explains how employees satisfy their needs and the impact that motivation has on employee's behaviours and attitudes (Herzberg et. al., 1959; Herzberg, 1966). The main argument of the theory is that the factors that cause job satisfaction and those that cause dissatisfaction are '*qualitatively different*' (Winfield et. al., 2000:121). The theory explains motivation in terms of 'hygiene factors and 'motivators'. "Hygiene factors" prevent dissatisfaction and they include supervision, salary, working environment, organizational policies and relationship with colleagues (Herzberg, et. al., 1959; Herzberg, 1966). In epidemiology from where Herzberg (1966) and his co-researchers borrowed, the term 'hygiene' the goal of good medical hygiene is not to cure diseases but to prevent illness. In the context of motivation –hygiene theory, the presence of "hygiene factors" also called 'dissatisfiers' would not cause job satisfaction but their absence could cause dissatisfaction (Herzberg, 1966).

Motivators refer to factors such as responsibility, recognition, promotion, achievement and intrinsic aspects of the job that could bring about a lasting change in employees' attitudes (Herzberg et. al., 1959; Herzberg, 1966). With the Motivation-Hygiene Theory feelings have no opposites therefore " satisfaction and dissatisfaction" are not regarded as opposites but separate entities caused by quite different facets of work – hygiene factors and motivators" (Furnham et. al, 2009:3).

According to motivation-hygiene theory, employee motivation is determined by the interrelationship between work and the organizational context in which work is carried out (Winfield et al., 2000). The theory however fails to indicate the *'specific circumstances under which the context of the work diminishes (or enhances) the likelihood that employees would respond positively to inherently motivating work content'* (Oldham et. al., 1976: 396).

Research methods on which the hygiene – motivation theory was based were criticized on the following grounds (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005:210): First, interviewing 200 accountants and engineers could introduce 'middle class bias' into the research. Second, applying critical incident interview technique in gathering data for the research casts doubt over the validity of its findings considering that individuals tend to attribute their success to their efforts and their failures to the shortcomings of other people or their organization.

The distinction that Herzberg (1959; 1966) and his fellow researchers made between 'dissatisfiers and 'motivators' received some support but the predictions based on the hygiene-motivation theory were refuted by many empirical studies (Wiley, 1997). For example, it was established that employees' needs for salary, recognition and responsibility could serve as 'dissatisfiers' and 'motivators' depending on the context (Wiley, 1997).

In defence of Herzberg et. al. (1959;1966), Sachau (2007) argues that the criticism that hygiene-motivation theory does not regard money as a motivator is borne out of misinterpretation but concedes that the theory's assumption that *'interpersonal relations cannot produce job satisfaction'* was a 'mistake' (Sachau, 2007: 382-383)

ERG Model

Alderfer's (1972; cited in Huitt, 2004: 3) Existence, Relatedness and Growth Model (ERG) originated from Maslow's hierarchy of needs. The obvious difference between ERG and Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs is that Alderfer (1972) proposed three categories of needs instead of five (Wiley, 1997). In relation to Maslow's (1954) model, 'Existence' in the ERG model covers 'safety and 'physiological needs, 'Relatedness' covers 'belongingness need' and 'Growth' covers both 'esteem' and 'self Actualisation needs'(Wiley, 1997). Alderfer (1972; cited in Huitt, 2004) agreed with the concept of hierarchy of needs but saw satisfaction of needs as a continuum from existence needs to relatedness needs (Arnolds & Boshoff, 2002; Fincham & Rhodes, 2005).

According to ERG when the attempt to meet a need is unsuccessful or frustrated the individual reverts to the need that had previously been satisfied in a process described as frustration-regression (Dutta, 2008). Alderfer (1972, cited in Huitt, 2004:3 - 4) acknowledged that lower order needs would diminish in importance once satisfied. Unlike Maslow (1954) in his hierarchy of needs, Alderfer (1972) provides reliable measures of the needs in ERG thereby proving platform for meaningful theory development (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005). ERG's assumption that an individual could satisfy more than one need at a time also addressed the criticism levelled against hierarchy of needs (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005).

ERG represents an improvement on Maslow's contribution but it also suffers the same fate as hierarchy of needs because " *both need theories have enjoyed little empirical support*" (Rauschenberger et. al., 1980, cited in Fincham & Rhodes, 2005:199).

Needs-based theories of motivation are criticised for assuming that employees' needs were relatively stable (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977). In response to that criticism, Alderfer (1977) argued that the assumption that certain human needs were stable did not imply that all needs were of equal importance. Another criticism of needs-based theories is that their assumption that people's needs are similar leads to recommendation of highly prescriptive characteristics that jobs should have (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005).

Identifying employee needs that should be met in order to influence change in employee behaviour is the major contribution that content theories make to the development of motivation theories even though they '*do not necessarily predict motivation or behaviour*' (Wiley, 1997:265). Content theories are relevant to the focus of this research on effects that organisational policies and practices have on employee job satisfaction. That is because knowing what motivates employees and tailoring organisational policies and practices to meet those needs are likely to improve job satisfaction (Wiley, 1997; Savery, 1996).

2.4.3 Process Theories of Motivation

Process theories of motivation concentrate on how individuals translate their needs into particular behaviours by emphasising how individual perceptions influence motivation levels (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005). Unlike content theories, process theories emphasise the differences in employee needs (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005) and how people make different choices at work that have impact on their motivation (Winfield et. al., 2000). Expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), equity theory (Adams, 1965) and goal-setting theory (Locke, 1968) that are discussed below are key examples of process theories of employee motivation.

Expectancy Theory

According to Vroom's (1964) 'valence – instrumentality-expectancy (VIE) model' a worker's efforts to achieve specific work goals will depend on the extent to which he or she believes that the accomplishment of those goals will produce rewards that he or she is looking for (Ramlall, 2004; Gagne & Deci, 2005). An individual will engage in behaviour that he or she believes will produce a valued outcome for him or her (Baron et. al, 2002; Marchington & Wilkinson, 2005). Outcomes are only valuable when they satisfy needs therefore employees will work hard, if they believe their hard work would attract a reward that is important to them (Ramlall, 2004).

The three key psychological variables in the theory are valence, instrumentality and expectancy (Vroom, 1964). Valence refers to the value the individual attaches to the expected reward for achieving a performance target (Vroom, 1964; Ramlall, 2004). Instrumentality is the individual's level of confidence that upon successful completion of the task the appropriate reward will be given (Vroom, 1964; Gagne & Deci, 2005). . Expectancy is the individual's confidence in his or her abilities to achieve performance objectives on which the rewards will be based (Vroom, 1964). The higher the values of the three variables the higher the motivation to reach expected performance standards.

The VIE model assumes that people go through a rational or logical process in deciding what level of effort to expend on a job (Vroom, 1964). Vroom (1982) noted that employees' decision whether to carry out tasks or not depends on their perception of their ability to carry out the tasks and earn a fair reward. Central to that decision-making process is the concept of motivational force which refers to the effort that that the individual is willing to put into a job or task (Spector, 2003; Fincham & Rhodes, 2005). According to Vroom (1964; 1982) the strength of motivational force can be determined if the values of valence, instrumentality and expectancy are known. The decision regarding the level of effort an employee puts into task is based on the consideration of the reward. Therefore, *'the greater the value of a set of rewards and the higher the probability that receiving each of these rewards depends upon effort, the greater the effort that will be put forth in a given situation'* (Lawler & Porter 1968:128; cited in Tuttle & Hazel, 1974:17).

The VIE model relies on an individual's ranking of valence, instrumentality and expectancy to determine his or her motivational force. In that regard, the model has been criticised for not taking into full consideration the fact individuals have cognitive limitations that make it unrealistic for them to be as calculating and rational in their decision-making as the model assumes (Baron et. al., 2002). From the perspective of equity theory of motivation, the assumption by expectancy theory that employees will always seek to maximise positive outcomes has been challenged because inequity may be dissatisfying to the individual concerned (Tuttle & Hazel, 1974).

Equity Theory

The main argument of Adams' (1965) equity theory is that people strive to achieve equity or fairness in their relations with their employers and other people. In their motivation to achieve equity, individuals compare what they get with what others get and will be distressed if they perceive themselves to be at disadvantage (Winfield et. al., 2000; Locke & Latham, 2004; Stecher & Rosse, 2007). Motivation therefore is a function of how employees perceive outcomes such as pay, fringe benefits and other working conditions (Baron et. al., 2002). Employees perceive efforts, rewards and fairness in relative terms (Adams, 1965) and equity theory assumes that each employee is aware of what constitutes equitable reward (Winfield, et al., 2000; Fincham & Rhodes, 2005). The factors that feature in the inputs-outcomes comparative analysis that the employee carries out include education, training, skills, seniority and effort put into the job (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005).

Perceived inequity in form of under reward or and over reward will cause tensions but may not have the same effect (Cosier & Dalton, 1983). Equity theory recognises that the '*distress*' threshold would be higher where there is over reward or positive inequity for such reward could be rationalised as '*good fortune*' (Cosier & Dalton, 1983: 314). The notion of '*distress*' threshold in relation to how people react to positive inequity illustrates the importance of '*equity sensitivity construct*' in understanding the relationship between perceptions of equity and job satisfaction (Huseman et. al. 1987). As individuals do not always conform to the 'norm of equity' how people react to equity or perceived inequity depends on how '*equity sensitive*' they are (Huseman et. al., 1987: 231). Based on a combination of demographic and psychological variables people are classified according to the following descriptions of how they react to equity (Huseman et. al., 1987: 223-225):

- i. Benevolents prefer to give rather than take. They are therefore inclined to be more tolerant of under-reward than those who prefer their outcome/input ratios to be the same as or exceed those of their referents. Benevolents will be distressed when 'over-reward' or equity occurs.
- ii. Equity Sensitives conform to equity theory in that they strive to ensure that their outcome/input ratios are the same as others who serve as points of reference. In effect, they will feel 'disadvantaged' when they are under-rewarded and 'distressed' when over-rewarded.
- iii. Entitleds believe that they should have outcome/input ratios that exceed those of their referents and will be 'distressed' under conditions of equity and inequity.

Whilst the central argument of equity theory that perception of inequity leads to distress or dissatisfaction holds for 'Equity Sensitives', it does not take into account the preferences of people classified above as 'Benevolents' and 'Entitleds' according to the Equity Sensitivity Construct (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005). In addressing the shortcoming of equity theory therefore, Equity Sensitivity Construct emphasises the importance of individual preferences in understanding how perceptions of equity or inequity influence job satisfaction (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005). Despite the inability of Equity theory to predict individual perception of equity or inequity in specific situations, it serves to underline the importance of developing management policies and adopting practices aimed at achieving fair treatment of employees (Spector, 2003).

Goal-setting Theory

Goal setting theory was proposed by Locke in 1968 and its main premise is that people have needs that could be regarded as goals that they consciously strive to attain (Yearta et. al., 1995). According to the theory, setting specific and challenging goals that are acceptable to employees and giving them feedback will improve their performance (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005). Goals affect performance in the five following ways (Locke & Latham, 2002; Locke & Latham, 2006):

- i. Goals enable employees to direct their attention and efforts toward 'goal – relevant' activities and away from goal-irrelevant activities.
- ii. Goals drive people to put in more effort. The more challenging the goal the greater the effort that is put into achieving it
- iii. Goals influence people's persistence. Workers will take more time to achieve challenging goals if they have control over what time they can spend on a task;
- iv. Goals engender discovery and the application of task-relevant skills and knowledge by workers.
- v. Goals set the standard based on which satisfaction with performance is assessed.

In order for goal-setting to improve performance the employee must be committed to the goal, have feedback on his or her performance in relation to the goal, and the goal must be challenging (Locke & Latham, 2002).

Commitment to the goal depends on the importance attached to it by the employee and employee's conviction that he or she can attain the goal (Locke & Latham, 2002).

Goal-setting theory is popular among managers because of its relevance to the workplace (Yearta et. al., 1995; Schultz & Schultz, 1998; Spector, 2003). The theory has been criticised for making the following claims (Yearta et al., 1995; Shalley et. al., 1987):

- i. Employee participation in goal setting enhances goal acceptance and leads to improved performance.
- ii. When competence is adequate difficult goals lead to increased effort and improved performance

There are conflicting findings regarding the contention that employee participation in goal setting enhances goal acceptance and improves performance. Whilst some scholars (Early & Kanfer, 1985; Yearta et. al., 1995) argue that participation in goal-setting influences goal acceptance and performance positively, others (Ivancevich, 1976; see Yearta et. al., 1995; Shalley et. al. 1987) conclude otherwise. One reason suggested for some of the conflicting results was the difference in complexity of tasks considered by different researchers (Shalley et al., 1987). Studies that found positive relationship between participation in goal-setting and goal acceptance and performance (Earley & Kanfer, 1985; Earley, 1985) were based on a '*complex simulated* course-scheduling task' whereas those that reported negative results used a '*simple assembly task*' (Shalley et. al., 1987:561).

In response the criticism of goal-setting theory regarding the relationship between employee participation in goal-setting and goal acceptance and performance, Locke and Latham (2006) clarify that goals set with the employee participating and those that are assigned to him or her have the same motivational impact. They however explained that participation in goal setting '*makes [the] goals more important to the person because one would, at least own the goals*' (Locke & Latham, 2006: 708).

Out of 192 studies considered in a meta-analysis of studies that examined the relationship between goal difficulty and performance, 175 concluded that given adequate level of competence, employees would attain difficult goals if they were committed to those goals (Wood et. al., 1987; cited in Yearta et. al., 1995). Locke and Latham (2006) introduce the concept of 'framing' to explain why setting challenging goals may not

bring about improved performance in all cases. By framing, they refer to whether a goal is presented to an individual as a threat or challenge (Locke & Latham, 2006). They maintain that provided goal difficulty is held constant altering a task by posing new challenges will lead to improved performance if the alteration is presented as a challenge and performance will be lower if task alteration is presented as a threat (DrachZahavy & Erez, 2002; see Locke & Latham, 2006). Critical to link between goal difficulty and performance is employee's perception of task alteration that is influenced by 'framing'. Introducing the concept of 'framing' and the caveat that goal difficulty be held constant seems a shift in position by Locke and Latham (2006). Based on earlier meta-analysis of task difficulty and performance they concluded that

We found a positive linear function in that the highest or most difficult goals produced the highest levels of effort and performance. ...Performance levelled or decreased only when the limits of ability were reached or when commitment to a highly difficult goal lapsed (Locke & Latham, 2002:706).

The fact that theories of motivation have influenced job satisfaction research does not deflect attention from their shortcomings. Scholars argue that little progress has been made in motivation research since the 1960s (Humphreys & Einstein, 2004). In support of that observation critics note that research contributions on motivation still rely on '*obsolete and discredited theories*' (Steel & Konig, 2006:891). Another criticism is that traditional models of motivation fail to take into consideration how individual personality affects motivation (Papazisi et al., 2005) and therefore do not account for behavioural diversity in the work place (Humphreys & Einstein, 2004).

There are scholars who hold the view that research in the field of work motivation has progressed although they concede that academic '*knowledge of the subject of work motivation is far from complete*' (Locke & Latham, 2004: 389). As a way of progressing work motivation research scholars agree that various theories in the field should be integrated (Humphreys & Einstein, 2004; Locke & Latham, 2004; Steel & Konig, 2006). The benefits of such integration include the consistent application of concepts across different social science disciplines and overcoming the barrier of limiting analysis to the subset of motivational factors that fall within the scope of a particular theoretical approach (Steel & Konig, 2006).

Since motivation refers to an individual's state ' *at a given time [that is], subject to change depending on circumstances*' (Broedling, 1977:271), it can be said to be situational (Furnham, 1992; Bumpus et. al., 1998). Motivation is a function of the interaction between individual and environmental characteristics such as types of available rewards, autonomy, how interesting the job is, and whether or not extrinsic rewards depend on performance and leadership style (Broedling, 1977).

Following the link made earlier between motivation theories and job satisfaction theories and having established that motivation is situational, the section below examines key examples of theories that explain job satisfaction from situational perspectives.

2.5.1 Theories of Job Satisfaction

Situational theories of job satisfaction focus on jobs and other characteristics in the environment surrounding the job in order to understand and explain job satisfaction (Cranny et. al., 1992; Judge & Clinger, 2007). Key examples of situational theories of job satisfaction that are discussed below are Situational Occurrences Theory (Quarstein et. al., 1992), Job Characteristics Model (Hackman & Oldham, 1975) and the Dynamic Model of Job Satisfaction (Bussing & Bissels, 1998; Bussing et. al., 1999).

2.5.2 Situational Occurrences Theory of Job Satisfaction

Situational Occurrences Theory states that employees' overall job satisfaction depends on how they react to the combination of situational characteristics and situational occurrences in the workplace (Quarstein et. al., 1992). According to the theory, situational characteristics include factors such as pay, promotional opportunities, working conditions, organisational policies and supervision that an employee considers before accepting a job or joining an organisation (Quarstein et. al., 1992:862). Situational occurrences on the other hand refer to positive events in the workplace such as spontaneous reward for job well done and provision of welfare facilities to make employees more comfortable or negative experiences in form of rude remarks by a colleague and confusing instructions (Quarstein et. al., 1992: 862). They are occurrences that the employee did not foresee before joining the organisation.

From the distinction made between situational characteristics and situational occurrences the former are relatively stable whilst the latter are transitory in nature (Quarstein et. al., 1992). Situational characteristics and situational occurrences also differ in terms of the ease with which they could be categorised, monitored and changed by organisations (Quarstein et. al., 1992) in order to influence employee job satisfaction (see Table 2.3 below).

Table 2.3 Differences between Situational Characteristics and Situational Occurrences

Situational Characteristics	Situational Occurrences
Evaluated prior to job acceptance	Evaluated after job begins
Stable / Permanent	Transitory / variable – change quickly
Universal / finite number	Situational / infinite number
Easy to categorise	Difficult to categorise
Monitored upon hiring / emotional response if changed	Not monitored immediately after being hired / no initial emotional response / effects accumulate over time.

Source: Adapted from Quarstein et. al., 1992:862

From the examples cited earlier and the differences tabulated above it could be argued that situational characteristics relate to specific needs that employees have and situational occurrences cover social interactions that they engage in in the process of satisfying those needs. Combining situational characteristics and situational occurrences strengthens situational occurrences theory in terms of explaining differences in levels of overall job satisfaction where employees share similar situational characteristics (Quarstein et. al., 1992).

The notion that situational characteristics are *'often unexpected and may come as surprise to the individual'* (Quarstein et. al., 1992: 862) may not be entirely accurate. There is a strong argument that not all situational occurrences are unexpected and surprising and that employees are more likely to find negative 'occurrences' 'surprising' and 'unexpected' than positive ones. Furthermore, given the unpredictable nature of 'situational occurrences', a pragmatic position would be that employees expect to experience more positive 'situational occurrences' than negative ones on becoming members of their organisations.

Coming into play after the employee has accepted the job, situational occurrences have strong influence on overall job satisfaction because *'even when employee satisfaction with situational characteristics is high, overall satisfaction could be low if employees experience a sufficient number and magnitude of negative situational occurrences'* (Quarstein et. al., 1992: 869).

In terms of the effects that negative situational occurrences have on overall job satisfaction, Situational Occurrences theory sheds light on the effect that the approach adopted by an INGO in pursuing its mission could have on employees' overall job satisfaction. The theory is relevant based on the consideration in this research that some INGO employees join their organizations because they associated with the missions of the organizations. Situational Occurrences theory also provides basis for understanding overall job satisfaction in relation to INGO principles and values in cases where employees are satisfied with or attracted to their organizations by corporate principles and values and dissatisfied with the practical application of those principles and values.

2.5.3 Job Characteristics Model

The job characteristics model (JCM) developed by Hackman and Oldham (1975) is the most popular theory of job design (Pierce et. al., 2009; De Varo et. al., 2007). The theory states that employees' performance, motivation and job satisfaction will improve when they experience three psychological states namely meaningfulness of work, responsibility for outcomes of work and have knowledge of results of work activities (Hackman & Oldham, 1975: 160 – 161). Meaningfulness of work refers to the extent to which an employee considers the job worthwhile and valuable, responsibility for work outcome relates to the degree to which he or she feels personally accountable and responsible for the results of his or her work (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). Knowledge of results is the extent to which employee understands on a continuous basis how he or she is performing (Hackman & Oldham, 1975: 162 – 163).

The theory further proposes that the psychological states are influenced by five 'core' job dimensions or characteristics namely skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback on performance (Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Oldham et. al., 1976). The theory defines the five 'core' job dimensions grouped under the three 'critical' psychological states as follows (Hackman & Oldham, 1975:161-162; Oldham et. al., 1976:395 - 396):

- i. Skill variety: the degree to which a job involves variety of activities that involve the application of a variety of skills.
- ii. Task Identity: the degree to which a job involves completing a 'whole' and identifiable piece of work, which the employee does from the beginning to end.
- iii. Task Significance: the degree to which a job has significant impact on the work or lives of others either in the organisation or outside the organisation.
- iv. Task Autonomy: the degree to which a job provides the employee the freedom, independence and the discretion to schedule work and determine the procedures based on which work is carried out.
- v. Feedback: the degree to which the employee receives clear and direct information about his or her performance.

As shown in Fig. 2. 1 below, the interrelationships between core job dimensions, critical psychological states and outcomes for employees and work are moderated by the degree to which an employee desires to obtain 'growth' in their satisfaction with their work (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). It implies that individuals have different levels of growth need and the higher an employee's growth need strength the more likely he or she is to experience changes in critical psychological states when there is improvement in the core job dimensions (Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Oldham et al., 1976).

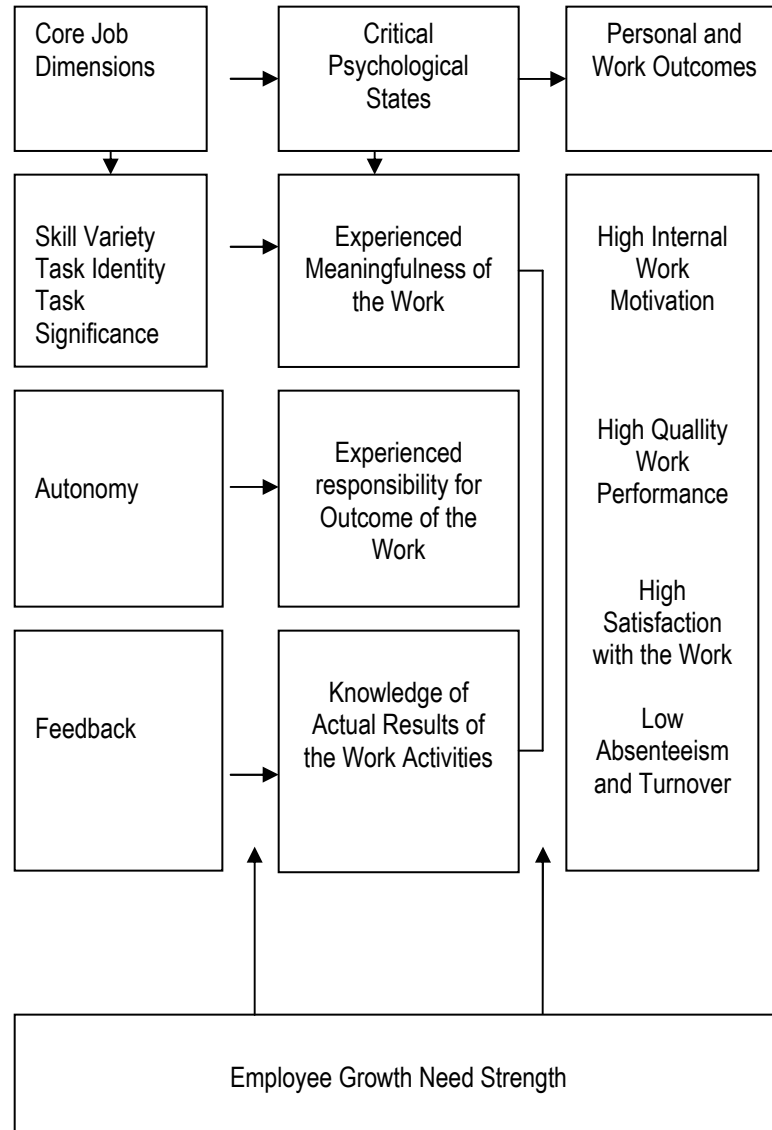


Fig. 2.1. Job Characteristics Model (adapted from Hackman & Oldham, 1975)

By combining the five core job dimensions into a single index, the Job Characteristics Model enables the assessment of the motivational potential of particular jobs thereby facilitating the identification of jobs that could be redesigned (Oldham et. al., 1976). The index called Motivating Potential Score (MPS) is reported to have positive relationship with employee satisfaction, motivation and productivity (Oldham et. al., 1976). The MPS is calculated from the scores of a questionnaire that is based on the core job dimensions by dividing the sum of scores for skills variety, task variety and task significance

by three and multiplying the result by those derived for autonomy and feedback (Oldham et. al., 1976; Hackman & Oldham, 1975).

An increase in the score of skill variety, task identity or task significance will increase the MPS. However, increase in MPS does not translate into increase in job satisfaction or motivation in all cases since as noted earlier individual response to job redesign is influenced by the strength of their growth need (Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Oldham et al., 1976). For example an employee that is low in growth need may react negatively to a redesigned job or that with a high MPS whereas the same employee will be satisfied with a simple and routine job that fits his or her '*personal needs better*' (Oldham et. al., 1976:402). The second condition under which increase in MPS may not engender increase in job satisfaction or motivation is where an employee is not satisfied with pay, job security, co-workers, and or supervisors (Oldham et. al., 1976:396).

Studies that used the core job dimensions as measures of satisfaction with work itself found that the dimensions correlated highly with overall job satisfaction (Cranny et. al., 1992). In analysing the strengths of the core job dimensions, Fried and Ferris (1986) established in their meta analysis on Job Characteristics Model that task feedback was the strongest correlate of job satisfaction (see Cranny et. al., 1992). Wall et. al., (1978) note the usefulness of JCM in carrying out job design, but they observe that '*critical psychological states do not represent the complete causal link*' between the model's five core job dimensions and personal and work outcomes (cited in Robertson & Smith, 1985:58).

The five core job dimensions are relevant to this research and therefore they are considered in the process of understanding how INGO employees perceive their jobs, working relations between field locations and headquarters, application of principles and values and HRM practices.

Inclusion of critical psychological states in the Job Characteristics Model as mediators between job design and job satisfaction, motivation and performance has been described as redundant by Champion and Thayer (1985) who call for more robust theoretical explanation of job design effects (see Pierce et. al., 2009).

As noted earlier deriving MPS for particular job(s) could be helpful in terms of identifying the dimension(s) that should be enhanced in order to improve employee motivation or satisfaction (Oldham et al., 1976). However, it should not be taken for granted that '*simply because the objective characteristics of a job have been measured (or changed) that the way that job is experienced has been dealt with as well*' (Hackman & Lawler, 1971:265). In stressing the importance of job redesign based on core job dimensions, it is important to note that because employees have different desires how they respond to job redesign is influenced by the importance that they attach to the core job dimensions (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). The principle that how individuals value core job dimensions influences their job satisfaction that applies to JCM is also consistent with the notion of valence discussed earlier under Vroom's (1964) VIE model. According to VIE model (Vroom, 1964) the higher the value that an employee attaches to what he or she would get as reward for achieving a performance standard the more effort he or she is likely to put into attaining the specified standard.

At another level, both Job Characteristics Model and Dynamic Model of Job Satisfaction (Bussing & Bissels, 1998; Bussing et. al., 1999) recognise the influence that employees' desires and perceptions have on their job satisfaction (Bussing & Bissels, 1998; Bussing et. al., 1999). The Dynamic Model of Job Satisfaction that is examined below explores '*personal aspirations*' and '*subjective views*' about work experiences in order to differentiate employees based on the form of job satisfaction that they manifest (Bussing & Bissels, 1998: 212).

2.6.1 Dynamic Model of Job Satisfaction

The dynamic model of work satisfaction was first developed by Bruggemann (1974) and extended by Bussing and Bissels (1998). The model explains the psychological processes that lead to different forms of work satisfaction and the implications of those forms of satisfaction (Bussing & Bissels, 1998; Bussing et. al., 1999). In its original form the model rests on three main variables and six forms of job satisfaction. The variables are comparison of actual work situation with an individual's aspirations, change in aspiration levels and problem solving (Bussing et al., 1999). The six forms of work satisfaction include progressive satisfaction, stabilised satisfaction, resigned satisfaction, fixated dissatisfaction and constructive dissatisfaction (Bussing & Bissels, 1998; Bussing et. al., 1999).

Personal aspiration that is a key motivational variable in the Dynamic Model of Job Satisfaction refers to an employee's work-related aspirations, goals and intentions (Bussing & Bissels, 1998; Bussing et al., 1999). Personal aspiration is made up action, super ordinate and ideal goals that are defined as follows (Bussing & Bissels, 1998:210):

- (i) Action Goals: These goals are related to some form of planning. They may be set for the individual or be 'self-set' based on what the individual considers important. Unlike superordinate and ideal goals, they are short or medium term goals.
- (ii) Superordinate Goals: They are abstract in nature, they are comparable to motives and usually have medium or long-term perspective.
- (iii) Ideal Goals: These goals are more abstract in nature and less specific than superordinate goals. Ideal goals usually have a long time range.

The concept of problem solving broadly refers to how an individual reacts to any discrepancies between his or her personal aspirations and actual experience in a work situation (Bussing & Bissels, 1998).

By considering the variables listed above, the forms of job satisfaction that employees manifest are determined by the three steps described below (Bussing & Bissels, 1998: 210 – 211; Bussing et. al., 1999: 1003 - 1004):

- Step 1: Employee's personal aspirations are compared with actual work situations and judgement is made whether he is or she is satisfied or dissatisfied depending on the balance between both elements. If an employee is satisfied with his or her job, the form of satisfaction could be progressive or stabilised satisfaction (see Table 2.4 for full description of all forms of job satisfaction).
- Step 2. Where the employee is satisfied based on step one, a decision to increase level of aspiration due to the feeling that not all needs and expectations have been met leads to progressive satisfaction. Stabilised satisfaction is the other outcome in step two where the employee maintains his or level of aspiration because of the feeling that all his or her expectations have been met.
- Step 3: The remaining four forms of job dissatisfaction would apply where there is a feeling of indistinct dissatisfaction with work. Such indistinct dissatisfaction could lead an employee to decrease or maintain the level of his or her aspirations. Where level of aspiration decreases resigned satisfaction is the outcome and maintaining level of aspiration could lead to pseudo satisfaction, fixated dissatisfaction or constructive dissatisfaction.

Bruggemann's model (1974) was extended based on a study that involved 46 nurses selected from three psychiatric hospitals in Germany and collection of data using semi-structured interviews, Q-sort and questionnaires (Bussing & Bissels, 1998; Bussing et. al., 1999). The researchers used the model to investigate why most studies report high rates of job satisfaction and also validated qualitative forms of job satisfaction proposed earlier by Bruggemann (1974) (Bussing & Bissels, 1998; Bussing et. al., 1999).

In extending Bruggemann's (1974) model described below, Bussing and Bissels (1998) provide theoretical justification for modifications in the following three areas (see Bussing & Bissels, 1998, Bussing et. al., 1999). First, they add 'perceived controllability of the work situation' to the model's three main variables listed earlier in view of the importance of the concept of 'control at work' in work-psychology research especially its influence on the forms of job satisfaction manifested by employees (Bussing & Bissels, 1998; Bussing et. al., 1999). Perceived controllability Bussing and Bissels (1998) argue

Serves to regulate the person-work interaction. Perceived controllability is a type of instrumental and decision control at the workplace. It is derived from the concept of latitudes at work, which have three facets – latitudes for action, decision latitudes, and design latitudes, i.e. opportunities for designing work procedures independently (Bussing & Bissels, 1998: 212)

Second, problem solving behaviour that was one of the major variables of the original model became 'peripheral' in the new model mainly because the concept was not specified in a way that could allow for it to be measured or operationalised (Bussing & Bissels, 1998; Bussing et. al., 1999). In the new model, problem-solving behaviour serves to differentiate between fixated and constructive forms of dissatisfaction (Bussing & Bissels, 1998; Bussing et. al., 1999). In the case of constructive dissatisfaction, the employee is an active 'agent' that is committed to altering the dissatisfying aspect(s) of work. On the other hand, the employee that is experiencing fixated dissatisfaction does not make further efforts to alter or address dissatisfying aspects of work.

Third, at the end of quantitative studies some cases were identified that did not fit other forms of job satisfaction (Bussing & Bissels, 1998; Bussing et. al., 1999). Consequently, cases where research respondents manifested dissatisfaction with their jobs but did not attain job satisfaction by decreasing the levels of their aspirations were clustered under resigned satisfaction. The implication of that clustering is that resigned satisfaction applies to cases where employees reduce the level of their aspiration by adapting to the dissatisfying aspects of their jobs in order to attain job satisfaction. The same form of job satisfaction also covers situations where employees are dissatisfied with their jobs but they do not decrease the level of their aspirations in order to attain job satisfaction.

2.6.2 Critique of Dynamic Model of Job Satisfaction

In conducting their study Bussing et. al. (1999) combined Q-sort method with semi-structured interviews and questionnaires. Q-sort method is a method that requires research participants to express their opinions or share their experiences on the research subject by arranging cards that contain statements (Chinnis & Paulson, 2001; Shinebourne, 2009). Q-sort method is suitable for researching subjective experiences and it enables the development of broad categories of the phenomenon being studied (Chinnis & Paulson, 2001; Shinebourne, 2009).

In Q-sort method, the fact that development of categories of the phenomenon (e.g. forms of job satisfaction) being studied is driven largely by research participants' card sorting activity as opposed to classification of themes by the researcher reduces researcher bias. (Shinebourne, 2009). However, getting research participants to share their experiences based on the set of statements provided by the researcher(s) could lead to research participants complaining about the 'forced nature of the [card] sorting process' (Chinnis & Paulson, 2001:258). Bussing et. al. (1999) are able to overcome that shortcoming associated with Q-sort by combining the method with semi-structured interviews and questionnaires in their data collection.

As noted earlier problem solving was no longer a core variable in the modified model (Bussing & Bissels, 1998; Bussing et. al., 1999). However, the researchers still relied on the concept to differentiate fixated dissatisfaction from constructive dissatisfaction (see Figure 2.2 below) although both forms of dissatisfaction are characterised by the employee maintaining his or her level of aspiration.

This researcher argues that contrary to the claim by Bussing et. al. (1998; 1999), 'problem-solving' remains central to the extended version of Dynamic Model of Job Satisfaction. Brief but critical analysis of the remaining four forms of job satisfaction presented below indicates that they are defined or explained in terms of whether employees attempt to solve problems, decide to solve problems or are able to solve problems.

i. **Progressive Satisfaction**

With respect to this form of satisfaction, the increase in level of employee's aspiration that is geared towards achieving higher level of satisfaction would necessarily involve problem-solving. Without overcoming the problems arising from the aspects of work with which the employee is 'creatively dissatisfied', it is unclear how he or she will attain higher level of satisfaction.

ii. **Stabilised Satisfaction**

It may be assumed that in order to attain stabilised satisfaction an employee has either solved or coped with work-related problems. In a rare situation where the employee did not solve or face problems before attaining 'stability' in his or her satisfaction, problem-solving will take place if that 'stability' is threatened by work-related problems.

iii. **Resigned Work Satisfaction**

The decrease in level of aspiration and 'adaptation' that goes with this form of job satisfaction essentially constitutes problem solving because it enables the employee to move from 'indistinct dissatisfaction' to a 'positive state' of job satisfaction that he or she desires.

iv. **Pseudo Work Satisfaction**

Employee's 'denial' or 'distortion' does not solve work problems or address frustrating conditions at work. Nevertheless, they indicate conscious or deliberate attempt on the part of the employee to maintain his or her level of aspiration.

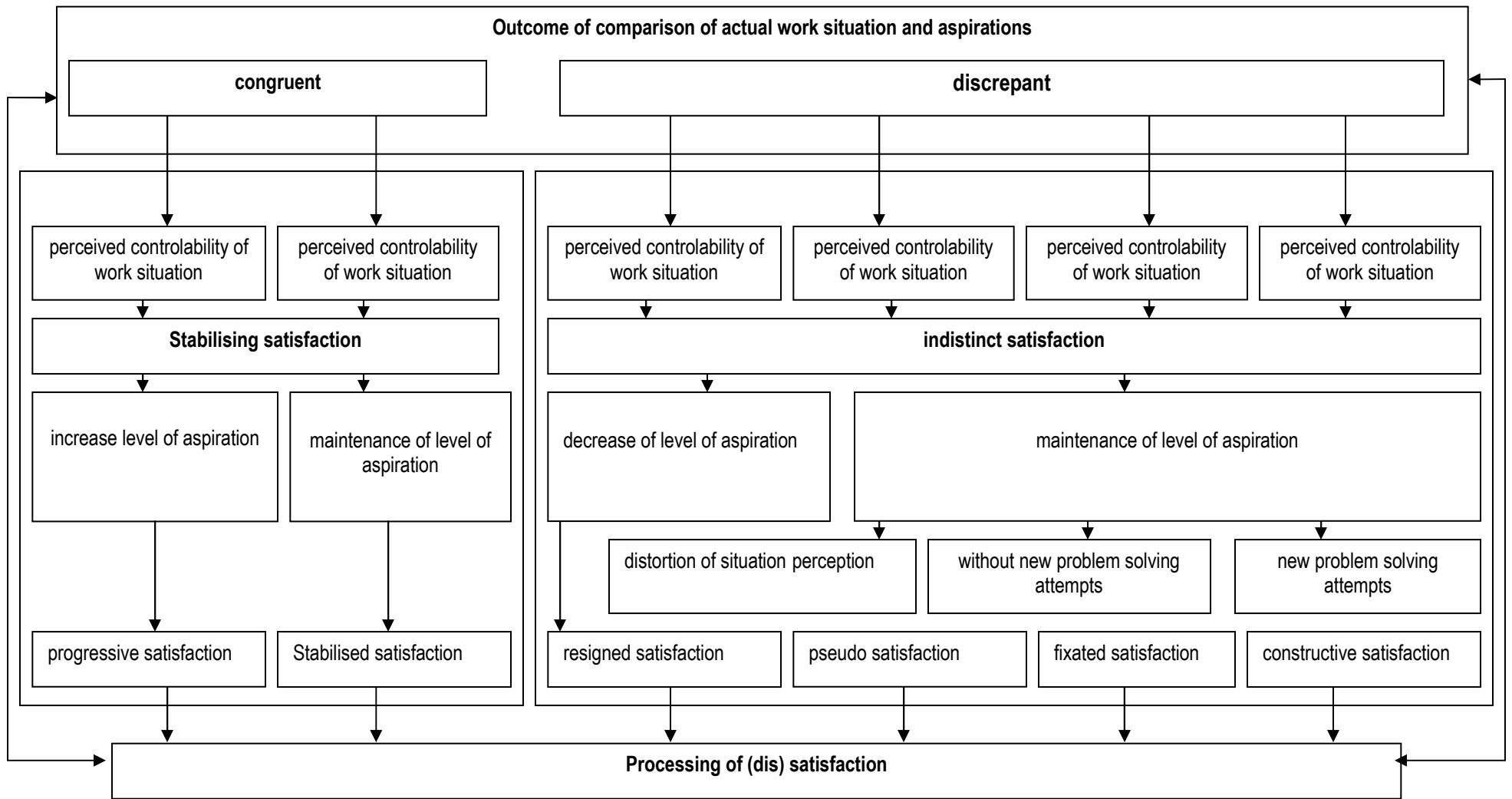


Figure 2.2 Dynamic Model of Job Satisfaction. Source : Adapted from Bussing & Bissels, 1998

Table 2.4 Different Forms of Job Satisfaction

Forms of Job Satisfaction	Definition	Personal Aspiration & Actual Work Situation	Level of Aspiration
Progressive Satisfaction	A person feels satisfied with the work. By increasing the level of aspiration, a person tries to achieve an even higher level of satisfaction. Therefore a "creative dissatisfaction" with respect to some aspects of the work situation can be an integral part of this form.	Congruent	Increased
Stabilised Satisfaction	A person feels satisfied with the work, but is motivated to maintain the level of aspiration and the pleasurable state of satisfaction. An increase of the level of satisfaction is concentrated on other areas of life because of little work incentives.	Congruent	Maintained
Resigned Satisfaction	A person feels indistinct work dissatisfaction and decreases the level of aspiration in order to adapt to negative aspects of the work situation on a lower level. By decreasing the level of aspiration, a person is able to achieve a positive state of satisfaction again.	Discrepant	Decreased
Pseudo Satisfaction	A person feels dissatisfied with work. Facing unsolvable problems or frustrating conditions at work and maintaining one's level of aspiration, for example because of a specific achievement motivation or because of strong social norms, a distorted perception or a denial of the negative work situation may result in a pseudo work satisfaction.	Discrepant	Maintained
Fixated Dissatisfaction	A person feels dissatisfied with the work. Maintaining the level of aspiration a person does not try to master the situation by problem solving attempts. While frustration tolerance prevents defence mechanisms, necessary efforts for problem solving seem beyond any possibility. Therefore, the individual is stuck with his problems and pathological developments cannot be excluded.	Discrepant	Maintained
Constructive Dissatisfaction	A person feels dissatisfied with the work. While maintaining the level of aspiration a person tries to master the situation by problem solving attempts based on sufficient frustration tolerance. Moreover, available action concepts supply for goal orientation and motivation for altering the work situation.	Discrepant	Maintained

Source: Adapted from Bussing & Bissels, 1998.

The dynamic model of job satisfaction broadly incorporates elements of process and content theories of motivation by addressing *the 'conditions under which [content] and by which [process] psychological processes qualitatively different forms of work satisfaction evolve ...'* (Bussing & Bissels, 1998:210).

In relation to other theories of job satisfaction discussed earlier, Dynamic Model of Job Satisfaction incorporates theoretical perspectives that Quarstein et .al. (1992) and Hackman and Oldham (1975) provide in their Situational Occurrences Theory and Job Characteristics Model respectively. On a general level, all the three theories hold that the interactions between employee and job characteristics or work situation influence employee job satisfaction (Smith, 1992). However, Dynamic Model of Job Satisfaction goes beyond simply establishing whether employees are satisfied or dissatisfied with their jobs. The model *'provides rationale for a differentiation of results in traditional job satisfaction studies allowing one to segregate the persistently high proportions of satisfied employees into qualitatively different forms of work satisfaction'* (Bussing & Bissels, 1998:212).

It is possible to make a theoretical connection between situational characteristics and situational occurrences that are the key concepts in Situational Occurrences Theory (Quarstein et. al., 1992) and personal aspirations and actual work situation that are central to Dynamic Model of Job Satisfaction (Bussing & Bissels, 1998). In the Dynamic Model of Job Satisfaction, the concept of personal aspiration includes personal goals and what the employee considers important (Bussing & Bissels, 1998). Therefore a parallel could be drawn between personal goals (dynamic model) and situational characteristics (situational occurrences theory) such as pay, working conditions, and organisational policies that an employee evaluates before accepting a job. The notion of actual work situation in Dynamic Model of Job Satisfaction encompasses employee's

experience after accepting the job that Situational Occurrences Theory describes as situational occurrences (Quarstein et. al., 1992).

In the Dynamic Model of Job Satisfaction, the concepts of personal aspirations and perceived controllability (Bussing & Bissels, 1998) explained earlier broadly cover the five core jobs dimensions of skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback (Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Oldham et. al., 1976). Both sets of concepts focus on specific factors that enhance job satisfaction. In the Dynamic Model of Job Satisfaction, the concept of perceived controllability covers attitudes for action, decision and work design and that of personal goal that is subsumed under personal aspirations includes what the employee considers important (Bussing & Bissels, 1998). Both concepts relate specifically to core dimensions of task significance and autonomy in the Job Characteristics Model (Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Oldham et. al., 1976) as indicators of employees' need for independence or room to exercise discretion in performing their duties.

Despite the critical observations made earlier in relation to Q-sort method of data collection and the status of problem-solving concept, strong theoretical foundation of Dynamic Model of Job Satisfaction establishes it as a robust framework that will further this study's objective of contributing to improved understanding of job satisfaction.

By combining three data collection methods in their study, Bussing et. al. (1999) gained access to data that *'highlighted the ambivalent aspects of work and the role that personal perspective plays in employees' work satisfaction statements hinting at the kind of processes that play a role in the development of satisfaction'* (Locke & Golden –Biddle, 2004:104). The next section focuses on different data collection methods adopted in job satisfaction research.

2.7.1. Measures of Job Satisfaction

The methods and instruments that researchers deploy in the study of social phenomena depend largely on the 'underlying *theory*' of what is important to them regarding that social phenomena (Hackman & Oldham, 1975:160). That position is relevant to job satisfaction research in view of the ongoing argument as to the benefits of studying job satisfaction as a global concept or focusing on its facets that represent different aspects of an employee's job (Guion, 1992; Faragher et al., 2005).

Wright (2006: 264 - 266) provides a historical perspective that highlights the evolution of five early approaches to the measurement of job satisfaction. Researchers who used the first method called impressionistic method formed their impressions based on chance observations of employees at work, at play and listening to what employees said (Wright, 2006). The impressionistic method gave way to the unguided interview conducted by the researcher to gather information from employees about issues that were important to them whilst paying attention to employees' attitudes and feelings (Wright, 2006). The third approach was the guided interview (Wright, 2006). With the guided interview, the interviewer focused on the research subject but still gave employees the opportunity to talk about other issues that they were interested in (Wright, 2006). The use of attitudinal blanks was the fourth method of data collection for job satisfaction research and it started in the late 1920s. The last approach was the development of sophisticated measurement scales and it started in the 1930s (Wright, 2006).

Early research contributions treated job satisfaction as a global concept (Guion, 1992). Increasing interest in facets or aspects of job satisfaction is a positive development although it has led to the emergence of '*Different measures of job satisfaction [that] purport to measure different numbers of facets, despite conceptual similarities. Different investigators using the same measures claim different numbers of facets*' (Guion, 1992: 264).

Studies that are based on surveys and statistical analysis of responses are common in the job satisfaction literature and the high rates of satisfaction reported by most of those studies has led to the call for a different research approach in order to progress job satisfaction research (Bussing et al., 1999). Compared with questionnaires that have multiple items, single-item instruments in particular are criticised for their tendency to yield more impressive satisfaction results (Oshagbemi, 1999; Rose, 2003).

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) is the most popular job satisfaction questionnaire used by scholars interested in either overall job satisfaction or facets of job satisfaction or both (Spector, 1997; Van Saane et. al., 2003). Another instrument that is designed for the social service sector and which correlates well with JDI is Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) (see Appendix B1) developed by Spector (1997). Both instruments are described briefly below.

Job Descriptive Index (JDI)

Job Descriptive Index (JDI) covers five facets of job satisfaction namely work, pay, promotion or its prospects, supervision and co-workers that the researchers believe determine job satisfaction (Spector, 1997). The JDI has five scales and a total of 72 adjectives that describe work, pay, promotion, supervision and co-workers (Smith, 1974). In terms of the number of response options or adjectives under the 5 facets listed above work, supervision and promotion each has 18 options whilst pay and promotion have 9 options each (Smith, 1974). The five scales have high internal consistency scores that range from .80 to .88 (Smith, 1974).

JDI is easy to complete, as respondents are simply required to put ' Y ' beside a description that reflects their perception about different aspects of their jobs (Smith, 1974). An abridged version of JDI that contains 38 items was designed to reduce the time it takes to complete the questionnaire (Stanton et. al., 2001).

Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

JSS covers nine facets of job satisfaction that include salary, promotion, supervision, benefits, contingent rewards, conditions, co-workers, work itself and communication (Spector, 1997). Each facet has four items and depending on the wording of the items, respondents are required to select from response options that range from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree' (Spector, 1997). Ten scores that can be derived from JSS are made up scores from each of its nine facets and score for overall job satisfaction that is derived by adding up all the facets' scores (Spector, 1997).

2.72 JSS – JDI Comparative Analysis

When JSS scales were compared with those of JDI using the same employees, JSS scored 0.61, 0.80 and 0.19 – 0.59 for internal consistency, test-retest, convergent and discriminant validity criteria respectively (Van Saane et. al., , 2003:197). Internal consistency refers to how well items on a scale relate to each other and test-retest validity relates to the reliability of the scale over a period of time (Spector, 1997). Convergent validity is the extent to which the scores of two instruments measuring the same concept are similar and discriminant validity relates to the degree of difference in the score of an instrument from that of another that measures a related but different (Van Saane et al., 2003).

Researchers report that JSS covered 9 out of 11 work factors compiled from the 29 instruments reviewed and further note that whilst JSS met the criteria of reliability and construct validity, JDI did not meet the same '*psychometric quality criteria*' (Van Saane et. al., 2003: 195). However, the internal consistency score of 0.61 recorded for the co-worker sub-scale of JSS is lower than the 0.70 that researchers widely regard as the minimum acceptable score (Spector, 1997).

The questionnaire adopted for data collection in this research is Spector's (1997) Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS). That decision is informed by the finding that in terms of validity JSS compares favourably with JDI (Van Saane et. al., 2003). Another consideration is that JSS is designed mainly for the social service sector (Spector, 1985) and that makes it more suitable for INGO sector that is the focus of this research. With its 36 items that cover nine facets of job satisfaction JSS is suitable for investigation of job satisfaction either as a global concept or for analyzing its facets (Spector, 1997). The theory underlining the design of JSS therefore supports this researcher's position that job satisfaction is a global concept that consists of facets (Guion, 1992; Faragher et al., 2005).

2.7.3 Case for Mixed Research Methods

The debate on whether researchers should focus on facets of job satisfaction or study it as a global concept (Guion, 1992; Faragher et al., 2005) and the tendency for single item instruments to yield high rates of satisfaction (Oshagbemi, 1999) indicate that job satisfaction is a complex concept (Lipinskiene, 2008). That complexity justifies the need to combine interviews and job satisfaction surveys in order achieve deeper understanding of job satisfaction (Armstrong, 2006). A strong case for combination of research methods in job satisfaction research is presented by Taber (1991) who observes that

Traditional structured methods can provide valid scalar information about the degree or amount of job satisfaction. Nevertheless, structured satisfaction measures, such as the JDI [Job Descriptive Index], give very little useful diagnostic information about the possible sources of positive and negative job attitudes. Unstructured; interpretive methods can help identify the sources of job attitudes and can clarify the meaning of the traditional scalar satisfaction data. (Taber, 1991: 597)

Having established in this section that combining research methods will advance the study of job satisfaction, detailed explanation of how in-depth interviews and JSS are combined to address the research questions raised in Chapter 1 is provided in Section 4.3. The rest of this chapter will review literature on effects that INGO missions, culture, structure and, HRM practices have on employees' job satisfaction.

2.8.1 INGO Missions and Job Satisfaction

Following examples set by organizations in the business sector, nonprofit organizations started focusing serious attention on defining their corporate mission in the 1970s (Klemm et. al., 1991). On a general level, corporate mission serves to define the boundary of an organisation's activities and guides how it engages various stakeholders (Wright & Pandey, 2007; Klemm et. al., 1991). Unlike business organizations corporate mission is the bottom-line for nonprofits since their effectiveness is not measured by their financial performance (Brown et. al., 2004: 6). Internally, corporate mission serves to focus employees on and motivate them to give their best to the pursuit of an organisation's strategic objectives (Wright & Pandey, 2007; Klemm et. al., 1991).

In relation to nonprofits, the motivational purpose of the corporate mission is often emphasized in differentiating employees in that sector from those in business and other sectors (Brown et al., 2004; Hailey, 2000; Suzuki, 1998). It is argued that rather than financial gains, it is the satisfaction of contributing to the cause that they believe in that motivates employees in nonprofits (Brown et al., 2004). However attracting professionals from the business sector to inject business sector values required for improved performance in INGOs and other nonprofits (Cunningham, 2001) challenges the contention that employees in nonprofits are not motivated by financial gains (Brown et al., 2004). Secondly, the recognition that even employees in nonprofits that are not motivated by financial gains still have to meet basic living costs (Cunningham, 2001) justifies the need to avoid over generalisation in stating whether or not employees in nonprofits are motivated by financial gains. It is wrong to assume that employees who claim that they are not motivated by money will readily agree to be underpaid (Bradley, 2006). Thus, it is safer to suggest as Wright (2007) does in his study of motivation for public service that

'the *intrinsic rewards provided by the nature or function of the organisation may be more important to public sector employees than – or compensate for the limited availability of – performance related extrinsic rewards*' (2007:60). Wright's (2007) research population may be different but his conclusion does highlight the involvement of INGOs in human rights and peace, development and disaster and relief as a factor that could attract individuals that *have 'personal ideals relating to nonmaterial, future or altruistic relations'* (Wright & Pandey, 2007:1).

The perception that an organisation's mission is important is central to the concept of mission valence (Wright & Pandey, 2007). Based on Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory of motivation that was examined earlier, mission valence refers to how important an organization's mission is perceived (Wright, 2007). Other factors that influence how important an organization's mission is perceived include whether it is '*engaging, attractive and worthwhile*' (Wright & Pandey, 2007:1). Wright and Pandey (2007) argue that the more people see an organization's mission as reflecting those characteristics and ideals that are important to them, the more they are likely to support that organization, and the more motivated they will be to contribute to its success.

In the light of above argument, mission valence (Wright & Pandey, 2007) is relevant to this study because the concept highlights two perspectives on corporate mission that have implications for job satisfaction. First, corporate mission is a critical factor in the decision that individuals make whether to join organizations or not (Wright & Pandey, 2007). Second, the higher the mission valence perceived by employees the more motivated they will be by their work that will then be perceived as having increased in importance (Wright, 2007). The relevance of mission valence in this research is further strengthened by the fact that an INGO's policies and strategies that influence employees' '*jobs or job experiences*' (Locke, 1976:1300) are '*predominantly driven by the [its] mission*' (Ridder & McCandless, 2010:136).

Consistent with expectancy theory of motivation (Vroom, 1964), inherent in mission valence is an employee's expectation that he or she will contribute to the realization of an organisation's objectives that are driven by its mission (Wright & Pandey, 2007). How employees perceive the importance of the mission being executed by their organization has a direct influence on job satisfaction, as *'employees are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs when they value their organization's mission and objectives (Wright & Pandey, 2007:7)* Mission valence will enhance job satisfaction where employees understand how their jobs contribute towards their *'organisation and its external constituents'* (Wright, 2007:4). In that regard, clear communication and understanding of organizational goals and objectives will enhance perception of mission valence that will in turn influence employees' feelings of job satisfaction (Wright & Pandey, 2007).

The dynamic nature of the environment that INGOs operate in necessitates that they respond to changes in their environment in order to remain relevant and competitive (Dolnicar et al., 2008). Such response could take the form of strategic review that one leading humanitarian INGO embarked upon few years ago in order to become a *'responsive and focused Federation able to meet the challenges of today and tomorrow, and a global leader in our [its] core areas (IFRC, 2003:3)*. For another major INGO the response was to take on *'thematic human rights issues, such as economic and social rights, and women's rights, and to campaign in new ways'* as well as adopt a more professional approach in order *'to survive in the more market-oriented world of globalization'* (Hopgood, 2006:12).

Globalisation is widely acknowledged as the driver of the various relationships between INGOs and international business organisations (Eweje, 2004). The commitment of international business organisations to self-regulation and corporate social responsibility are some of the reasons given for the growing number of partnerships between INGOs and business organisations (Eweje, 2004; Lambell et. al., 2008; Lewis, 2003; Doh & Teegen, 2002). One of the

effects of INGO – Business partnership is that INGOs adopt management techniques and practices such as strategic planning, management by objectives, social audit and stakeholder analysis from the business sector (Lewis, 2003) in order to enhance their effectiveness.

As global players one of the ways in which INGOs feel the effects of *'market oriented world of globalization'* (Hopgood, 2006:12) is the increasing pressure that they are under to mobilize resources in a very competitive operating environment (Morris et. al., 2007). In order to obtain the resources they require to execute their missions INGOs *'are compelled to become more market-like in their actions, structures and philosophies, to act in a more entrepreneurial manner in order to attract resources for their cause and to adopt a more competitive and corporatized mode of operations'* (Dolnicar et al., 2008:109).

By collaborating with business organisations, INGOs have access to funds that enable them to implement their own programmes (Suzuki, 1998) and they also collaborate with business organisations to implement joint programmes (Heap, 2000; Ossewaarde et .al., 2008). Collaborating with business organisations creates a serious dilemma for INGOs in terms of how they are perceived by their employees and their business organisation partners (Heap, 2000; Ossewaarde et. al. 2008). INGO employees and other stakeholders are usually wary of the threat that collaborating with business organisations poses to their autonomy and they are sensitive to the risk of compromising their corporate ideals (Heap, 2000; Ossewaarde et .al., 2008). For INGO employees the concern is that the *'power of funding'* that business organisations possess may compel INGOs to *'alter or abandon their original missions'* (Suzuki, 1998:141). On the other hand, business organisations see the roles of some of their INGO partners that campaign against their operations as contradictory and difficult to reconcile (Heap, 2000). An interesting perspective on the dilemma that INGOs face when they benefit financially from their collaboration or partnership

with business organizations is that *'While INGOs need funds to run their organization, requiring these funds entails the risk of donors seeing INGOs primarily as contractors or service providers, rather than as representatives of the disadvantaged who cannot speak for themselves'* (Ossewaarde, 2008:51).

In the situation described above, the INGO – Business partnership or collaboration creates what has been described as mission – market dilemma for INGOs (Dolnicar et al., 2008; Young, 2005, Duque-Zuluaga & Schneider, 2008; Frumkin & Andre-Clark, 2000). That dilemma is that of balancing the need to collaborate with business organizations in order to be competitive and therefore survive and that of executing their missions based on values that differentiate them from business organizations (Hailey, 2000; Brown et al., 2004).

The rising profile of INGOs, global governance crises that have engulfed large organizations, criticism from international policy makers, and concerns about quality of deliverables (Cavill & Sohail, 2007) are some of the reasons why INGOs strive to be more accountable to their stakeholders. The factors above suggest that external pressure more than INGOs' commitment to self-regulation is responsible for adoption of various accountability frameworks adopted by major INGOs. The need for INGOs to be more accountable is realized within the sector and as one INGO official declares that *'We [NGOs] should be more accountable. People treat NGOs with kid gloves, as though they are mini Mother Therasas, but the sector is professional, with people with degrees in the subject and being paid like corporate management'*. (Cavill & Sohail, 2007: 231)

The argument that recent focus on accountability by INGOs has more to do with external pressure than their commitment to self-regulation is consistent with the observation that INGOs *'have been notoriously bad at evaluating the impact of their work and at accounting for their performance in a systematic way to their various stakeholders'* (Madon, 2000:5). Two forms of accountability that are applicable to INGOs are short term or functional accountability and strategic

or long-term accountability (Madon, 2000). Short-term or functional accountability refers to the requirement that INGOs provide information about how they mobilize and manage their resources to donors and trustees and strategic or long-term accountability refers to the requirement that INGOs provide information on the impact of their activities over a period to a wide group of stakeholders (Madon, 2000:6). The concept of INGO accountability proposed by Madon (2000) is helpful but it fails to address explicitly the principles and values that guide INGOs in carrying out their activities. That omission becomes important taking into consideration the long held view that the principles and values that guide the activities of INGOs serve to differentiate them from other types of organizations (Hailey, 2000; McPeak, 2001; Rothschild & Milofsky, 2006; Frumkin & Andre-Clark, 2000).

2.8.2 INGO Accountability Charter

In 2005, 12 major INGOs involved in different activities adopted the International Non-Governmental Organizations Accountability Charter (CIVICUS, 2005). The charter covers strategic and operational elements captured in Madon's (2000) concept of INGO accountability but more importantly it focuses on '*shared principles*' that guide how INGOs operate (CIVICUS, 2005:2). Signatories to the voluntary charter are Amnesty International, Action Aid International, and CIVICUS World Alliance for Participation, Consumers International, Greenpeace International, Oxfam International, Plan International, Save the Children, Survival International, Transparency International and World YMCA (CIVICUS, 2005).

Operations related guidelines that the charter covers include responsible advocacy, accurate reporting, audit, evaluation, use of donations effective programming, and good governance (CIVICUS, 2005). Signatories to the charter undertook to provide accurate information and comply with applicable governance, financial accounting, auditing and reporting requirements in the countries where they are based and or operate (CIVICUS, 2005:3- 4). The INGOs pledged

to work with local communities and other partners in the true spirit of partnership, respect the rights of donors to be informed about the purposes for which fundraising is being undertaken, ensure that financial, material and other donations received are channelled towards the pursuit of causes that are consistent with corporate mission based on prior agreement with stakeholders (CIVICUS, 2005:5-6).

The principles and values that the signatories to the INGO charter pledged to apply in carrying out their activities will be addressed in the next section that focuses on the impact that the application of corporate principles and values has on employee job satisfaction.

The argument in support of greater accountability is that INGOs would be empowered when they allow stakeholders to scrutinize their activities (Kilby, 2006). It is also contended that the more open and transparent INGOs are the more they will be able to maintain or enhance their legitimacy before stakeholders (Ossewaarde et. al, 2008). INGOs have various stakeholders that they are accountable to and the conflicting demands that may be made on them by those stakeholders may weaken their ability of to achieve their missions (Ebrahim, 2003; Ossewaarde et. al., 2008; Kilby, 2006; Madon, 2000).

In relation to the concept of mission valence that was discussed earlier, the commitment of employees to corporate missions has been identified as a key factor that contributes to the success of INGOs (Suzuki, 1998; Brewster & Lee, 2006). How INGOs handle the demands for accountability by various stakeholders has implications for organizational behaviour (Brown & Moore, 2001). An example of such implication is that *'committed staff members can stop working hard if an INGO fails to embody the values and missions that brought them to the organization* (Brown & Moore, 2001:575). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment both contribute to organizational effectiveness (Mosadeghrad et. al., 2008).

2.8.3 Organisational Commitment and Job Satisfaction

Commitment and job satisfaction are different concepts and commitment is broader than job satisfaction (Garland et. al., 2009; Koh & Boo, 2004; Yiing & Ahmad, 2009). Job satisfaction is concerned with employee's response to experience of specific jobs tasks and organizational commitment includes his or her attachment to corporate goals and values (Garland et. al., 2009; Lipinskiene, 2008). Apart from attachment to organizational goals and values, other characteristics of organizational commitment are employees' willingness to put in extra effort to enable the achievement of organizational goals and strong desire to remain in the organization (Ying & Ahmad, 2008; Koh & Boo, 2004; Garland et. al., 2009; Lipinskiene, 2008). From the characteristics of organizational commitment outlined above, it could be described as a *'process by which people come to think about their relationship with the organization...a mindset in which individuals consider the extent to which their own values and goals are congruent with those of the organization'* (Alatrasta & Arrowsmith, 2004:537). Organizational commitment is also defined as *'the relative strength of an individual's identification with, and involvement in a particular organisation'* (Koh & Boh, 2004:680).

The three types of organizational commitment on which most studies on organizational commitment are based are affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Allen & Meyer, 1990). Affective commitment relates to employees' perception of their emotional attachment to and identification with the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Allen & Meyer, 1990). Employees that have this type of commitment are strongly motivated to contribute to the realization of organizational objectives because they regard those goals as theirs (Shore & Tetrick, 1991). Continuance commitment is a type of organizational commitment that is based on employee's consideration of costs or losses such as loss of benefits, pay cut, and job search related expenses and risk of unemployment that may result from leaving an

organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Allen & Meyer, 1990). The nature of the losses that an employee perceives he or she could suffer for leaving an organization and limited opportunities in the labour market are key factors that influence continuance commitment (Mosadeghrad et. al., 2008). The fewer the work alternatives that the employee perceives he or she has the stronger the sense of continuance commitment to the organization (Meyer et. al., 1993). Normative commitment refers to employee's feeling that he or she is obliged to remain in an organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Allen & Meyer, 1990). Normative commitment could have a moral or cultural basis in which case the employee feels obliged to remain in the organization because of what the organization has invested in him or her or the belief that an employee should be loyal to his or her employer (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Research evidence exists to support the conclusion that there is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Wright & Pandey, 2007; Lipinskiene, 2008, Koh & Boo, 2004; Yiing & Ahmad, 2009). However, there is lack of agreement as to whether job satisfaction leads to organizational commitment or that organizational commitment is a precursor to job satisfaction (Mosadeghrad et. al., 2008). Whilst some researchers argue that employee commitment to the organization leads to employee job satisfaction (Lund, 2003) another group of scholars takes the view that there is a reciprocal causal relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Lance, 1991; Mathieu, 1991). This researcher supports the dominant position in the literature that job satisfaction is a precursor to organizational commitment (Mosadeghrad et. al., 2008; Koh & Boo, 2004; Mackenzie, et al., 1998). In support of that argument the critical element in various definitions of organizational commitment that employees will stay or that they will not be keen on leaving their organizations for *'moderate personal advantage'* suggests that increase in job satisfaction will lead to stronger organizational commitment (Koh & Boo, 2004: 680). Furthermore, organizational commitment is

less specific but more stable than job satisfaction and therefore it is expected that employee commitment will be affected by employees' perceptions of job satisfaction (Koh & Boo, 2004). That is because the more an organization is able to satisfy the needs of employees the more committed the employees are likely to be to that organization (Koh & Boo, 2004).

As noted earlier, INGOs respond to changes in their operating environment (Dolnicar et al., 2008) by redefining or changing their approach to the execution of corporate mission (Hopgood, 2006), embarking on strategic review (IFRC, 2003), adopting management practices from the business sector (Lewis, 2003) and , becoming more accountable to various stakeholders (Ossewaarde et. al. 2008; Kilby, 2006; Madon, 2000). The mission–market dilemma that INGOs face means that they have to pursue policies and adopt practices that enhance their competitiveness without sacrificing their missions (Dolnicar et al., 2008; Young, 2005, Duque-Zuluaga & Schneider, 2008). The next section focuses on the principles and values that guide the conduct of INGOs and their employees when they carry out activities in pursuit of their missions.

2.9.1 INGO Culture and Job Satisfaction.

It was noted in the previous section that INGOs are values-driven organisations (McPeak, 2001; Rothschild & Milofsky, 2006; Brewster & Lee, 2006). That argument is still relevant in this section that focuses on how INGOs and their employees operate according to their principles and values whilst coping with the challenges arising from operating in a competitive environment (Hopgood, 2006). The position that INGOs are values-driven organisations (McPeak, 2001; Rothschild & Milofsky, 2006; Brewster & Lee, 2006) is critical in view of the finding that there is a relationship between how employees feel about their organizations' values and how they feel about their jobs (Amos & Weathington, 2008).

Viewing INGO principles and values through the 'lens' of corporate culture enables the researcher *'to step beneath the surface of common discourse on organizational values in order to gain in-depth understanding of how people interpret the meanings of these manifestations [values] and how these interpretations form patterns of clarity, inconsistency and ambiguity'* (Fenton & Inglis, 2007: 337).

Considering that organizational culture is a well-researched area within the field of organizational behavior, it is not surprising that the concept has many definitions. Organizational culture is defined as *'distinctive norms, beliefs, principles and ways of behaving that combine to give each organization its distinct character'* (Arnold, 2005:625). Kilman et al. (1985) see organisational culture as *'the shared philosophies, ideologies, values, assumptions, beliefs, expectations, attitudes and norms that knit an organization together'* (cited in Lund, 2003:219). According to Schein (1984) organizational culture is a *'pattern of basic assumptions invented, discovered, or developed by a given groups as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid, and therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive think and feel in relation to those problems'* (Schein, 1984:3)

Schein's (1984) definition of organisational culture appears broader than those proposed by Arnold (2005) and Kilman et. al. (1995; see Lund, 2003) for it covers the components of organisational culture and emphasises its internal and external dimensions. However, what the three definitions have in common is that they highlight the uniqueness of organisational culture and the important role it plays as frame of reference for assessing and understanding individual and corporate action (Fenton & Inglis, 2007; Manetje & Martins, 2009; Sempene et. al., 2002; Bellou, 2010).

2.9.2 Models of Organisational Culture

Different studies focusing on the relationship between organisational culture and job satisfaction adopt theoretical models that associate low or high levels of job satisfaction with certain types of organisational culture or dimensions of organisational culture (Bellou, 2010; Manetje & Martins, 2009; Lund, 2003). Similar to the earlier debate about which instrument or approach is best suited to job satisfaction research, there is no agreement among scholars on what constitutes the best approach to the study of organisational culture (Ying & Ahmad, 2009; Howard, 1998).

Cameron and Quinn (2006) propose a typology of organisational cultures that consists of clan, adhocracy, hierarchy and market types of culture (see Fig. 2.3). Each type of culture is differentiated from others based on characteristics such as shared beliefs, leadership style, basis for the bond that exists between organisation members, and what is emphasised by overall corporate strategy (Cameron & Quinn, 2006).

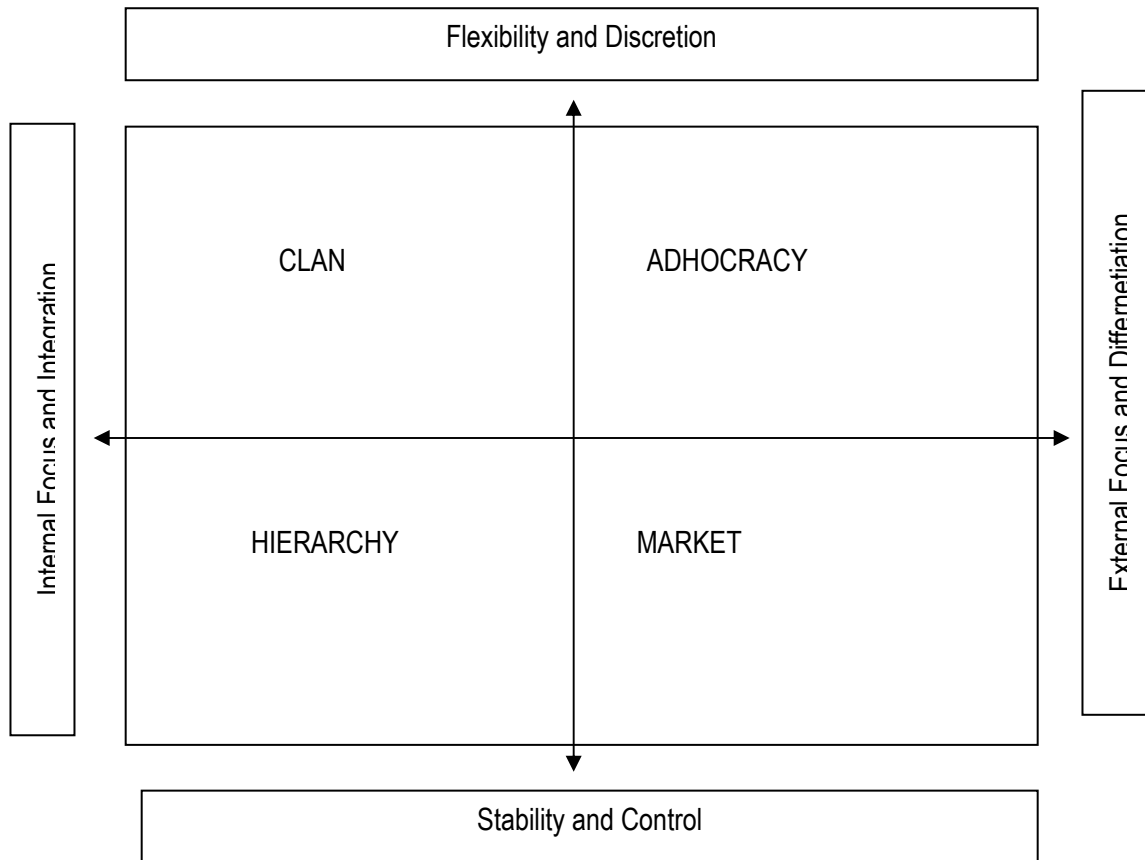


Figure 2.3 Types of Organisational Culture (core values).

Source: Adapted from Cameron & Quinn, 2006.

In the clan type of culture the organisation is focused on internal maintenance and the work environment encourages employee participation, teamwork, and employees feel they belong to a family (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Group loyalty and sense of tradition are strong in this type of culture, leaders are considered mentors and employee development is central to corporate strategy (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). In adhocracy the organisation is focused on positioning itself externally, and the dominant attributes in this culture are flexibility, and creativity meaning that experimentation and risk-taking are encouraged (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). The

strategic emphasis in adhocracy is on innovation, growth and industry or sector leadership (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Corporate focus in a hierarchical culture is on internal maintenance and this culture is characterised by order, rules, and regulations that govern behaviour (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). In this type of culture leaders focus on being good coordinators or administrators, and corporate strategy is designed to ensure smooth operations and stability (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Market type of culture is characterised by competitiveness and goal achievement and leaders are demanding and results-driven (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Corporate strategy in a market culture is geared towards gaining competitive advantage and market leadership (Cameron & Quinn, 2006).

Corporate culture is made up of elements of the four types of culture described above and the type of culture indicated in each quadrant in Figure 2.3 represents the dominant culture in an organisation at a particular time (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). The model proposed by Cameron & Quinn (2006) enables effective assessment of the type of culture that is dominant in an organisation thereby facilitating focused implementation of cultural change.

As most models existing models do, Cameron and Quinn, (2006) base their contribution on the conceptualisation of organisational culture as a '*group level phenomenon*' (Kwantes & Boglarsky, 2007:205). From that perspective organisational culture is about beliefs, values and behavioural expectations that are held in '*Common*' or '*shared*' by organisational members (Kwantes & Boglarsky, 2007:205). In that case, organisational culture is not regarded as an individual-phenomenon and data analysis takes the form of aggregating at the organisational level the data that were gathered from individual employees (Kwantes & Boglarsky, 2007).

By neglecting the perspective of organisational culture that sees the concept as an individual-phenomenon (Kwantes & Boglarsky, 2007), the model proposed by Cameron and Quinn (2006) could be deemed reductionist. A counter argument would be that since the model is

primarily designed to enable organisational culture diagnosis focusing on the concept at the corporate or group level is both appropriate and sufficient. Such a position is plausible although it reduces the applicability of the model to this research which focuses on effects that INGO principles and values have on employees' job satisfaction. Analysis of organisational culture in this study is therefore based on the notion that it is an '*individual perception of an organizational phenomenon*' (Kwantes & Boglarsky, 2007:205). Such perspective enables this research to avoid the fallacy of '*confusing individual - level and social – systems level approaches, as both constructs reflect individual rather than group characteristics, and both are measured exclusively at the individual level*' (Kwantes & Boglarsky, 2007:206). Analysis of organisational culture at the individual level focuses on how employees interpret events and experiences that influence their perceptions of satisfaction or effectiveness of their organisation's culture (Kwantes & Boglarsky, 2007).

According to Schein (1984), organisational culture manifests as artefacts, assumptions, and values. Artefacts are visible aspects of organisational culture such as technology, visible and audible behaviour patterns, assumptions and thoughts about nature of reality, nature of human activity, nature of human relationships (Schein, 1984). Those assumptions are not verified but they are presumed to be true by members of an organisation (Schein, 1984). Values are shared assumptions that are overt, espoused and therefore debatable (Schein, 1984). As shown in Fig. 2.4 below the three levels of culture are interrelated although they are different in terms of how each leads to or enables clear understanding of organisational culture. Artefacts are visible but often they are not decipherable and because assumptions are invisible, focusing on values leads to '*greater level of awareness*' of organisational culture' (Schein, 1984:4).

In support of Schein (1984), other researchers (Hofstede et. al., 1990; Howard, 1998; Baker et. al., 2006) also stress the importance of focusing on corporate values as means of understanding organisational culture. As criteria or standards for evaluating what action or

approach is appropriate in a given situation (Howard, 1998; Beck et. al., 2008), values define organizational goals in broad terms (Vandenberghe & Peiro, 1999). Values also enable the representation of employees' cultural preferences in relation to their organizations' (O'Reilly et. al., 1991).

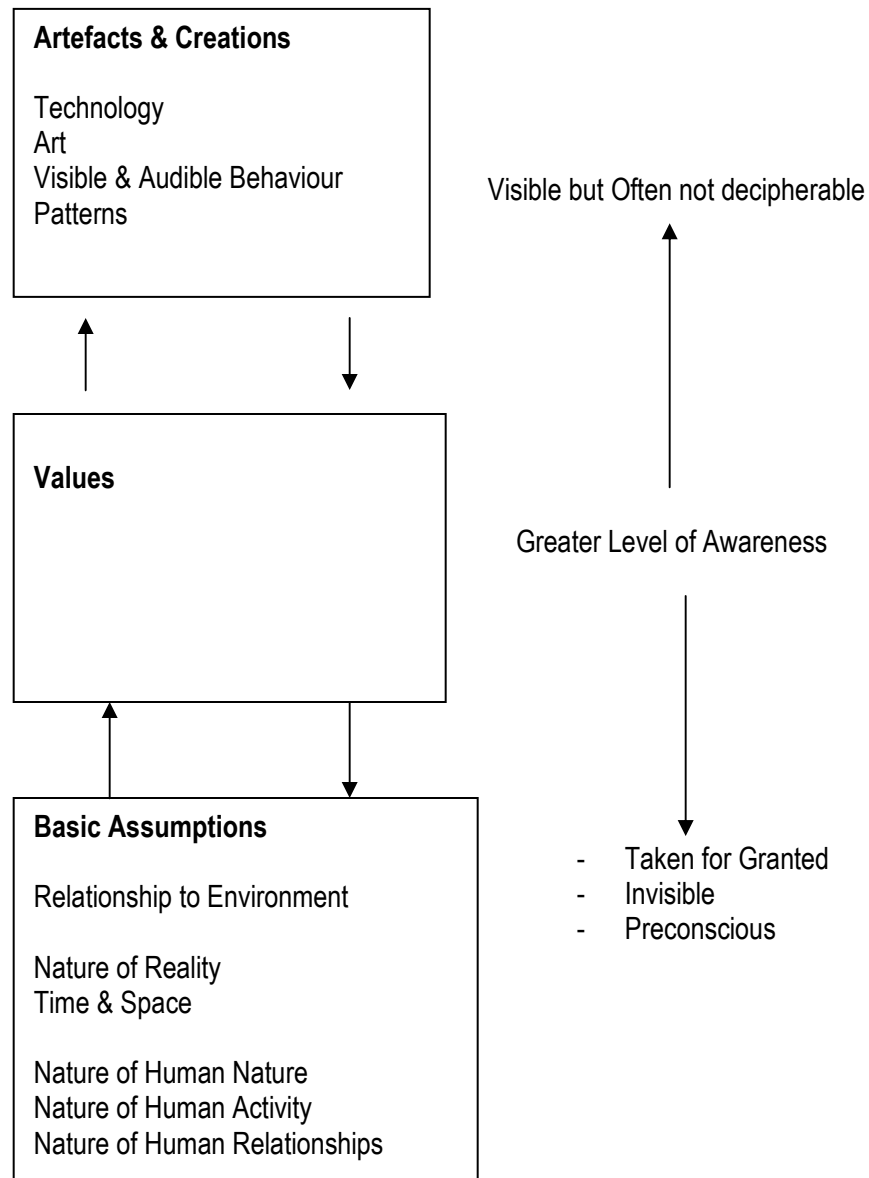


Figure 2.4 Levels of Organizational Culture and Their Interaction

Source: Adapted from Schein, 1984

Understanding organisational culture through values involves paying attention to the manifestation of values in form of organisational practices that are '*visible to an observer although their cultural meaning lies in the way they are perceived by insiders*' (Hofstede et. al. 1990:291). Such approach is relevant to this research which combines interviewing members of organisation with content analysis of documents and charters (Schein, 1984:3).

2.9.3 INGO Principles and Values

The commitment made by major INGOs to communicate regularly with various stakeholders and report their activities accurately under the INGO Accountability Charter (CIVICUS, 2005) was discussed in the previous section on INGO missions. According to the same charter, INGOs should be guided by values and principles such as respect for universal principles, independence, responsible advocacy, and non-discrimination in carrying out their activities (CIVICUS, 2005). The principles and values are summarized below (CIVICUS, 2005: 3 – 4).

Respect for Universal Principles

INGOs undertake to promote rights to freedom of speech, assembly and association as enshrined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. They also undertake to uphold national and international laws aimed at ecosystem protection and sustainable development.

Independence

INGOs aim to be financially and politically independent thereby ensuring that governance, policies and programmes are non-partisan and are free from control by governments and business sector.

Responsible Advocacy

The signatories to the charter declared that advocacy and other promotional activities that they are engaged in would be consistent with their missions.

Non – Discrimination

The INGOs undertake to encourage diversity and strive to be impartial and non-discriminatory in carrying out their activities and in the formulation and application of their internal policies.

INGO values fall into four categories namely weltanschauung, temporal, terminal and organisational values (Kilby, 2006: 953). Weltanschauung values refer to an INGO's worldview based for example on a religious faith and temporal values relate to its immediate concerns (Kilby, 2006). INGO terminal values cover the long-term goal such as poverty eradication and organizational values represent the guiding principles such as impartiality and accountability based on which the INGO operates (Kilby, 2006). In relating the categorization of INGO values (Kilby, 2006) to INGO Accountability Charter, the charter reflects in a generic way the four categories of values described above (CIVICUS, 2005). However, it must be noted that the category labeled 'temporal values' relate more to missions or focus of INGOs than their values. On the other hand organizational values is the category of INGO values that '*drives*' the way INGOs work ' (Kilby , 2006:953). That definition that this study adopts brings the principles and values summarized from the INGO Accountability Charter above under organizational values for they are designed to guide how INGOs work with stakeholders to '*advance our [their] individual missions*' (CIVICUS, 2005:1).

As noted in the previous section on INGO missions, the dramatic changes in INGO management culture have narrowed the traditional boundary between INGOs and business organisations (Heap, 2000). INGOs now accept that they '*function in a market situation, [and that] they do compete for scarce donor resources*' (Lindenberg, 2001:255). They also operate in a 'dilemma-ridden, complex and fast changing environment '*that exposes them to the risk of becoming 'survival driven'*' as opposed to being value driven (Walker, 2007: 2). The mission – market dilemma (Dolnicar et. al., 2008; Duque-Zuluaga & Schneider, 2008) that INGOs face that was discussed in the previous section is still relevant in considering how employees' perceptions of organisational values influence their job satisfaction. That is mainly because although INGOs are '*driven by and concerned with a primary mission and value ... they [must] also attend to the practical operations of the organization*' (Beck et. al., 2008:156).

As part of the process of attending to practical operations (Beck et. al., 2008) most INGOs have had to adopt a sophisticated project management tool called Logical Framework Analysis (LFA) at the behest of donors (Ebrahim, 2003; Hailey, 2000). LFA has improved the ability of INGOs to be more specific in their programme objectives and expected results (Ebrahim, 2003; Hailey, 2000). The shortcoming of LFA is that it is '*inadequate for monitoring complex developmental projects*' (Ebrahim, 2003:817) and LFA's emphasis on '*output, impact, and capacity*' '*dilutes 'values and intangible social goals that INGOs espouse*' (Hailey, 2000:404).

In relation to the application of values, signing accountability charter or enunciating principles and values would appear to be easier than applying them for as some researchers noted '*the phrase walk the talk captures the challenges many organizations face if they are to enact their espoused values. This alignment of words and deeds is often the crux of the issue*' (Fenton & Inglis, 2007:335). In INGO operations the importance of applying principles and values is emphasised by one official who sees '*our work as the practical enactment of some very high and important principles,*

or ethics, as they are codified in IHL [International Humanitarian Law]. These ethics have no meaning other than when they are translated into action which makes our task a special one (Walker, 2007:1)

The challenge faced by INGOs in applying their principles and values is exemplified by the view that it unrealistic for humanitarian INGOs to think that they could conduct their activities whilst adhering fully to the principles of neutrality and impartiality (Van Woudenberg, 2005). In criticising the inconsistency and lack of cohesion that characterised how INGOs approached their missions during a major humanitarian operation, an INGO official observes that

As a human rights person and with hindsight, I now feel that our reaction at the time was uncoordinated. As humanitarian agencies, we failed to speak with One voice. There is also no doubt in my mind that aid agencies were manipulated during this time. Had we spoken with an impartial voice, one that focused on the need to help both sides but also on the need to respect human rights and therefore speak out against the manipulation that we were witnessing, I think the results might have been different. But we did not and, instead, the different agencies went in different directions and the results were destructive sadly. Tens of thousands of ... died. Many of us knew it was happening and denouncing the manipulation of aid, but we felt that it was very difficult to do this. (Van Woudenberg, 2005:107).

A simple interpretation of the situation depicted above is that the various INGOs involved in the operation chose to carry out their activities even if that involved sacrificing principles and values. Application of corporate principles and values could be more challenging in cases involving faith-based INGOs where employees are expected to combine the delivery of services with the expression of religious and moral values (Kniss & Campbell, 1997). Without diminishing the importance of applying corporate principles and values, the fact that INGOs operate like business organisations means some employees may perform their duties effectively without necessarily agreeing with or applying their organisations' core values (Suzuki, 1998).

Internally, corporate values give employees a sense of solidarity and they can be motivational and inspirational to INGOs and their employees in their pursuit of corporate missions (Mowles, 2008; Andrews, 2010). On the other hand, INGO values could be a source of demoralisation where employees perceive that their organisation does not apply its espoused values to them (Mowles, 2008). Values could also be a source of conflict where employees perceive them as management tools or basis for the exercise of control over staff (Thoms, 2008; Mowles, 2008). As corporate ideals, INGO principles and values are based on ethics (Mowles, 2008). Ethics are

standards of conduct that guide decisions and actions, based on duties derived from core values, fundamental beliefs or principles, defining what we think is right, good, fair, and just and demonstrating behaviours that tell people how to act in ways that meet the standard our values set for us (Thoms, 2008:419).

From the definition of ethics above, ethical behaviour is that which conforms to organizational values, norms and policies (Baker et. al., 2006). That perspective is consistent with the position taken in this research that understanding how INGO employees feel about the application of principles and values in their organizations is best achieved by examining their perceptions of the congruence between the principles and values that INGOs enunciate and their actual practices (Fenton & Inglis, 2007; Walker, 2007; Valentine et. al., 2006). That position however recognizes that personal values could influence individuals' decisions as to what is ethical or unethical (Valentine et. al., 2006) and that interacting with others influences how individuals handle ethical issues (Baker et. al., 2006).

2.9.4 Corporate Ethical Context

Employees' feelings about the application of corporate principles and values are shaped by an organization's ethical context (Valentine et. al., 2006) which is a major component of its culture (Schwepker, 2001; Fritz et. al., 1999; Shafer, 2009). Ethical context refers to established ethical guidelines and values on which employees base their understanding of their organization's ethical disposition (Valentine et. al., 2006). Ethical context influences how employees make decisions on issues with ethical content or implications (Valentine et. al., 2006). Understanding an organization's ethical context involves focusing on employees' experiences in the application of corporate principles including making ethical decisions and getting necessary managerial support to behave ethically (Biron, 2010; Elci & Alpan, 2009; Valentine et. al., 2006; Baker et. al., 2006). The more employees perceive their organizations as ethical and supportive of ethical behaviour the more satisfied they are with their jobs (Elici & Alpan, 2009; Schwepker, 2001; Valentine et. al., 2006).

Managers and supervisors play a crucial role in shaping how employees apply corporate values and principles in carrying out their work activities (Thoms, 2008; Baker et. al., 2006; Fritz et. al., 1999). By observing their managers and supervisors, employees are able to assess whether there is consistency between their organizations' word and deed' (Valentine et. al., 2006:583). In order for an organization's ethical context to have positive influence on employees' job satisfaction, it must be perceived by employees as *'encouraging ethical (and discouraging unethical) practices, developing mutual trust and respect among followers, and resolution of conflicts among stakeholders with competing interests (Thoms, 2008: 423)*. An organization can also enhance employee job satisfaction with regard to ethical behaviour or application of values by emphasizing ethical practices that underline the congruence between personal values and corporate values (Valentine et. al., 2006).

How employees perceive their organizations' ethical context is reflected in their rating of their organizations' Corporate Ethical Values or CEV (Baker et. al., 2006). The CEV measures employees' perception of how ethical their organizations are by focusing on formal systems such as reward systems , policies and codes of conduct and informal systems like norms, practices and beliefs shared by members of those organizations (Baker et. al., 2006). In examining how employees perceive ethical contexts in their organizations CEV approach specifically considers (a) the extent to which employees perceive that managers are acting ethically in their organization, (b) the extent to which employees perceive that managers are concerned about the issues of ethics in their organizations and (c) the extent to which employees perceive that ethical behaviour is rewarded (punished) in their organization (Baker et. al., 2006:853).

The '*uncertain and contingent*' nature of the situations in which INGOs operate (Madon, 2000:12) requires that they demonstrate flexibility in applying their principles and values in order to survive. As part of the steps that INGOs take to adapt to their operating environment they review their organisational structures (Hailey, 2009). Frequent review of organisational structures by most INGOs is justified with the argument that '*there is nothing static or permanent about organisational structures. Restructuring is therefore a normal appropriate response to changing contextual or strategic conditions*' (Hailey, 2009:8). INGOs have been criticised for not putting their '*values into practice in their organisational structures and behaviour , or even that they are clear about their core values*' (Mowles, 2008:7). The influence of INGO organisational structures on employee job satisfaction will be explored in the next section that focuses on how employees at INGO headquarters and their field based colleagues perceive working relations between both locations.

2.10.1 INGO Organizational Structures and Job Satisfaction

The types of organizational structures that INGOs adopt are important because they require appropriate organizational structures to exercise their mandate and execute their strategies effectively (Balding et. al., 2006). The structures that INGOs adopt also influence the perceptions of stakeholders as to their capacity to achieve their missions and provide services (Balding et. al., 2006). The fact that most studies that investigate the effectiveness of international organisations pay little attention to organisational structure has been criticised (Balding et. al., 2006; Hailey, 2009; Fowler, 1992). In this research, organisational structure refers to the *'enduring characteristics of an organisation reflected by the distribution of units and positions within the organisation and their systematic relationships to each other'* (James & Jones, 1976:76). It enables an organisation to define relationships among divisions within it including the allocation of authority and responsibilities (Hudson & Bielefeld, 1997). Organizational structure determines or influences the exercise of power by employees in their interaction with each other, how employees communicate with each other and the nature of *'friendship'* (James & Jones, 1976:76) that develops between employees in different parts of the organization. In the earlier definition of organisational structure, the *'systematic relationships'* between different units and positions in an organisation (James & Jones, 1976:76) refer to how resources are allocated, how authority is exercised, how work is divided and how information is exchanged (Young et. al., 2003).

Organisational structure is also relevant in the discussion of employee job satisfaction because employees that are based in different locations *'tend to have different work environment experiences, and this leads to differences in the frames of reference they use to evaluate the work situation'* (Newman, 1975:374). In the INGO context difference in focus between headquarters and field personnel generates tensions in working relations (Suzuki, 1998). In this research, the focus on relations between INGO headquarters and field locations covers how employees perceive

their co-workers, how they are supervised and the effectiveness of communication between both locations (Spector, 1997; Suzuki, 1998).

2.10.2 Drivers of INGO Organisational Structures and Types of Structure

Considering the importance of organisational structures, the decision regarding the type of structure that an organisation adopts is a 'conscious' and '*rational choice*' that is informed by the '*specific objectives*' it wishes to pursue. (Balding et. al., 2006:3). In reality the types of structures that INGOs adopt are determined or influenced by a combination of contextual, strategic, institutional, managerial, and technological factors (Hailey, 2009; Fowler, 2000).

The need for INGOs to '*remain relevant*', address concerns of stakeholders and meet the needs of their beneficiaries compels them to adopt structures that promote efficiency and innovation as part of '*new ways of working internationally*' (Hailey, 2009:5). That position challenges the notion in the definition of organisational structure above that an organisation's structure is a reflection of its '*enduring characteristics*' (James & Jones, 1976:76). It is doubtful whether organisational structures of most INGOs actually reflect their '*enduring characteristics*' (James & Jones, 1976:76), since one of the ways in which they adapt to their fast changing operating environment is by changing their structures (Hailey, 2009; Fowler, 2000). As one researcher argues '*most international NGOs appear to have changed their governance structure a number of times in their history*' (Foreman, 1999:180).

As an influential group of stakeholders, donors influence the type of structures that INGOs adopt through their funding policies that determine the spread or allocation of funds for programme implementation (Hailey, 2009; Fowler, 2000; Foreman, 1999). In view of increased competition for funds, INGOs have had to review their structures to address cost -efficiency concerns expressed by donors in order to gain access to much needed funds (Hailey, 2009;

Fowler, 2000). A shift in strategy that has also led to some INGOs becoming less operational and more focused on long-term development has resulted in a situation where INGOs work through independent local partners (Hailey, 2009; Fowler, 2000) thereby eliminating the need to employ field personnel.

Institutional and managerial factors that influence the design or review of INGO organisational structures include the development of common operational standards and promotion of organisational culture that facilitates inclusive decision-making and shared learning that managers in INGOs believe will enhance organisational effectiveness (Hailey, 2009; Madon, 2000; Foreman, 1999).

The three major types of organisational structures adopted by INGOs are Federation, Confederation and Alliances (Hailey, 2009; Hudson & Bielefeld, 1997). An INGO that is a Federation is made up of semi-autonomous entities *that 'share a common purpose, mission and history and that have joined together under the auspices of a national [or international] organization that articulates this mission at the national [or international] level and provides leadership for the movement'* (Hudson & Bielefeld, 1997:35). In a Federation, individual or national members voluntarily *'cede power to a relatively strong organization'* (Foreman, 1999:180). A Confederation consists of autonomous and 'like-minded' organizations working in a common field (Hailey, 2009; Foreman, 1999). Confederations are led by few autonomous boards or strong members which team up to form international secretariats that are relatively small in size (Fenwick, 2005; Foreman, 1999). Alliances are networks of INGOs that work in closely related fields, share facilities and expertise (Hailey, 2009; Hudson & Bielefeld, 1997).

Centralisation and decentralisation are key dimensions of organisational structures (Andrews, 2010; Johari & Yahya, 2009; Schiminke et al., 2002) and they are reflected in varying degrees in the three types of structures described above. Centralisation refers to the

amount of power or degree of latitude that employees in different positions have to make decisions or the opportunity to participate in decision-making (Andrews, 2010; Johari & Yahya, 2009; Schiminke et. al., 2002). It reflects the concentration of decision making power in respect of policy issues such as hiring and firing (macro centralisation) and concentration of decision making power as it affects how an employee does his or her job (micro centralisation) (Johari & Yahya, 2009; Schiminke et. al., 2002). Centralisation minimises risk of structural fragmentation and it ensures cohesion in how INGOs approach the execution of their mission (Hailey, 2009; Fowler, 1992). On the negative side and as far as INGOs are concerned centralisation promotes bureaucracy (Fowler, 1992) since INGO headquarters have to provide various services to field locations, chart strategic direction for the INGO and represent the organisation before stakeholders (Suzuki, 1998)

Decentralisation refers to the *'degree to which power is held in a central place – usually the top – or distributed downwards or within or outwards from an organisation'* (Fowler, 2000:221). Potential benefits of decentralisation include improved responsiveness in handling local issues, reduction in bureaucracy, improved programme delivery, efficient resource allocation, and better liaison with donors (Hailey, 2009; Fowler, 1992).

Specific factors, which influence the adoption of decentralisation by INGOs, include response to donor demands, pressure from NGOs in developing countries and forces of globalisation such as economic and political regionalisation and improvements in information technology and telecommunications (Hailey, 2009; Fowler, 2000). The dynamic and complex environments in which INGOs operate require that they adopt decentralisation instead of centralisation that is more appropriate in a stable operating environment (Schmidt, 2006; Argote et. al., 1989). Improvements in information technology and telecommunications have also been cited as factors that support the case for adoption of centralisation by INGOs (Fowler, 2000). It is

argued that improvements in IT and Telecoms will mitigate the risks of fragmentation and lack of cohesion that are associated with decentralisation because INGO headquarters and field locations will communicate with each other more effectively (Hailey, 2009; Fowler, 2000; Suzuki, 1998). For those in favour of centralisation, improvements in IT and Telecoms imply that senior personnel could coordinate programme activities from INGO headquarters instead of relocating to field locations (Fowler, 2000). The main justification for decentralization is that it will enable INGOs to provide '*a truly international response...namely the formation of global associations that globalization demands*' (Fowler, 2000:220).

Potential demerits of decentralisation includes weakening of INGO corporate identity that results from efforts to adapt to local contexts (Fowler, 1992). Three forms of decentralization commonly adopted by INGOs are deconcentration, delegation and devolution (Fowler, 2000; 1992). Deconcentration is a limited transfer of responsibilities downwards or outwards without transfer of authority. With delegation, responsibilities and the authority necessary to discharge them are transferred and under devolution authority is transferred to semi-autonomous entities (Fowler, 2000; 1992).

Even as more INGOs embrace decentralisation they still retain structures that enable them to control activities of regional and field offices in a way that does not make them either fully decentralised or completely unitary (Fenwick, 2005). The coordination provided by a 'strong centre' or headquarters in a federative structure and by 'strong members' in a confederation includes resource allocation and setting of standards for the organisation's activities (Fenwick, 2005:500). In both cases but especially in a federation the coordination role draws attention to the influence of INGO headquarters and the criticism that they '*impose detailed plans*' on field locations (Hailey, 2009:7).

2.10.3 INGO Headquarters – Field locations Working Relations

In terms of division of authority and responsibilities, INGO headquarters is responsible for 'Organisation Centred Activities (OCAs) and field offices are responsible for 'Programme Centred Activities' (PCAs) (Suzuki, 1998). OCAs are aimed at ensuring the survival and effectiveness of the INGO and they include, resource mobilization, staff welfare, and coordination of field offices (Suzuki, 1998). PCAs cover responsibilities of field locations for INGO programme implementation (Suzuki, 1998). The descriptions of OCAs and PCAs (Suzuki, 1998) above are consistent with what Mintzberg (1979) describes as the strategic and operational aspects of an organisation's structure respectively. Such theoretical position is based on the assumption that an INGO's OCAs (Suzuki, 1998) are located at the strategic apex of its structure (Mintzberg, 1979). That apex which is the INGO headquarters is made up of managers who are responsible for charting the overall direction of the organisation (Mintzberg, 1979). Structurally therefore, an INGO's headquarters performs the following functions (Mintzberg, 1979):

- (a) Supervision of staff / departments
- (b) Resource allocation
- (c) Strategic decision-making
- (e) Assessment of operating environment
- (f) Management of stakeholders
- (g) Operations support

From the above analysis that ties an INGO's OCAs and headquarters to its 'strategic apex' it is extrapolated that field locations that focus on PCAs (Suzuki, 1998) constitute its 'operating core' (Mintzberg, 1979). Thus, INGO field locations as its 'operating core' is made up of

employees who focus on the activities and delivery of services that are directly related to corporate mission (Mintzberg, 1979).

In order for an INGO to achieve its objectives, it has to achieve effective integration between strategic or 'organisation centred activities' and operational or 'programme centred activities' (Suzuki, 1998; Mintzberg, 1979). It has been observed that although more INGOs are adopting decentralization many of them retain the '*headquarter -dominated unitary model*' (Hailey, 2009:1). The integration of OCAs and PCAs referred to above is driven by the INGO headquarters through coordinating mechanisms such as formal and informal communication with field locations, specification of work activities and results, standardization of work processes and supervision (Mintzberg, 1979; Suzuki, 1998).

The coordinating mechanisms above regulate the interactions between employees responsible for strategic and operational activities and they reflect how power is enforced or exercised in the organisation (Schmidt, 2006; Mintzberg, 1979; Ouchi, 1977). Therefore, the coordinating mechanisms influence the nature of the working relations between employees at headquarters and field locations (Suzuki, 1998) the perception of which influences employee job satisfaction. The difference in focus that exists between INGO headquarters and field relations generates tensions between both locations, as employees in each location believe its activities should take priority over the other's (Suzuki, 1998).

Suzuki (1998) illustrates the tensions between employees at INGO headquarters and field locations with a practical example involving a Desk Officer at an INGO headquarters who tries to get her busy field office counterpart to produce high quality report for the organisation's donor. The tension that is evident in both employees' accounts of the situation provides good basis for the interpretation of job satisfaction. The Desk Officer explains that

we spend quite a lot of time of time analysing figures, editing reports, so that they can comply with the funders' requirements. We are trying to work out schedules that are largely based on the funders' requirements. We ensure that the field complies with that, and if they don't comply; we would try to find out why. There might be a reason so we really have to dig hard to find out ... I was unhappy with a financial report. I was angry as my first reaction. The second thing would be 'OK, there are a number of ways of dealing with this? You either send a fax immediately, saying, 'I am really fed up with this. 'That's one option. Now if you go for the first option, what you are going to get at the other end is a person sitting 5000 miles away saying, 'There is no way, I am going to respond to this. I may have responded if they had asked me politely, but I am not going to. 'So I could have chosen to write a diplomatic letter. In fact, what I did in the end was I decided I would do most of the work here and I am going to send it back to the field to complete with a letter. What I am going to do is to write a letter which will say, 'I want you to present your report like this, in the future' (Suzuki, 1998: 9)

Clearly unhappy with the Desk Officer's letter and the priority that headquarters gives to meeting donors' funding requirements, the field officer reports that

there was a lot of negative feedback coming from headquarters. 'We feel that reports are not good from the point of view of A, B, C, D, E, F, G.' I think it' also important to have discussions with headquarters on what kind of issues they see the funder prioritizes. I mean, all the buzzwords are around now, sustainability, community participation, all those kinds of things. There are issues that headquarters wants very much addressed. Headquarters wants to address them, I think, because their funders are insisting on it. So we have to make that materialise on the ground, which has not brought about much change. They didn't understand our constraints. Their priorities are to have a report or proposal that is professionally turned out and this is what you are marketing. Our priority is to discuss the thing with project managers and field workers, and see how programmes can be improved, while they are interested in satisfying funders". (Suzuki, 1998:10)

Suzuki (1998) argues that tensions in working relations between INGO locations are inevitable because INGOs strive to be accountable to donors and for programme delivery at the same time (Suzuki, 1998). In the example above the divergence in the views of both employees regarding the priority that should be attached to preparing reports that comply with requirements of donors (Suzuki, 1998) could lead to divergence of expectations. Divergence of expectations could lead to perceived role conflict (Mohr & Puck, 2007; Foreman, 1999) especially from the perspective

of the field officer in the example above. Role conflicts arise when employees perceive expectations of their role as contradictory, competing or incompatible and role conflicts may lower job satisfaction or cause dissatisfaction with work content and co-workers (Mohr & Puck, 2007; Foreman, 1999). Perceived role conflict may also lead employees to manifest stress, poor interpersonal relationships, lower levels of trust and respect for the parties that they believe are responsible for mounting conflicting pressures on them (Mohr & Puck, 2007; Foreman, 1999).

Also, the indication by the Desk Officer that *'we spend quite a lot of time analysing figures, editing reports so that they can comply...'* (Suzuki, 1998:9) could eventually lead to perception of role overload that correlates negatively with job satisfaction (Chou & Robert, 2008; Pearson, 2008; Thompson et. al., 1997; Spector, 1997). Specifically, the Desk Officer may experience quantitative type of role overload, which refers to a situation where an employee feels that the volume of work to be done is excessive (Spector, 1997; Riordan, 1998). On the other hand, the field officer may be experiencing qualitative role overload in preparing reports that meet the standards set by headquarters when she explains that *'they didn't understand our constraints'* (Suzuki, 1998:10). Qualitative role overload describes a situation where an individual finds a task very difficult due to the physical and mental demands that such task places on him or her (Spector, 1997; Riordan, 1998).

As noted earlier, the coordinating mechanisms enable INGO headquarters to *'regulate the behaviour of field offices'* (Suzuki, 1998:144). In the example cited earlier, the Desk Officer at the INGO headquarters determines how reports should be prepared as part of the process of *'systematically subordinating'* field offices *'to the headquarters' style of work'* (Suzuki, 1998:145). In a relationship *where 'it is taken for granted that the field represents the lower part of the organizational structure ... the field is more likely to be influenced by headquarters' style than to influence headquarters'* (Suzuki, 1998:145). In the relationship between both locations, it is common to find

the field locations complaining that they are compelled to devote most of their resources to meeting the requirements of their headquarters at the expense of programme delivery (Fyvie & Alastair, 1999; Roberts et. al., 2005). According to one field Director the problem has to do

with the amount of work. We never seem to lift our eyes up from this obsessive accounting for every penny several times over. There's just too much of it to be of any use. They [headquarters] have bought the overall management paradigm of objectives, measurement, standardization, and people have to fit into this system. (Fyvie & Alastair, 1999:1389).

A form of power that headquarters of international or transnational organizations exercise in their relations with their subsidiaries or field offices is described as 'centred form of power' (Faulconbridge & Hall, 2009:786). Centred form of power is an instrumental type of power that is based mainly on the authority that the headquarters of an INGO or MNC has to allocate resources on behalf of the organisation (Faulconbridge & Hall, 2009; Lee & Tiedens, 2001). Resource allocation is a potential source of tension between both locations because field locations do not expect '*HQ. to play a coercive regulatory role [through] shaping field activities by force*' although they recognize the need for headquarters to control resource allocation (Suzuki, 1998:136). The expectation by field locations that INGO headquarters will not be '*coercive*' (Suzuki, 1998:136) in exercising its resource allocation power suggests that they expect to be involved by the headquarters in some manner in the decision making process.

Whether the field offices' expectation to be involved in resource allocation decision is met or not is important. That is because there is a positive correlation between employee participation in decision making and job satisfaction (O'Driscoll et al., 2006). Participating in decision making will influence field employees' perceptions of satisfaction with working relations between both locations because they will feel that have been given the opportunity to express their views and concerns (O'Driscoll et al., 2006). Apart from influencing budgetary allocation,

participation in decisions that affect how people perform their jobs often has positive influence on their job satisfaction because *'most people are motivated to decide at least over themselves'* (Schmidt, 2006:6).

The second form of power that INGO headquarters exercise in their relations with field locations is *'mobilization'* (Faulconbridge & Hall, 2009:786). This form of power comes into play where field locations or subsidiaries of a multinational organization are *'financially and organizationally autonomous'* (Faulconbridge & Hall, 2009: 786) meaning that the resource control or resource allocation power does not lie with the headquarters . This form of power is subtle, does not depend on or flow from structural hierarchy but it emerges from the relations that headquarters *'manufacture'* to control subsidiaries or field offices due to of weak structural relations between them (Faulconbridge & Hall, 2009).

Specific practices associated with both forms of power include authority, coercion, domination, inducement, manipulation, and seduction (Faulconbridge & Hall, 2009:786). The notion that *'certain forms of power may travel better than others'*(Faulconbridge & Hall, 2009:786) encapsulates the argument that effectiveness of the different forms of power listed above depends on the locations from which they are mobilized and exercised. That position on the *'Organizational geographies of power'* rests on the submission that

Domination is usually mobilized by actors operating *'from the centre, headquarters ... Whereas seduction or inducement may involve 'multi-level' mobilizations involving spatially dispersed actors in multiple subsidiaries [or INGO field locations] as well as the headquarters ...domination [is] exercisable at a distance whereas authority or seduction might require negotiations between co-present parties ...'* (Faulconbridge & Hall, 2009:786).

The *'power analysis'* framework is useful but measuring or establishing for example when power is being exercised in form of seduction or manipulation could be empirically challenging (Lister, 1999). For example, *'the existence of a consensus does not eliminate the possibility*

that power is somehow being exercised. Indeed those situations which may appear to be free from the exercise of power can be those in which power differences are the most deeply ingrained' (Lister, 1999:6).

As noted earlier mobilization and exercise of power in an organizational context is a function of an organization's structural configuration (Suzuki, 1998; Mintzberg, 1979). The forms of power described earlier represent different expressions of power relations (Faulconbridge & Hall, 2009) that are maintained or developed when members or parts of the organization communicate with each other (Tourish & Robson, 2006; Argote et. al., 1989). Communication is critical to all organizational functions (Goris, 2007) therefore organizational structures are designed to reflect as much as possible the '*key interdependencies*' that exist in organizations (Caruso et. al., 2007:2). Different parts of the organization have to be properly coordinated and must share information in a collaborative way in order for it to fulfill its mission (Caruso et. al., 2007).

Employees that are satisfied with organizational communication tend to report overall job satisfaction (Spector, 1997; De Nobile & McCormick, 2008; Carriere & Bourque, 2008; Goris, 2007). Satisfaction with communication has been found to have correlation with facets of job satisfaction such as satisfaction with work itself, supervision, pay, and co-workers (Goris, 2007). Organizational communication is defined in this research as the process by which employees send and receive messages (De Nobile & McCormick, 2008). As a critical aspect of relations between INGO headquarters – field locations and using JSS instrument as conceptual guide, satisfaction with communication covers employees' satisfaction with intra-organizational communication, understanding of corporate goals, awareness of current developments in the organization and their understanding of work assignments (Spector, 1997).

INGOs continue to take advantage of improvement in information technology and telecommunications to improve 'flow of ideas, experiences and information across national frontiers between INGO headquarters, national offices (Madon, 2000:7). It must be noted however that whilst the use of electronic mail facilitates communication within INGO some employees complain about receiving too much information (Edwards, 1994). That complaint is consistent with the dimension of communication referred to as communication overload which simply refers to a situation where an individual believes that the information he or she receives is too much (Goris, 2007 ; De Nobile & McCormick, 2008). Communication overload may lead an employee to report dissatisfaction with communication or overall job satisfaction (Goris, 2007; De Nobile & McCormick, 2008).

The other two dimensions of communication that may also lead employees to report dissatisfaction with communication or overall job dissatisfaction are those of accurate information and communication under load (Goris, 2007). Accuracy of information relates to the extent to which the recipient of a message perceives it to be exact and communication under load describes a situation where an individual's sees the information that is available to him or her as too little or inadequate (Goris, 2007). Information underload may lead to uncertainty, which lowers employee satisfaction with their relationships with others and satisfaction with work (De Nobile & McCormick, 2008).

An important aspect of the headquarters – field relations is the programme implementation support that INGO headquarters are required to provide to their field location colleagues (Mintzberg, 1979; Suzuki, 1998). In working together field based employees operate on the assumption that they have better understanding of programme issues than their colleagues do at the INGO headquarters (Suzuki, 1998). On the other hand headquarters based personnel believe that being able to look at programme activities from a broader perspective puts them in a position to understand programme issues better than their colleagues in field locations (Suzuki,

1998). Field locations see the involvement of headquarters in programme activities as that which is based on '*superficial understanding*' (Suzuki, 1998:80). According to one country Director

There is an imperative for people in the headquarters to get involved in what's going on on a day –to-day basis in a country office. Not to control it , but to become involved at a level that may not be appropriate. There are too many decisions made based on a superficial understanding of the situations in country. Superficial in that they understand the top 2 percent of what's going on; they don't understand the other 98 percent ...Now there is a possible contradiction there, because on the one hand, I want them to have a more in-depth understanding of what we are doing, and I want them to become involved in helping us to make plans, to make decisions, to develop strategies, and to support. But on the other hand, I'm saying that they should not be involved at the level of decision-making, the detailed level that exhausts them and us (Suzuki, 1998: 80).

The contradictions in the perceptions of the role that INGO headquarters play in programme implementation are reflected in the acknowledgement by a field officer that headquarters '*did see the big picture, while we did not, because we are local. They really did perform a useful function even though we didn't like it*' (Suzuki, 1998:81).

The tensions arising from whether OCA's should be given priority over PCAs or vice versa and the involvement of headquarters in programme activities are attributed primarily to competing agendas pursued by '*those trying to make us good at what we do [field locations]*' and '*those who want to make us a business [headquarters]*' (Fyvie & Alastair, 1999:1390). In order for the INGO to achieve its objectives, it is essential for it to maintain a balance between OCAs and PCAs (Suzuki, 1998; Fyvie & Alastair, 1999). Maintaining such balance requires effective collaboration between headquarters and field locations as

too much emphasis on programme-centred activities at the expense of organization-centred activities can lead the organization to self-destruct. Unless an organization maintains itself, programme activities can destroy the organization, because an organization cannot carry out a project without its own maintenance. On the other hand, too much emphasis on organization-centred activities can lead the organization to act primarily out of an interest in self-perpetuation. In this case, the organization may abandon its primary objectives and see to maintain itself for its own sake (Suzuki, 1998:13).

In addition to maintaining a balance between OCAs and PCAs (Suzuki, 1998)

INGOs also need to achieve a balance between global integration and local responsiveness as they adapt to the changes in their operating environment (Zhu & Purnell, 2006; Heyse et al., 2008). By pursuing global integration, INGOs become more efficient through mobilizing and deploying their *'worldwide knowledge and resources'* (Zhu & Purnell, 2006:529). That objective conflicts with local responsiveness that involves meeting the needs of stakeholders and becoming more relevant through seizing opportunities that are unique to the different local contexts (Zhu & Purnell, 2006; Hailey, 2009).

The HRM dimension of the conflict between global integration – local responsiveness deals with how INGOs meet the challenge of standardizing their HR policies and adapting the application of those policies to suit local contexts (Hailey, 2009; Zhu & Purnell, 2006). That dimension is discussed in the next section as part of effects that HRM practices in INGOs have on employee job satisfaction.

2.11.1 HRM in INGOs

In order for management practices to have positive effects on employee outcome such as job satisfaction they must reflect and support, the corporate mission (Macy, 2006).

Considering the changes in their operating environment it has been argued that INGOs need to adopt a strategic approach to HRM (Cunningham, 2001) and sound management principles (Kong, 2007) in order to remain relevant and competitive (Ridder & McCandless, 2010; Rodwell & Teo, 2008; Lewis, 2003). Such strategic approach to HRM includes adapting their structures and adopting strategic management methods usually associated with Multinational Corporations (Ramia, 2003).

The call that INGOs should adopt a strategic approach to HRM comes at a time when most of them are criticized for not regarding HRM as a strategic issue (Brewster & Lee, 2006). The low priority that is accorded HRM in INGOs (Lee & Brewster, 2006) is replicated in the field of international human resource management (IHRM) where very few contributions have focused on the sector (Metaclife & Rees, 2005; Merlot et. al., 2006; Lee & Brewster, 2006). That development explains why a study conducted as recently as 2006 was '*short on references*' in its review of literature (Lee & Brewster, 2006: 132).

That more studies are now focusing on INGOs is due to accelerated growth witnessed in the sector over the last three decades and its rising profile as a major employer (Lindenberg & Dobel, 1999; Fenwick, 2005; Bonache et. al., 2001). Similar to studies that focus on MNCs, HRM research contributions on INGOs have largely been based on theories of Strategic International Human Resource Management (SIHRM) (Merlot et. al., 2006; Fenwick, 2005).

A popular definition of SHRM describes it as '*the pattern of planned human resource deployments and activities intended to enable a firm to achieve its goals*' (Wright & McMahan, 1992: 292).

As part of their efforts to improve how they approach HRM INGOs adopt policies and practices that are usually associated with business organizations (Lewis, 2003; Rodwell & Teo, 2008). That is hardly surprising because INGOs like MNCs operate globally and engage employees from different parts of the world (Brewster & Lee, 2006). However, researchers (Lewis, 2003; Merlot et. al., 2006; Rodwell & Teo, 2008) have questioned the practice of adopting HR practices from the international business sector without considering their relevance in the INGO context. Scholars argue that in adopting management practices from the business sector INGOs should be aware of the '*limited applicability*' of some of those practices in the INGO context (Fenwick, 2005: 501).

Unlike MNCs, INGOs do not have profit-making motive and their international employees may not fit the general description of expatriates in MNCs context where employees are deployed to another location abroad from their home country (Brewster & Lee, 2006). By joining INGOs from their home countries and moving with their families to assignment locations abroad international employees in INGOs have no home bases as expatriates in MNCs do (Brewster & Lee, 2006). In terms of management style, commitment to corporate mission that is emphasized in INGOs may lead to lack of sympathy for employee needs and difficulties (Brewster & Lee, 2006). In the area of HRM policies and procedures and unlike MNCs, the federated organizational structures that many large INGOs adopt may not be effective in resolving '*inconsistency and conflict in policy development and prescription*' that may result from '*focusing power and responsibility at the national rather than international decision-making level*' (Brewster & Lee, 2006:134).

The analysis above indicates that INGOs are different from MNCs and for that reason they '*require new and specific management models*' (Merlot et. al., 2006:315). Other INGO characteristics that have been highlighted to justify the development of a sector-specific strategic international human resource management (SIHRM) framework are the difficult environments that

most INGO employees work in, networks of relationships that INGOs have, their internal structures and culture (Lewis, 2003; Ridder & McCandless, 2010; Fenwick et. al., 2006). All those characteristics combined constitute what Lewis (2003) describes as ‘the *terrain of NGO management*’ which he argues provides the basis for ‘a *conceptual discussion of the distinctiveness of NGO management* ... (Lewis, 2003:330).

Building on the definition of SHRM provided earlier, it represents a theoretical approach that establishes a link between an organization’s human resources policies and its strategic objectives (Bonache et. al., 2001; Taylor et. al., 1996) at both domestic and international levels (Taylor et. al., 1996). According to SHRM theory, there should be congruence among an organization’s human resource policies and the policies should collectively support the achievement of that organization’s strategic objectives (Othman & Poon, 2000; Taylor et. al., 1996; Schuler, 1992). SHRM researchers argue that HRM should enable an organization to adapt to internal changes and the demands placed on it by its external environment (Taylor et. al., 1996; Gooderman & Nordhaug, 2006). Furthermore, an effective SIHRM framework must take into consideration the resources that are available to a parent organization and the local context in which the subsidiary operates will influence the relations between both parties (Gooderham & Nordhaug, 2006).

In practical terms, adopting SIHRM approach enables the MNC to manage its internal operations as well as coordinate, integrate and control the linkages between units that are often located in different parts of the world (Gooderham & Nordhaug; Schuler et. al., 1993). Managing the internal operations of a typical MNC includes ensuring that a unit operates in a way that does not conflict with the laws, culture, economy and politics of its local environment (Gooderham & Nordhaug, 2006; Taylor et. al., 1996; Schuler et. al., 1993).

The SIHRM framework proposed for INGOs is based on a model that was developed for MNCs (Merlot, et. al., 2006). For that reason discussion of salient aspects of SIHRM framework developed for MNCs by Taylor et. al., (1996) precedes the analysis of that proposed for INGOs by Merlot et. al.(2006).

Taylor et. al., (1996) propose a framework of SIHRM for MNCs by extending the model developed three years earlier by Schuler et. al.(1993). According to Taylor et. al. (1996) an MNC's business strategy determines its SIHRM orientation. By SIHRM orientation of parent company, the researchers refer to the '*general philosophy or approach taken by top management of the MNC in the design of its overall IHRM system, particularly the HRM systems to be used in its overseas operations*' (Taylor et. al., 1996:966). SIHRM orientation determines HRM strategy and practices for it influences decisions regarding structure of the HR function, location of its key personnel and whether HRM will be decentralised and mechanisms will be designed to enable the parent company and subsidiaries share HR policies and practices (Taylor et. al., 1996).

The strength of the framework proposed by Taylor et al. (1996) is that it is sensitive to '*the ongoing tension between the need for MNC integration (i.e. inter-unit linkages) and differentiation (i.e. the need for each subsidiary to adapt to its local environment)*' (Gooderman & Nordhaug, 2006: 94). Before Taylor et. al. (1996), Schuler and his colleagues (1993) had highlighted the importance of the integration – differentiation challenge faced by MNCs as critical issue in SIHRM. That was evident in the acknowledgement by Taylor et. al. (1996) that Schuler et. al. (1993) '*postulated that the fundamental issue that the users of SIHRM must address is the tension between the need for inter-unit linkages (integration) and the challenges faced by each affiliate in order to operate effectively in its local environment*' (Taylor et. al., 1996:962).

The link that was made between business strategy and SIHRM in the discussion above is central to SHRM theory for it provides platform for understanding how MNCs approach SIHRM (Gooderham & Nordhaug, 2006; Taylor et. al., 1996, Schuler et. al., 1993), and their HR practices (Othman & Poon, 2000). The same theoretical approach could serve to understand how INGOs rise to the challenge of adopting strategic approach to HRM (Brewster & Lee, 2006; Cunningham, 2001). However, The assumption by SHRM theorists that business strategy determines HRM practices (Taylor et. al., 1996, Schuler et. al., 1993) has been described as simplistic because the relationship between business strategy and HRM practices is neither straightforward nor linear (Othman & Poon, 2000; Boxall, 1993). The formulation and implementation of HRM strategies scholars argue are influenced by '*a set of historical compromises and trade-offs among stakeholders*' (Boxall, 1993). Similarly, Brewster and Larsen (1992) contend that the assumption that business strategy determines HRM systems and practices is not realistic and consequently they

reject the approach [to SHRM theory] that HRM should in some sense follow business strategy. We are conscious of too many examples where business strategies have failed precisely they failed to take account of the cost of labour or the lack of appropriate skills or an inability to integrate workforces (Brewster & Larsen, 1992:411).

2.11.2 SIHRM Framework for INGOs

By adapting earlier models developed for MNCs Merlot et. al. (2006) heeded the call for a model of SIHRM that reflects the peculiarities of the INGO sector (Fenwick, 2005; Roodwell & Teo, 2008). Their model is made up of five variables namely external factors, internal factors, INGO concerns and goals, SIHRM and organisational performance (Merlot et al., 2006).

According to the model five external factors that will influence SIHRM in INGOs are (Merlot et.al., 2006: 317): (i) sectoral characteristics such as safety and security concerns associated with working in conflict zones (ii) membership of international networks and alliances such as sectoral groupings involving INGOs that carry out similar activities (iii) host country country/regional characteristics that include contextual variables such as national culture, legal and political systems, and level of economic development (iv) how INGO source funds for their programmes. For example, the level of funds available to INGOs and the proportion of such funds provided by different stakeholders will affect the autonomy of INGOs (v) international pressure groups such as the United Nations and its agencies that fund INGO programmes. The researchers argue that the '*strength and nature of influence*' that external factors will have on SIHRM in INGOs will vary from one organisation to another (Merlot et.al. 2006:318) mainly because they will be managed differently by INGOs.

The external factors listed above also influence internal factors that are organisational characteristics or factors that are specific to individual INGOs. Those internal factors that influence SIHRM in INGOs include (Merlot et .al. 2006: 317): (i) organisational structure (ii) organisational size (iii) organisational culture that is largely characterised by value commitments and democratic-participatory decision - making (iv) corporate strategy (v) international orientation of headquarters (vi) INGO's developmental stage (vii) networks (viii) mode of entry into the sector (ix) religion) and (x) experience in managing international operations.

Similar to external factors, the nature and level of influence that internal factors have on SIHRM will vary from INGO to INGO (Merlot et al., 2006)

The third variable in the model proposed by Merlot et al. (2006) that influences SIHRM in INGOs is corporate goals and concerns. INGO goals and concerns are influenced by external factors listed earlier. INGO goals and concerns influence internal factors and SIHRM both of which also influence INGO goals and concerns (Merlot et al., 2006). The factors that the researchers include in this category are INGOs' objectives to (Merlot et al., 2006:317)(i) be competitive (ii) operate efficiently (iii) maintain balance between global integration and local responsiveness (iv) pursue social good and (v) have and maintain good corporate reputation.

From the explanation above, SIHRM in INGOs is influenced by external factors, internal factors and INGO goals and concerns. SIHRM influences organisational performance, which is the fifth variable in the model proposed by Merlot et al. (2006). Under SIHRM, Merlot et al. (2006) list SIHRM values, the degree of formality of SIHRM and staffing arrangements as critical factors that underline the uniqueness of SIHRM in INGOs. The ability of INGOs to maintain the balance between global integration and local responsiveness is also highlighted as a major factor that will influence SIHRM (Merlot et al., 2006). The SIHRM section of the model does not have a list or example of HR policy or practice although it has a rectangular box labelled HRM practices (Merlot et al., 2006).

The list under organisational performance includes factors such as INGO funding performance, community impact, and employees' job performance that are indicators or measures of effectiveness of SIHRM in INGOs. Organisational performance is an important variable in the framework because of the '*strategic nature of the SIHRM*' (Merlot et al., 2006:322).

In proposing, a model of SIHRM for MNCs Schuler et al. (1993) acknowledged that HR practices in the areas of staffing, appraisal, compensation, training, health and safety are important even though they were not discussed in detail. In the case of Merlot et. al. (2006) they do not highlight or acknowledge the importance of HRM practices in the SIHRM - organisational performance link. In defence of Merlot et. al. (2006) it could be argued that failure to address HR practices does not weaken the framework in terms of explaining how environmental factors influence SIHRM and organisational performance. Secondly, the definition of SIHRM that the researchers adopted sees it as *'human resource management issues, functions, and policies and practices that result from the strategic activities of multinational enterprises...'* (Schuler et al., 1993: 422)

The two arguments are weakened by the consideration that other SIHRM contributions that establish a causal link between HRM and organisational performance emphasise and demonstrate that employee reaction to HR practices is an important part of their conceptual framework (see Fig. 2.5) (Kinnie et. al., 2005). Citing job satisfaction as an example of such reaction, Kinnie et. al. (2005) argue that

the fulcrum of the HRM –performance causal chain is the employees reactions to HR practices as experienced by them. Individual HR practices have a functional role (assessment, training, involvement, etc.) but, taken together, they, can have a non- instrumental role in both reflecting and reinforcing wider organisational climate (Kinnie et. al., 2005:11).

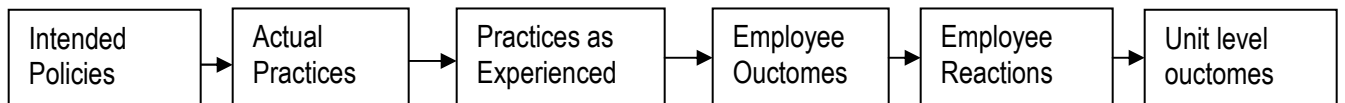


Fig. 2.5. Links between HR Policy, Practice, and Employee Reactions

Source: Adapted from Kinnie et. al. (2005)

Having identified the omission in the model proposed by Merlot et al (2006) it must be noted that its theoretical basis is generally consistent with the thrust of the discussions in the previous sections regarding the influence of factors such as INGO missions, culture, and structure on SIHRM. The issues discussed in Sections 2.6 to 2.8 cover the key elements listed under external factors, internal factors and INGO goals and concerns in the model proposed by Merlot et al., (2006: 317).

Manifestation of effects of HRM takes the forms of policies, procedures and actual practices that have far-reaching effects on employees (Chen & Wilson, 2003). Various studies have reported that a positive relationship exists between how employees perceive HRM policies and practices in their organizations and their overall job satisfaction (Petrescu & Simmons, 2008; Nishii et al., 2008; Saari & Judge, 2004). For example

when employees perceive that specific HR practices are motivated by an underlying managerial philosophy of caring for employee well-being, then those employees will feel more satisfied and committed than if they perceive that management cares less about their well-being (Nishii et al., 2008:14)

In the light of the above and based on the relevance of HR practices to employee reactions (Kinnie et al., 2005), the SIHRM model developed by Merlot et al. (2006) is modified in this study to emphasise the importance of HR practices in relation to job satisfaction. The adapted SIHRM model also serves to focus the rest of the discussion in this section on HRM policies and practices in INGOs.

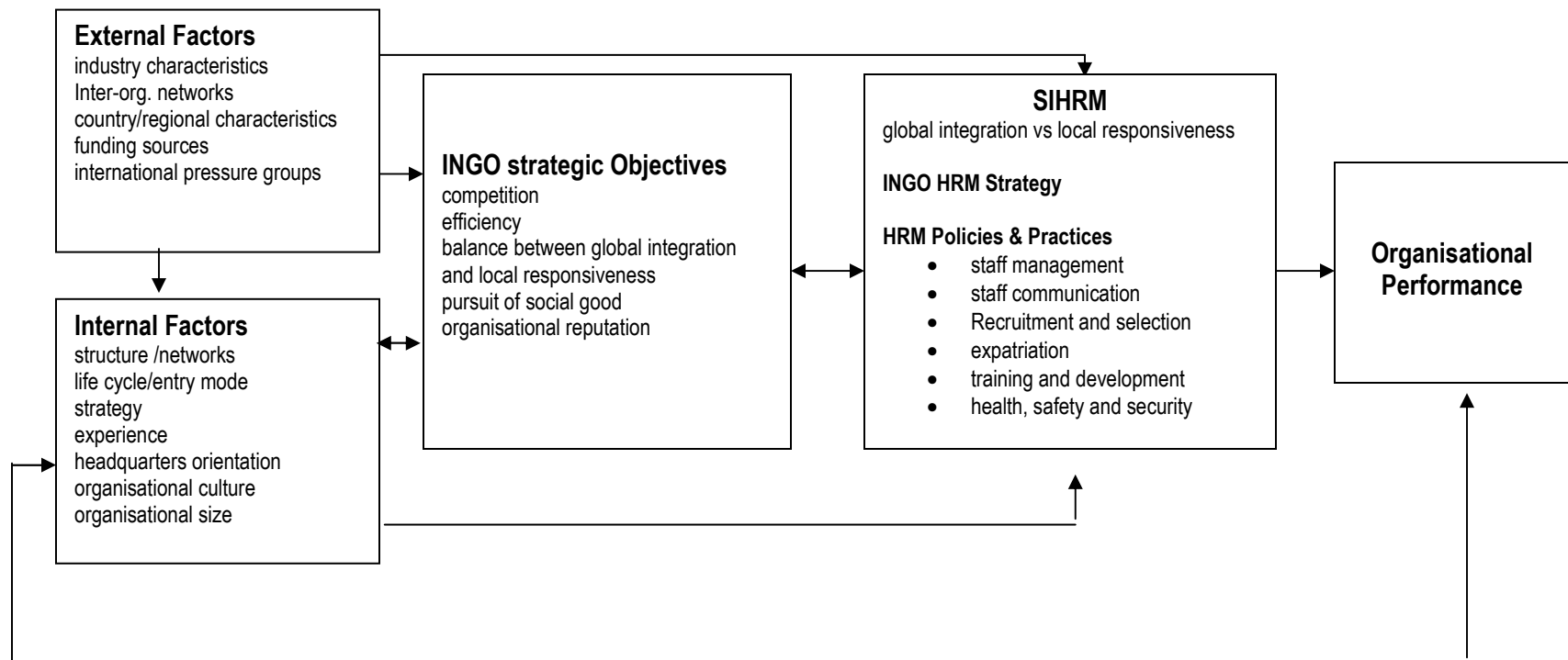


Fig. 2.6 SIHRM Framework for INGOs

Source: Adapted from Merlot et al. (2006)

2.11.3 HRM Practices in INGOs

A crucial external factor that has influenced how INGOs approach HRM is the emergence of The 'People in Aid Code of Good Practice' (Brewster & Lee, 2006). As the product of Pan European network of major INGOs, The code provides guidance for policy formulation and sets standards for assessing the effectiveness of HRM practices (Brewster & Lee, 2006). The People in Code of Good Practice that was developed in 1997 was revised in 2003. The code is 'a management tool' that is designed to enable INGOs to achieve the following (People in Aid Code, 2003:9):

- i. monitor and evaluate the implementation of existing human resources policies
- ii. identify where improvements can be made
- iii demonstrate to key stakeholders that people are central to the achievement of corporate mission.

In the light of earlier discussion on SIHRM, it is important to stress that the People in Aid Code (2003) takes a strategic view of HRM that it expects INGOs to adopt. Its principle on human resources strategy declares that '*Our [INGOs] human resources strategy is central to our organisational strategy. Our human resources strategy is long-term and encompasses every part of the organisation*' (People in Code, 2003:2). The code also covers HRM policies and practices by providing principles and indicators that are discussed later in this section.

With regard to the focus of this research on employee job satisfaction, the People in Aid code is both relevant and important. It provides a useful framework for assessing the effectiveness of HRM policies and practices in INGOs based on the perceptions of their employees, which as noted earlier influence job satisfaction (Nishii et al., 2008; Kinnie et al., 2005). Apart from Footsteps International, Green Peace Movement and International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies (IFRC) the other nine INGOs listed in Section 2.2 as

participants in this research formally adopted the current version of People in Aid code that was produced in 2003. The code covers HR strategy, staff policies and practices, staff management, recruitment and selection, training and development, health, safety and security.

The explanation of each of the six principles (People in Aid Code, 2003: 2-9) below is complemented by discussion of relevant research findings relating to HRM policies and practices in INGOs.

i. Human Resources Strategy

According to this principle, human resources are an integral part of strategic and operational plans of INGOs (People in Aid Code, 2003). The indicators of effective organizational strategy or business plan include the requirements that it should 'explicitly value' employees' contributions to the achievement of organizational objectives, allocate adequate human and financial resources to enable the realization of the objectives of INGO HR strategy (People in Aid Code, 2003:2). An effective corporate strategy is also expected to reflect responsibilities of INGOs regarding staff management, support and well-being and provide mechanisms for monitoring the plans and budgetary provisions made to achieve improvement in standards. INGO HR strategy should reflect corporate commitment to diversity and inclusiveness.

Recent research on HRM in INGOs found that INGOs do not regard or treat HRM as a strategic issue (Brewster & Lee, 2006). That comprehensive study which involved about 60 INGOs described HRM in most of them as administrative and reactive (Brewster & Lee, 2006). The research also concluded most of the line managers in INGOs '*get promoted into management for reasons of technical skill rather than managerial capability*' (Brewster & Lee, 2006:146).

ii. HRM Policies and Practices;

This principle states that human resource policies should aim to be effective, fair and transparent. The policies should enable INGO employees to work effectively and maintain 'good quality of working life' (People in Aid Code, 2003:3). The effectiveness of HR policies in INGOs will depend on the extent to which they set out employment terms and conditions clearly especially when there are significant legal or organizational changes (People in Aid Code, 2003). HR policies should be as consistent as possible except in cases where there are limitations imposed by legal provisions and cultural practices (People in Aid Code, 2003). INGOs are also expected to make employees aware of HRM policies and practices that affect them (People in Aid Code, 2003).

The principle further states that managers should be equipped and supported to apply HRM policies, the rewards attached to jobs should be stated clearly and they should be administered fairly and consistently. The contributions of HRM policies and practices to INGO effectiveness should be assessed based on the extent to which they meet INGO organizational and programme objectives.

SIHRM scholars generally agree that in all sectors, organisations that operate internationally face the challenge of determining the extent to which their HR policies should be similar or different (Armstrong, 2006). Laurent (1986) explains the challenge better when he states that

...multinational organisations need to strive for consistency in their ways of managing people on a worldwide basis. Yet, and in order to be effective locally, they need to adapt those ways to the specific cultural requirements of different societies. While the global nature of business may call for increased consistency, the variety of cultural environments may be calling for differentiation (Laurent, 1986:92).

The challenge described above is so central to IHRM that it has been commented upon by many scholars (Schuler et al., 1993; Taylor et al., 1996). The same phenomenon has been described as a dilemma (Armstrong, 2006; Merlot et al., 2006; Hailey, 2009) by some scholars whilst others saw the relationship between the two concepts as dialectic (Chen & Wilson, 2003:397; Brewster, 2002). The tension between adopting standard policies and adapting policies and practices to address context - specific challenges is often highlighted in the management of expatriates (Bonache et al., 2001). The concept is relevant in examining the process and challenges of expatriation, however, it applies to whole realm of IHRM that deals with management of employees worldwide (Armstrong, 2006).

Another SHRM challenge that INGOs face is that of maintaining a balance between contrasting SHRM objectives of being commitment -focused and control-focused (Nishii et al., 2008). Since employee commitment to the missions of INGOs is critical to their success (Brewster & Lee, 2006; Brown et al., 2004) it is important that INGOs adopt SHRM philosophy that maximizes employee commitment. The underlying goal of such SHRM orientation is that of achieving improvement in quality of goods and services that the organization provides by prioritizing and maximizing employee well-being (Nishii et al., 2008). When an organization's SHRM is commitment - focused, it

Perceives employees as assets required to produce high quality goods/services, large investments tend to be made in the long -term development of employee skills, management focuses on motivating employees to work hard toward quality-oriented goals, and management place the importance of employee well being above revenues and profits (Schuler & Jackson, 1987; cited in Nishii et al., 2008: 510)

As indicated earlier in this section INGOs have to adopt a strategic approach to HRM in order to survive the competition in their operating environment (Cunningham, 2001; Ridder & McCandless, 2010; Rodwell & Teo, 2008). In that regard, surviving competition requires that INGOs adopt a control-focused SHRM philosophy that is aimed at

Competing on the basis of low costs, [in which] management perceives employees as costs to control, focuses on enforcing employee compliance with rules and procedures, and monitors the quantity of employee output....Employees are seen as replaceable workers who are part of a cost equation ... HR strategy tends focus on reducing costs associated with each employee by, for example, offering low base salaries with few perks and engaging in narrow and short-term training(Schuler & Jackson, 1987; cited in Nishii et al., 2008: 510)

The dilemma that INGOs face in terms of what SHRM philosophy and HRM practices to adopt lies in the fact that commitment-focus and control-focus philosophies (Nishii et al., 2008) are contradictory or conflicting in terms of how an organisation sees and treats its employees. The effect or impact that INGO HRM practices will have on employees' job satisfaction will depend on how employees interpret the motives underlying HRM practices in their organisations (Nishii et al., 2008; Kinnie et al., 2005).

iii. Managing People

The People in Aid Code recognizes that employees will be effective if they receive good support and they are well led and managed. INGOs are expected to provide relevant training and support to those employees that are responsible for leading and managing others. Under this principle, managers are expected to set clear work targets and performance standards that employees fully understand (People in Aid Code, 2003). As part of the performance review process employees should be made aware of the support that is available to them to attain the required performance standards.

Like other sectors, the INGO sector experiences the problems associated with promoting people who are not well equipped to management jobs (Brewster & Lee, 2006). According to Brewster and Lee (2006) *'The consequence is that despite some notable exceptions, many of the Managers see their role as more senior version of their previous role: writing papers for more senior committees or dealing with more important government officials. They do not see their role as ensuring that their team is well-organised, targeted and producing good work (Brewster & Lee, 2006:146).*

The researchers also reported the finding from a 1998 study that most INGOs do not adopt a consistent approach to employee performance evaluation (Forbes, 1998; cited in Brewster & Lee, 2006). The complex nature of INGOs, geographical separation, poor technology, and diversity of the workforce are some of the factors militating against effective employee performance evaluation in most INGOs (Brewster & Lee, 2006).

iv. Recruitment and Selection

Under this principle, INGOs should pursue HRM policies and adopt practices that aim to attract and select a diverse workforce with the skills and capabilities that are required to achieve corporate objectives (People in Aid Code, 2003). Recruitment and selection procedures should be clearly documented. In attracting candidates from different parts of the world INGOs should ensure that selection process is fair, transparent and consistent (People in Code, 2003).

Recruitment and selection process in INGOs is complex because it is often subject to the intensions of recruiters who are either programme oriented or organization centred oriented (Suzuki, 1998). Considering the need for INGOs to recruit much needed talents from other sectors they face the risk of employing people based mainly on their skills or qualifications even where they do not share the values of the INGOs employing them (Suzuki,1998).

Employment and deployment of expatriates in INGOs has not received as much research attention as expatriation in MNCs (Bonache et al., 2001). The implication of that is that the literature on expatriation is dominated by studies devoted to MNCs although INGOs have been major employers of expatriates for some time (Bonache et al, 2001). Unlike in MNCs where international HR departments play an active role in recruiting expatriates the process is often led by INGO country Directors (Suzuki, 1998). The country Directors also have responsibility for recruiting local staff (Suzuki, 1998). Considering that, the information that is usually available to field locations is limited INGO country Directors delegate expatriate recruitment to their headquarters (Suzuki, 1998). Delegation of expatriate recruitment to headquarters causes tensions between headquarters and field locations because of the

Information gap between what the field expects of a recruit and what the person's capabilities actually are tends to remain unclear until the person arrives in the field. By the time staff realize that the gap between expectation and reality is too much to tolerate, it is too late to reconsider the decision, for the person is already in the field (Suzuki, 1998:29).

Like their multinational corporation (MNC) counterparts, expatriates in INGOs are required to demonstrate competence and professionalism in task performance, building local capacity through training and knowledge sharing (Makela, 2007). INGO expatriates are also required to manage relationships with local authorities, officials of collaborating agencies, donor organizations, and relevant agencies of the host government (Zhu & Purnell, 2006). The perception of the expatriate by local management or local personnel as 'agent' of the INGO Headquarters through whom the latter exercises control over field office (Zhu & Purnell, 2006) may make it difficult for the expatriate to earn the trust and confidence of his local colleagues .

The benefit of using expatriates in development programmes has been questioned. The 'moral argument' put forward is that host '*country nationals are the best to run programmes and that is the best way to ensure long-term effectiveness and sustainable development. In addition. ...the use of expatriates takes away much needed work from qualified workers thus weakening rather than building local capacities*' (Mukasa, 1999:12).

Some large INGOs have adopted a resourcing policy of recruiting most of their employees from the local communities or regions where they have operations (Brewster & Lee, 2006). However, INGO country Directors justify continued use of expatriates with the argument that there are not enough suitable candidates locally (Suzuki, 1998). As one country Director puts it, '*What I have found is that what looks on paper like adequate education is not proving to be so in reality, so I can assume almost nothing about their educational background. The reality is that you can't find people who are already effective in this kind of work*' (Suzuki, 1998:24).

Deployment of expatriates to field locations to manage well qualified personnel recruited locally by INGOs causes tensions between both categories of personnel (Suzuki, 1998). A major source of tension between expatriate and locally recruited personnel is the difference in their terms and conditions of service that places an expatriate well above locally recruited personnel with comparable skills and qualifications (Suzuki, 1998). The tensions and frustration arising from differences in the way expatriates in INGOs are treated compared to their locally recruited counterparts are described by a country director who explains that

They [locally recruited personnel] know the organization very very well, but there is a glass ceiling and they are never going to move beyond a certain level within the organization. You have expatriates moving in constantly to manage the whole organization. This creates tremendous amount of frustration, a tremendous amount of potential bitterness that they are never able to make that jump to senior management positions in the country office (Suzuki, 1998:22)

In view of the huge investment involved in recruiting and maintaining expatriates organizations manage various processes such as pre-departure briefing, training, and support and performance management during assignment and repatriation carefully (Bonache et al., 2001). Another important aspect of the expatriate life cycle is the provision of necessary training and support to enable expatriates to adapt to their host environment (Zimmerman & Sparrow, 2007). Various types of adaptation training focus on expatriate work adjustment, interactions adjustment, personal change and general adjustment that are all interrelated and critical for effective performance (Shay & Baack, 2006; Fink, et al, 2006; Zimmermann & Sparrow, 2007) . If expatriation is to succeed, expatriates have *'to empathize with others' values and use these insights [gained] to challenge their own values and create new understandings from the experience which enrich their joint activities'* (Fisher et al., 2008:13). By empathizing with others' values, individuals demonstrate participative competence which is the *'ability to interact on equal terms in multicultural environments in such a way that knowledge is shared and that the learning experience is professionally enhancing'* (Holden, 2002; cited in Fisher et al., 2008: 313).

v. Learning and Development

This principle in The People in Aid Code (2003) requires members to promote learning and development throughout their organizations. Employees should be given adequate induction and briefing in order for them to perform effectively. INGOs should have written policies that outline their commitment to learning and development and provide mechanisms for ensuring that employees are aware of learning and development opportunities in their organizations.

Managers should be competent to assess the learning and development needs of their team members. INGOs should monitor access to learning and development opportunities to ensure that it is fair and transparent and they should assess the effectiveness of learning and development in terms of how well they meet corporate objectives.

INGOs are by their nature designed to serve those outside the organization and that orientation influences how they approach training and development of their employees (Suzuki, 1998). Further to that and since INGOs have to train and develop their employees in order to be more effective staff training and development in INGOs could be described as '*paradoxical*' (Suzuki, 1998:44). Even when INGOs are willing to invest or do invest in staff training and development they cannot expect long-term return on such investment because of high turnover among staff and rapidly changing operating environment that requires that training programmes be reviewed to ensure that they remain relevant (Suzuki, 1998). Other challenges that INGO face that may discourage them from investing as they should in staff training and development are those of

Cost effectiveness of training staff versus recruiting skilled workers. In a circumstance in which donors strictly monitor the effectiveness and efficiency of with which NGOs spend their funds, investing funds in their own staff is a risky practice for NGOs due to unpromising long range returns. When NGOs cannot expect long range returns, they are induced to modify the training they provide to target short range returns even if they do not give up the training (Suzuki, 1998:44).

vi. Health, Safety and Security

INGOs are required to take their responsibility for the security, good health and safety of employees seriously (People in Aid Code, 2003). INGOs should have written policies on security, health and safety, care and support (People in Aid Code, 2003). Those policies should be reviewed regularly and made available to all employees. INGOs should ensure that they keep

accurate records of work-related injuries as well as safety and security incidents (People in Aid Code, 2003).

INGO managers and supervisors should ensure that employees' work hours do not exceed those stated in their individual employment contracts and that employees observe leave and other agreed rest periods (People in Aid Code, 2003). INGOs should ensure that employees are debriefed at the end of their assignments and in addition, they should have access to health checks, personal counseling and careers advice. INGOs should arrange necessary immunization and medical supplies for their employees on emergency rosters.

Field based employees of INGOs that provide material aid or work in conflict zones are usually exposed to security threats (Fast, 2007). An expatriate working in Africa spoke about *'One Sunday evening in August 2003, a group of armed men held eight relief workers at gunpoint at their home in Burundian capital, Bujumbura. The assailants, armed with pistols and assault rifles, threatened to kill one of the expatriates and demanded that the group handover all its cash* (Muggah, 2003: 20).

INGOs' operating environment still differentiates them from MNCs regardless of the structural similarities and transnational nature of activities of organisations in both sectors (Brewster & Lee, 2006; People in Aid Code, 2003). In performing their duties INGO employees could suffer physical harm, risk confrontation with governments and interest groups and cope with bureaucracy (People in Aid Code, 2003) arising mainly from meeting stakeholders' demand for better accountability.

During the period 2006 – 2008, the seven countries that recorded highest incidents of attack on humanitarian workers were Pakistan, Iraq, Chad, Sri Lanka, Somalia, Afghanistan and Sudan (HPG, 2009). Three out of the six countries listed above are in Africa where INGOs that participated in this study have operations. Chad has the fifth highest number of

incidents of violence (12), Somalia was ranked third highest with 68 incidents, and Sudan was 1st with a record number of 95 incidents during the period (HPG, 2009:4).

Scholars establish a relationship between stress and job satisfaction (Fairbrother & Warn, 2003; Karl & Peluchette, 2006; O'Neill & Arendt, 2008) by examining physical work environment and operating procedures as sources of stress. In this research, operating environment refers to the physical environment in which employees carry out their work and procedures that they follow in performing their tasks (Spector, 1997). The less bureaucratic employees perceive their organisation the more they feel that they are encouraged be creative and flexible and the more satisfied they are likely to be with their jobs (O'Neill & Arendt, 2008:358).

Stress is the outcome of the interaction between job demands and decision latitude (Smith, 2001) or *'adverse reaction people have to excessive pressures or other types of demand placed on them'* (HSE, 2005:1). Stress has adverse effects on employee physical and psychological well being (Spector, 1997; Warr, 1994; Daniels, 2006; Van den Broeck et al., 2008).

Examination of work-related stress from the perspective of a demand being placed on the individual by the work context and how well the individual responds or copes forms the basis of jobs Demand – Control-Support Model (DCSM) (Karasek, 1979, cited in McClenahan et al., 2007; Wong et al., 2007; Van den Broeck et al. 2008; Daniels et al., 2008). Demands relate to pressure on the employee or stress that results from workload, work patterns and the work environment (Wong et al., 2007). Specific issues covered by this factor include ensuring a match between employees' skills, abilities, and job demands and addressing employees' concerns about their work environment (Wong et al., 2007; Van den Broeck, et al., 2008).

Control factor focuses mainly on the influence that the employee has over the way he or she carries out work. Other issues covered by this factor are the availability of mechanisms to address employees' concerns promptly, empowering employees and consulting them on changes to their work patterns.

The support factor addresses the adequacy of information and support that employees receive from colleagues to do their work. Also covered by the support factor are the availability and effectiveness of systems and mechanisms to address individual concerns and for the receipt of regular and constructive feedback on work performance.

According to the DCSM, control and support should combine to '*buffer*' or mitigate adverse effect of demands on the employee (Daniels et al., 2008: 846; McClenahan et al., 2007). Employees in jobs with high demands, low control and low support are more likely to experience higher levels of stress, psychological distress and job dissatisfaction (McClenahan et al., 2007). All variables in the DCSM serve to assess employee well – being and could be indicators of how well an organization is functioning (Daniels et al., 2008).

Considering the variety of activities that INGOs are engaged in and the environments in which their employees operate employees' perceptions of those environments are likely to differ (Newman, 1975). The concept of operating environment adopted in this study considers organizational context (McClenahan et al., 2007) as vital to gaining in-depth understanding of employee job satisfaction in INGOs.

A study that examined Canadian welfare agencies found that workers still reported high levels of job satisfaction even though they reported high levels of emotional exhaustion (Stalker et al., 2007:188). High levels of job satisfaction reported in the study by Stalker et al. (2007) were due primarily to the goal orientation, coping strategies and satisfaction that the

employees derived from helping others. The findings above suggest that even with exposure to high levels of stress employees could still report high levels of job satisfaction.

In this section, the need to maintain a balance between adopting a commitment-focused and control-focused SHRM philosophy (Nishii et al., 2008) was identified as one the critical SHRM challenges that INGOs face. They also face the challenge of maintaining a balance between the standardization and localization of HRM policies (Merlot et .al, 2006; Brewster & Lee, 2006). The first challenge and some other conflicting demands that INGOs face in their operating environment are summarized in the next section as inputs for the conceptual framework developed for this research.

2.12 Tensions and Contradictions in INGO Management

From Section 2.8 through to Section 2.11 it was established that in order to meet the demands of various stakeholders and survive INGOs have to adapt their policies and practices to the market-oriented environment in which they operate (Hopgood, 2006; Hailey, 2009; Merlot et al., 2006; Ossewaarde, 2008; Dolnicar et al., 2008). Those demands arise in all areas of INGO management and they could be described as institutional contradictions (Seo & Creed, 2002). They are

Institutional influences that are exerted on organizations through rules and regulations, normative prescriptions, and social expectations. ...organizations facing conflicting institutional demands operate within Multiple institutional spheres and are subject to multiple and contradictory regulatory regimes, normative orders and/or cultural logics (Pache & Santos, 2010:457).

In terms of their influence on employee job satisfaction , the institutional contradictions (Seo & Creed, 2002) give rise to three types of contradictions in employees' accounts of organizational experiences namely contradictions between corporate policy and practical experience, between account of one organizational member and that of another and within individual account (El-Sawad et al., 2004:1180). By identifying and analyzing those contradictions this research seeks to make a contribution to organizational studies literature, which has very few studies that have analyzed contradictions in accounts of organization life (El-Sawad et al., 2004).

Conflicting demands compel organizations such as INGOs to explore '*alternative courses of action, and require(s) them to make decisions as to what to prioritize , satisfy, alter , or neglect in order to secure support and ensure survival*' (Pache & Santos, 2010:461). Those options and alternatives adopted in response to conflicting demands (Pache & Santos, 2010) take the form of policies and practices that will elicit reactions from employees as members of the organization

(Kinnie et. al., 2005). The nature of the conflicting demands involved in the globalization – localization challenge has led to the description of the relationship between the two concepts as dialectic (Chen & Wilson, 2003; Nonaka & Toyama, 2002). That characterization is appropriate and fits other conflicting demands summarized in Table 2.5. Exploring them as means of understanding job satisfaction among INGO employees *'involves seeing things from both sides of the relationship at once , as both separate yet unified , as positive yet in the negative'* (Bailey, 2003:134).

Adopting that approach means taking a dialectical view of organizations and operating based on the assumption that contradictions and tensions are normal in organizations (Benson, 1977; Gibbs, 2009; Elgarah et al, 2002; Clegg, et al., 2002). As far as tensions and contradictions in organizations are concerned, scholars argue that what matters most is whether and how organizations and their members are able to synthesise or deal with contradictions (Nonaka & Toyama, 2002). The challenge of synthesizing dialectical contradictions has been described as that of *'holding together necessary incompatibilities'* (Gibbs, 2009:908). The dialectic approach developed by Hegel (1807) that is adopted in this research is discussed in the next section.

Table 2.5 Summary of Tensions and Contradictions in INGO Management

Research Question	Conflicting demands	Summary
INGO Mission	Mission - Market dilemma	INGOs face the challenge of fulfilling their missions without losing credibility or legitimacy whilst operating like business organizations in order to survive and be competitive (Brown et al., 2004; Duque-Zuluagar & Schneider, 2008; Dolnicar et al., 2008).
INGO Culture (Prin. and Values)	Idealism - Functionalism	In meeting the demands made on them by various stakeholders INGOs have to maintain a balance between adhering strictly to their principles and values and showing sufficient flexibility to operate effectively in a changing and competitive environment (Mowles, 2008; Ebrahim, 2003; Hailey, 2000; Beck et al., 2007).
INGO HRM Policies and Practices	Commitment – focus and Control focus SHRM philosophy	The success of INGOs depends on the commitment of their employees (Brewster & Lee, 2006; Brown et al, 2004). In order to sustain employee commitment INGOs have to adopt a commitment – focused SHRM philosophy that seeks to achieve improvement in quality of services delivered through maximization of employee well-being (Nishii et al., 2008). On the other hand, INGOs have to operate like business organisations in order to be competitive (Duque-Zuluagar & Schneider, 2008; Dolnicar et al., 2008). Being competitive requires that INGOs adopt a control-focused SHRM philosophy that enables them to control cost by enforcing employee compliance with rules and procedures, monitoring employee output and investing in training of their employees on a short-term basis (Nishii et. al., 2008). Considering that commitment and control focused SHRM philosophies are important for the overall effectiveness of INGOs, they face the challenge of maintaining a balance between both conflicting objectives.
INGO structure	Organization Centred Activities (OCAs) – Programme Centred Activities (PCAs)	In order to operate effectively INGOs are faced with the challenge achieving good balance between Organisation- Centred – Activities (OCAs) such as resource mobilization and allocation, and meeting stakeholders accountability demands and Programme – Centred – Activities (PCAs) that revolve round programme implementation (Suzuki, 1998)

Source: Developed by the Author for this research.

2.13 Hegelian Dialectic

Hegel's dialectic approach first featured in his *'Phenomenology of Mind'* (1807). With its 'triadic structure' of thesis, antithesis and synergy or synthesis, the main idea of the dialectic is the reconciliation of two opposites (thesis and antithesis) by the synthesis (McTaggart, 1896). Thesis represents a position which proves incomplete, contradictory or unsatisfactory because it does not capture fully or accurately the phenomenon to which it relates.

The unsatisfactory or incomplete nature of thesis leads to the statement of an antithesis, which does not merely negate the thesis but also corrects its mistake (McGilvary, 1898). The antithesis is in turn transcended by the synthesis. As the 'goal of the dialectic', the synthesis becomes a new 'working reality' that absorbs the contradictions between the thesis and the antithesis (Carr, 2000). The synthesis fulfils an important role in Hegel's dialectical process that rests on the inviolability of the law of contradictions (McGilvary, 1898) and the principle that synthesis must be located for every contradiction. According to the law of contradictions, there cannot be two contradictory propositions on the same phenomenon because *'truth consists not of contradictions but of moments, which if separated, would be contradictions, but which in their synthesis are reconciled and consistent'* (McTaggart 1896, Para. 8).

Marx differentiates his dialectical materialism from Hegel's ideals and criticises the latter by arguing that his

Dialectic method is not only different from the Hegelian, but is its direct opposite to Hegel... the process of thinking, which, under the name of "the Idea", he transforms into an independent subject, is the demiurges of the real world, and the real world is only the external phenomenal form of the "Idea". With me on the contrary, the ideal is nothing else than the material world reflected by the human mind, and translated into forms of thought (cited in Carr, 2006:213).

Hegel's dialectic was also criticised by Danto who notes that '*thesis, antithesis can be mapped unto the structure of beginning, middle and end. It may be too easy to see dialectical triads in any material*' (see Fisher et al., 2008:315).

Hegel's dialectic is applied in this research not '*to produce an authoritative or definitive theory but to produce an interpretation*' (Fisher, et al., 2008:315) that enables the job satisfaction conversation to '*keep itself going*' (Mounce, 1997:189). Furthermore, the dialectical method is philosophically consistent with this researcher's pragmatic critical realist stance (Carr, 2000; Basseches, 2005). Underpinning that philosophical stance is the argument that '*rather than viewing matters in linear, cause and effect terms dialectical thinking calls attention to the ongoing reciprocal effects of our social world*' (Carr, 2000:213). This researcher's pragmatic critical realist stance is discussed below.

2.14 Pragmatic Critical Realism

The application of critical realism in social sciences in general and management research in particular is largely due to the influential contributions of Bhaskar and other scholars such as Archer, Sayer, Ackroyd and Fleetwood. Critical realism prioritizes ontology over epistemology because it argues that the way the world is should inform how knowledge about it can be obtained (Bhaskar, 1998a; Fleetwood, 2007). As a Philosophical approach Critical Realism is based on three key principles namely ontological realism, epistemological relativism, judgemental rationality, (Bhaskar, 1998a; 1998b; 1998c; Nash, 2005).

Under the principle of ontological relativism critical realism assumes that there is more to what is known about social phenomena than what is accessible through empirical observation (Bhaskar, 1998a;1998b; Nash, 2005). For example social change and conflict cannot be observed always although they exist (Grix, 2004). Critical realism subscribes to what it calls depth ontology which means that better understanding of phenomena such as conflict and social change can only be achieved by focusing on underlying structures and mechanisms (Bhaskar, 1998b; 1998c; Vincent, 2008; Grix, 2004).

Critical realists' second principle of epistemological relativism assumes that knowledge is socially produced or socially co-created (Bhaskar, 1998a, Vincent, 2008; Al-Amoudi & Willmott, 2010). The third principle of judgemental rationality is based on the notion that a researcher's decision to accept a set of theories and reject others is partly influenced by ongoing debates (Al-Amoudi & Willmott, 2010). Critical realism subscribes to fallibilism which is closely related to both epistemological relativism and judgemental rationality (Al-Amoudi & Willmott, 2010). Fallibilism relates more to epistemological relativism than judgemental rationality and its central idea is that scientific knowledge or claims are vulnerable and may turn out to be false (Bhaskar,

1998c). Fallibilism does not insist on falsity of our scientific claims but it asserts that knowledge is provisional and that scientific theories cannot be asserted as categorical truth but have probability of being true (Bhaskar, 1998c).

The term Pragmatic-Critical Realism was coined by Johnson and Duberley (2000) to describe ' *a synthesis which emerges from, and attempts to transcend, positivism's thesis of foundational-absolute stance and postmodernism's antithesis of chaotic relativism*'(Johnson & Duberley, 2000:148). Without detracting from the sophistication of Pragmatism Critical Realism, this researcher sees it simply as the conscious reinforcement of Critical Realism with Pragmatism to enable the former to overcome its shortcomings.

The methodological implications of pragmatism are discussed in detail in Chapter 4 that focuses on research methods. However, it is appropriate to note here that because critical realism favours methodological triangulation (Bhaskar, 1998b; Grix , 2004) it is seen as the likely answer to the criticism of '*paradigm switching*' levelled against studies that combine research methods (McEvoy & Richards, 2006). Pragmatism complements critical realism effectively because it

changes the relationship between cognition and reality. Truth is no longer to do with getting a correct 'representation of reality in cognition; rather, it expresses an increase in the power to act in relation to an environment. This means abandoning any search for absolute truths (or sorting out the 'reality' from the rhetoric...). ... we are better to take the pragmatist view that 'all our theories are instrumental, are mental modes of adaptation to reality, rather than revelations [about the world] (Watson, 2007:5)

Critical realists' claim of determining the effect of processes that cannot be observed on observable events through empirical examination is criticised as contradictory (Duberley & Johnson, 2000). Sayer (1981;1992) builds on his concurrence with critical realist

notion of intransitive dimension of reality and rescues it from the difficulties highlighted above by submitting that

The world can only be understood in terms of available conceptual resources, but the latter do not determine the structure of the world itself. Despite our entrapment within our conceptual schemes, it is still possible to differentiate between more and less practically-adequate beliefs about the material world. Observation is neither theory-neutral nor theory-determined but theory-laden. Truth is neither absolute nor purely conventional and relative. (Sayer, 1992:3 cited in Duberley & Johnson, 2000:161).

In adopting what Watson (2007) describes as pragmatic pluralist strategy, this researcher consciously but carefully pursued the integration of existing theoretical perspectives that were relevant to the focus of this research to strengthen the conceptual framework. The integration was embarked upon to enhance the interpretative capability of the Dynamic Model of Job Satisfaction in view of the variety of themes covered by the dialectical tensions.

The dynamic nature of INGO operating environment is central to the conceptual framework developed for this study. In that respect for example, this research profited from Wright Mills' (1970) concept of sociological imagination exemplified by Watson (2007) who in making the case for critical-analytical study of HRM links '*the personal troubles of individuals (a person losing their job, for example and broader public issues (the issue of unemployment in society, for example)*' (Watson, 2007:2). Similar to Watson's (2007) application of 'sociological imagination' referred to above, this researcher attempts to establish connections between the patterns in the accounts of work experiences of INGO and events in the wider international environment.

2.15. Summary

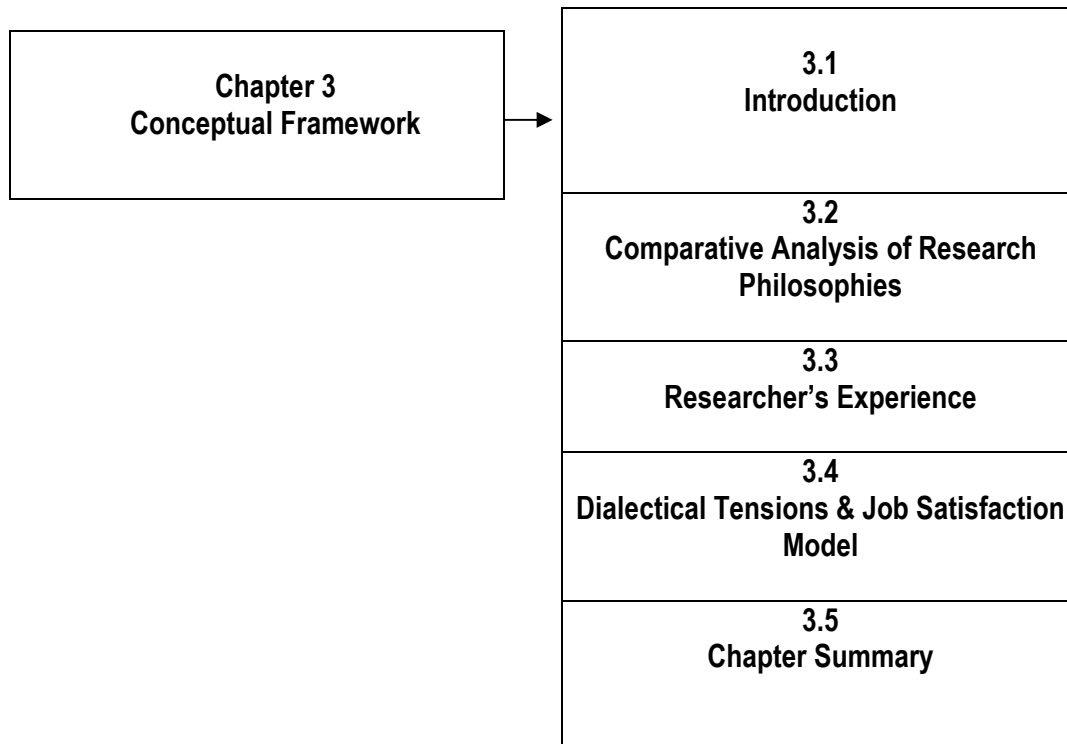
This chapter listed the INGOs from which participants were drawn for this research and presented the version of international Classification of Nonprofit Organization adapted for the purpose of this research including rationale for the adaptation.

A critical review of Situational Occurrences Theory, Job Characteristics Model and Dynamic Model of Job Satisfaction was conducted. Based on its unique perspective on job satisfaction and the fact that it incorporates the theoretical perspectives provided by the other two theories, Dynamic Model of Job Satisfaction was identified as most appropriate theory on which to base the conceptual framework for this research.

Job satisfaction is a complex area of study and the fact that job satisfaction literature is dominated by quantitative studies justifies the combination of research methods as part of the overall effort to progress job satisfaction research. Theoretical rationale for adopting Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) developed by Spector (1997) for this research was also provided in this Chapter.

The discussion on INGO missions, culture, and structure and HRM practices highlighted tensions and contradictions that have implications for job satisfaction of INGO employees. Those tensions and contradictions are explored with the conceptual framework that is presented in the next chapter.

STRUCTURE OF CHAPTER 3



CHAPTER 3

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

Following the review of relevant literature in the previous chapter, this Chapter focuses mainly on the presentation of the interim conceptual framework for this research. The final version of the conceptual framework that forms the basis for the contribution that this research makes to knowledge is presented in Chapter 6.

In the previous chapter this researcher provided the rationale for adopting Hegel's dialectic method and his pragmatic critical realist philosophical stance. This chapter builds on that discussion on pragmatic critical realist philosophy. It compares critical realist, positivist and constructionist research philosophies based on goal of science, research design and nature of evidence.

This researcher then explains how his experience influenced the development of the conceptual framework for this research. That is followed by an explanation of the mapping of forms of job satisfaction against the dialectical triad and the listing of dialectical statements developed from review of literature (see Table 2.5). The last section in this chapter summarises the key issues arising from the presentation of conceptual framework before the description of research methods in Chapter four.

3.2 Comparative Analysis of Research Philosophies

3.2.1 Nature of Reality

Constructionism holds that when people interact they construct multiple realities about a phenomenon of interest. On the contrary, critical realists contend that reality exists independent of what we think, know or believe about it or our perception of it (Johnson & Duberley, 2000; Healy & Perry, 2000; Reed, 2001; Mir & Watson, 2001; Nightingale & Cromby, 2002; Krauss, 2005). As a pragmatic critical realist, this researcher disagrees with the constructionist argument of the existence of multiple realities. His belief in the existence of 'multiple *perceptions about a single and mind-independent reality*' (Krauss, 2005: 760) reinforces the dialectical approach that he adopts in interpreting research participants' accounts of their work experiences. Consideration of various accounts or perceptions of a 'single' reality deepen understanding because, '*contradictions are inherently part of the world that really exists, part of the underlying structures...*' (Olsen, 2002: 4).

This researcher also does not subscribe to the positivist notion of a '*single concrete*' reality that can be explained, measured and controlled (Knox, 2004; Healy & Perry, 2000). From a critical realist perspective, the world that really exists according to Olsen (2004) is independent of our knowledge and representations of it therefore it cannot be fully grasped (Johnson & Duberley, 2000; Healy & Perry, 2000; Reed, 2001; Dobson, 2002; McEvoy & Richards, 2006). The world that really exists represents the intransitive dimension of reality and the dimension of reality that is observed or accessed by the researcher is the transitive dimension (Bhaskar, 1978). It is impossible to apprehend the intransitive world because our perceptions of it are shaped by our theoretical perspectives, thrust of our research, discourses and similar tools available to us either as actors or researchers (Johnson & Duberley, 2000; Dobson, 2002; McEvoy & Richards, 2006).

According to Bhaskar (1978)

Our knowledge is 'of' things which are not produced by men at all: the specific gravity of mercury, the process of electrolysis, the mechanism of light propagation. None of these 'objects of knowledge depend upon human activity. If men ceased to exist, sound would continue to travel and heavy bodies would fall to the earth in exactly the same way, though ex hypothesi there would be no one to know it. Let us call these, in an unavoidable technical neologism, the intransitive objects of knowledge (Bhaskar, 1978:21).

Critical realism conflicts with positivism, which assumes that a researcher's observations are not influenced by pre-developed theoretical frameworks. Positivism treats social structures as operating in a closed system by not considering the effects that they have on each other and the contexts in which they operate (McEvoy & Richards, 2006).

The differentiation of the natural world from that in which the researcher works is central to critical realist philosophy that criticises interpretivists and postmodernists for confusing both dimensions because *'Reality can never be a social product since it pre-exists the transitive, changing social analysis of it. Our perception of reality change continually but the underlying structures that constitute that reality are relatively enduring* (Dobson, 2002: 10). The two dimensions of reality above cover four modes of reality identified in critical realism namely material, ideal, artefactual and social (Fleetwood, 2005). Examples of materially real entities are oceans, and mountains and those of ideally real entities include language, symbols and signs. Computer and cosmetics are examples of artefactually real entities, and socially real entities refer to practices, states of affairs and social structures that make up organisations. Out of the four modes of reality mentioned above, the socially real is the most relevant to the understanding of job satisfaction in INGOs that is the focus of this research. Social structures refer to *'configurations of causal mechanisms, rules, resources, relations, powers, positions and practices'* (Fleetwood, 2005: 201).

3.2.2 Goal of Science

For positivism, the goal of science is to explain causal relationships through focusing on direct cause and effect following unique scientific method (Krauss, 2005). For constructionists causality is not important and science should focus instead on how people perceive their reality (Duberley & Johnson, 2000). Critical realism endorses positivist emphasis on mechanism and patterns in causality but clarifies that cause and effect may not be direct as there are many mechanisms at work (Johnson & Duberley, 2000; Bhaskar, 1998b).

3.2.3 Research Design and Nature of Evidence

In critical realism, research design and methods are dictated by the nature of the research questions but constructionism relies heavily on oral history (Healy & Perry, 2000; Krauss, 2005). Combining qualitative and quantitative methods in this research is consistent with critical realist philosophy (Duberley & Johnson, 2000; Olsen, 2002) and it advances management research that is dominated by quantitative studies (Duberley & Johnson, 2000).

Retroduction is the logic that underpins critical realist analysis of social phenomena and it involves moving beyond observable evidence, lived experience and accounts of research participants (McEvoy & Richards, 2006). Retroduction enables the critical realist to consider unobservable conditions that might have led to the evidence that is observable (Olsen & Morgan, 2005). The contention that the structures and processes in the intransitive dimension of reality are enduring and that they serve as reliable bases for theory testing (Reed, 2001; Dobson, 2002; McEvoy & Richards, 2006) differentiates critical realism from constructionism. Constructionism discounts the significance of enduring mechanisms in understanding social phenomena (Reed, 2001).

In terms of what constitutes evidence Critical Realists maintain that interpretation of what people say and do is valid and could be input into the research process as long as such inclusion is justified (Bhaskar, 1998a; 1998c). Justifications of what research participants do and say goes beyond establishing whether they are telling the truth. Understanding complex social phenomena involves looking at the processes that shape participants' views to see how or to what extent their accounts are influenced by ideology (Wainwright, 1997 cited in McEvoy & Richards, 2006). As a Pragmatic Critical Realist therefore, this researcher acknowledges that employees' accounts of their work experiences could be incomplete or misguided (McEvoy & Richards, 2006). Critical realism treats perceptions as means of accessing reality but Social Constructionists see perceptions as multiple realities constructed by interacting parties (Healy & Perry, 2000).

3.3 Researcher's Experience

The conceptual framework for this research was enhanced largely by the experience that this researcher gained as a former human resource management practitioner in a leading humanitarian INGO. For two and half years he was based at the INGO's headquarters in Geneva, where he provided generalist human resource management services to Regional Director for Africa and the Middle East, 20 regional and country level managers and over 300 employees in both regions.

The need to explore contradictions inherent in perceptions of job satisfaction among INGO employees originated from this researcher's discussion with field managers at a workshop in 2001. This researcher's discussion with the managers enabled him to reflect upon and bring his understanding of job satisfaction related issues to bear on the research questions and conceptual framework (Dellinger & Leech, 2007). Making a researcher's insight central to the research process is supported by C. Wright Mills (cited in Fisher 2007: 8) who advocates that scholars should allow their lives and their work to enrich each other. In allowing his experience to inform this research, this researcher is conscious of the need to demonstrate 'critical subjectivity' defined by Reason as '*a quality of awareness in which we do not suppress our primary experience; nor do we allow ourselves to be swept away and overwhelmed by it; rather we raise it to consciousness and use it as part of the inquiry process*' (see Watt, 2007:94). From a pragmatic critical realist perspective, this researcher's '*critical subjectivity*' is based on his understanding of 'social structures' in a major INGO and perception of contradictions in the way that IFRC field managers described their jobs. Both factors induced the application of dialectical method in the examination of job satisfaction among INGO employees.

3.4 Dialectical Tensions and Job Satisfaction Model

In Section 2.12, relevant dialectical tensions were identified in relation to the four questions raised in this research regarding how INGO missions, culture, headquarters – field locations relations and HRM practices influence employee job satisfaction. Those dialectical tensions summarised in Table 2.5 provide the basis for the statements in Table 3.1 below that are incorporated in the interim conceptual framework presented in this chapter (Figure 3.1)

The implications of each of the tensions in Table 3.1 for job satisfaction of INGO employees are in the form of two outcomes. The outcomes that are types of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction perceived by employees are adopted from Bruggelman's dynamic model of job satisfaction (Bussing et. al., 1999) described in Chapter 2. The first outcome results from the contradictions between the thesis and antithesis and the second outcome or job satisfaction type relates to each tension's synthesis or synergy that reconciles the contradictions.

Job satisfaction or dissatisfaction that is the outcome of the synergy is the taken as the outcome for the individual research participant because as noted earlier the synthesis reconciles and renders the contradictions between the thesis and the antithesis unimportant (Fisher, 2007:323; McTaggart, 1896: para. 8).

Table 3.1 Dialectical statements for Interim Conceptual Framework

Research Question	Thesis	Antithesis	Synergy
Corporate Mission & Job Satisfaction	Employees join INGOs because they associate with corporate missions	How INGOs approach the execution of their missions does not meet expectations of their employees	Employees remain in INGOs because they are committed to corporate missions. They also plan to continue their careers in the INGO sector.
Principles & Values & Job Satisfaction	Conduct of INGO employees should conform to corporate principles and values in performing their duties.	Employees' practical experiences present ethical conundrum	Employees get better support to apply principles and values.
HQ. -Field Relations & Job Satisfaction	INGO headquarters focus on Organisation Centred Activities (OCAs)	INGO field locations focus on Programme Centred Activities (PCAs)	Common INGO Vision unites field and headquarters .
HRM Policies/ Practices & Job Satisfaction	INGOs execute their missions based on management practices that are consistent with not-for-profit philosophy	INGOs adopt business sector Management practices to enhance their competitiveness	INGOs continue to adopt business sector management practices but retain their not-for-profit philosophy

Source: Developed for this research by the author

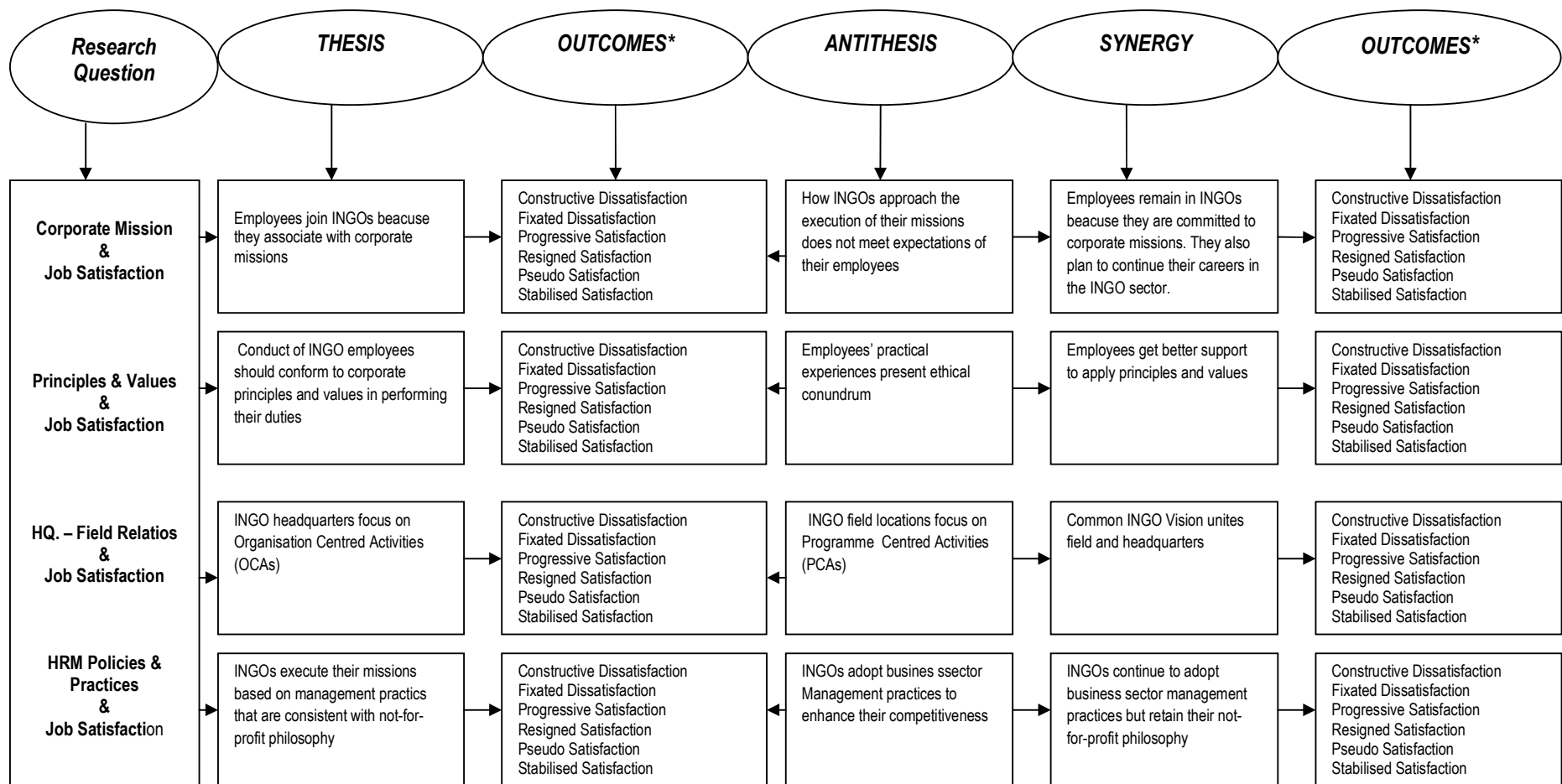


Figure 3.1 Interim Conceptual Framework for Job Satisfaction Among Employees in International NonGovernmental Organisation.

Source : Developed for this research by the author.

3.5 Chapter Summary

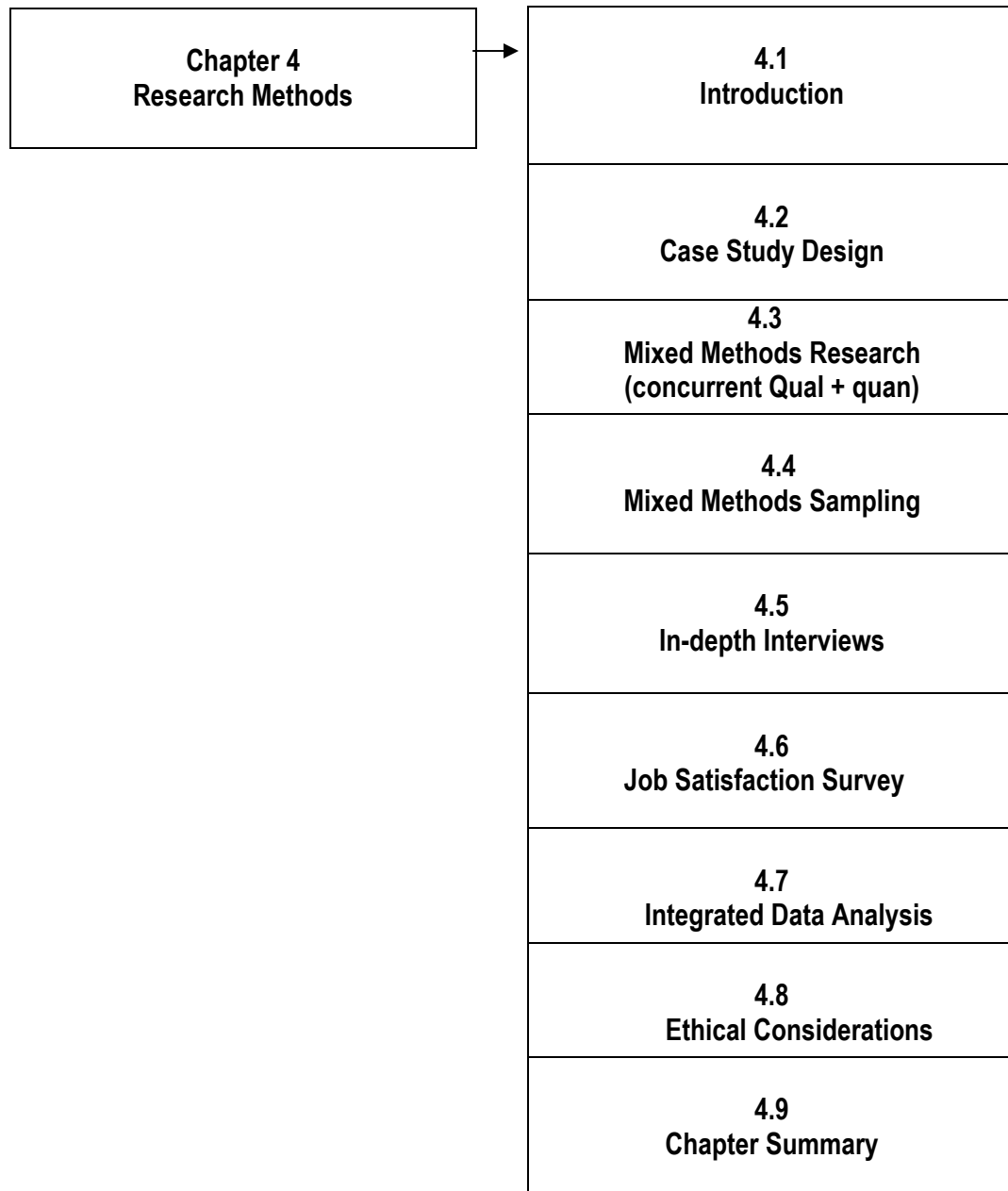
In this chapter, the researcher makes the case for the appropriateness of his pragmatic critical realist stance in this research. That objective was pursued by articulating and contrasting critical realist ontology and epistemology with those of positivism and constructionism.

The 'interim' conceptual framework presented in this chapter guided the conduct of this research but its final version that is presented in Section 6.6 forms the basis for the contribution that this research makes to knowledge.

This researcher explained the influence of his professional experience on the conceptual framework. His discussion with IFRC field managers laid the foundation for anchoring the analytic framework for this research to Hegelian dialectic.

The next chapter is devoted to detailed discussion of case study and combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods (Qual + quan mixed methods) in a mixed research methods model in which the interpretative component of the research is dominant.

STRUCTURE OF CHAPTER 4



CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODS

4.1 Introduction

The conceptual framework for this research and this researcher's pragmatic critical realist stance were discussed in Chapter 3. This chapter builds on Chapter three by describing how this researcher operationalised his conceptual framework.

Detailed description of the research process in this chapter covers case study research design, concurrent collection and integrated analysis of data gathered from in-depth interviews and questionnaire administration.

This chapter also explains ethical guidelines that this researcher followed in the process of collecting, analysing and presenting data for this research. The summary at the end of this chapter highlights the key issues addressed and provides necessary link with Chapter five which deals with data presentation and analysis.

Figure : 4.1 : **Research Process Overview**

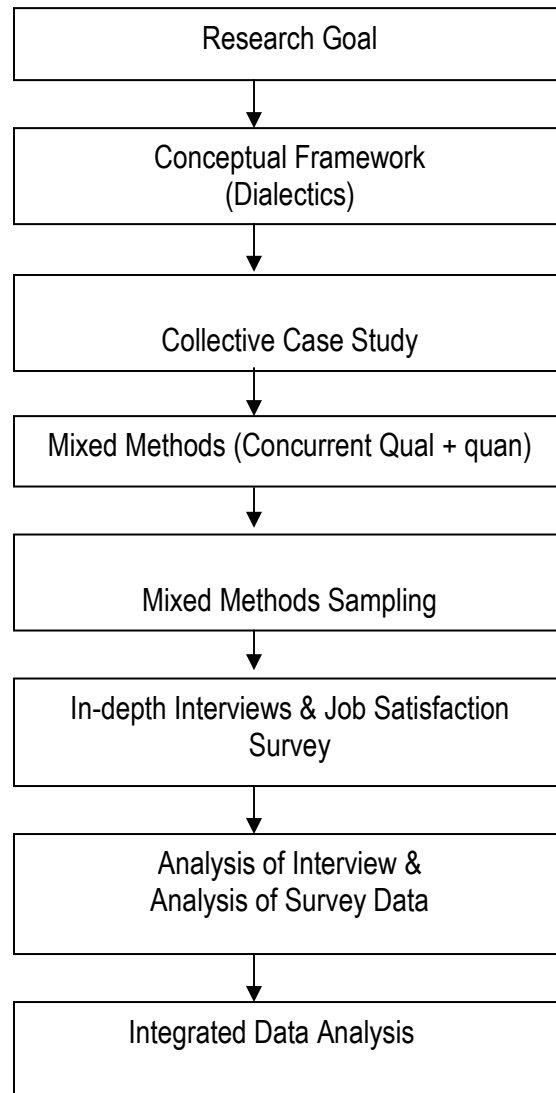


Figure : 4.1 : **Research Process Overview**

Source: Developed by the author for this research

4.2 Case Study Research Design

In Chapter one this researcher traced the origin of this research back to the conference that he attended in 2001 where some IFRC field managers described their jobs as 'stressful' but 'satisfying'. This researcher's decision to combine questionnaire administration with in-depth interviews in order to understand 'how' INGO employees felt about their jobs and 'why' they felt how they felt about their jobs, informed the selection of case study design for this research (Yin, 2003). In positivist research, case study enables the identification, isolation and focus on variables that are of interest to the researcher and in interpretative research it enables the researcher to concentrate on the reality that is relevant to the phenomenon being studied (VanWynsberghe & Khan, 2007:8). Within critical theory " *case study enables the understanding of a larger class of (similar) units* " (Gerring, 2004:342). Sustained research interest in job satisfaction and growing influence of INGOs that this researcher noted in Chapters one and two established the focus of this research as a '*contemporary phenomenon*' that should be investigated using case study method (Yin , 2003).

Triangulation of methods is one of the strengths of the case study research design (Yin, 2003). The combination of research methods favoured by case study method underpins this researcher's pragmatic realist stance and theoretical triangulation (Cox & Hassard, 2005). The theoretical rationale for combining qualitative and quantitative research methods in a model in which the qualitative element of this research is the dominant one was provided in Section 2.7.3. How both methods were combined in practice is discussed in Sections 4.3 to 4.8.

In addition to combination of research methods, case study method supports the incorporation of pre-conceived framework or theoretical propositions into research design (Yin,

2003) as opposed to 'grounding' the conceptual framework in the data. By adopting case study method this researcher shares the view that

Grounded theory research does not sufficiently disclose the intellectual or cultural tradition within which the research is carried out. A researcher deciding to undertake a grounded theory study buys into the idea that categories and concepts are grounded in arise or emerge from the data as far as possible. ...and yet to obscure the fact that the research is being carried out for the purpose of refining and articulating a particular perspective is to make it that much harder for practitioners within that tradition to make a relationship with what is being written (McLeod, 2001, cited in Olsen , 2002:10)

In adopting case study research design this researcher was aware of the risk that it could lead to narrow or idiosyncratic theory development (Eisenhardt, 1989; Baxter & Jack, 2008). By taking note of themes or cases that did not fit his conceptual framework this researcher enhanced the trustworthiness of conclusions drawn in this research (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). By refining the conceptual framework based on new insights gained from in-depth interviews this researcher equally mitigated the risk of generating theories that are fully loaded with researcher bias (Eisenhardt, 1989; Baxter & Jack, 2008). Consistent with case study research design the final conceptual framework presented in Chapter 6 reflects the key themes that emerged from data analysis (Baxter & Jack, 2008) and forms the basis for this research's contributions to knowledge.

This researcher adopted collective case study method instead of intrinsic or instrumental case study in order to conduct in-depth examination of multiple cases (Silverman, 2005). Intrinsic case study method was not considered suitable because it does not prioritise theory development and instrumental case study was not applied due to its emphasis on revision of generalisations (Silverman, 2005). After selecting collective case study as the overall research strategy, the next task was that of determining the appropriate mixed methods design for its execution.

4.3 Mixed Methods Research

At the conceptual stage, his Director of Studies encouraged this researcher to consider combining questionnaire administration with in-depth interviews in this research. According to the Director of Studies, combining both research methods could generate new insights to advance academic understanding of job satisfaction. As noted in Section 2.7.3, the theoretical rationale for combining quantitative and qualitative methods in this research is that such approach will contribute to improved understanding of job satisfaction (Taber, 1991; Armstrong, 2006).

The argument in social science methodology literature that combining qualitative and quantitative research will unavoidably lead to the violation of fundamental principles is rooted in the interpretation of Kuhn's concept of paradigm (cited in Morgan, 2007). This researcher rejects the metaphysical conception of research paradigm that is very popular in social science. When viewed metaphysically, paradigms are *'distinctive belief systems that influence how research questions are asked and how the researcher narrowly concentrates on one's worldviews about issues within the philosophy of knowledge'* (Morgan, 2007:52). Kuhn's subsequent clarification that paradigms govern *'not a subject matter but a group of practitioners'* (cited in Morgan, 2007:53) served to endorse combination of different methods within the same discipline. Kuhn's explanation undermined the argument that research conducted from one paradigm cannot be translated or reinterpreted in another paradigm even where both paradigms exist within the same discipline (Morgan, 2007).

Combining qualitative and quantitative methods in this research was ontologically and methodologically consistent with this researcher's pragmatist realist orientation (Pratschke, 2003) because within realism

both qualitative and quantitative methodologies are seen as appropriate for researching the underlying mechanisms that drive actions and events. Methods such as case studies, and unstructured or semi-structured in-depth interviews are acceptable and appropriate within the paradigm as are statistical analyses ... the seeming dichotomy between quantitative and qualitative [methods] is therefore replaced by an approach that is considered appropriate given the research topic of interest and level of existing knowledge pertaining to it (Krauss, 2005:762)

Epistemologically, the dominant qualitative element in the combination of research methods is subjectivist and the secondary quantitative component is objectivist (Johnson, 2006). Realism favours the combination of research methods based on the principle of pragmatism. Being pragmatic therefore modifies this researcher's epistemological stance from '*subjectivist*' to '*intersubjectivist*' because '*complete objectivity*' is impossible to achieve and it is '*hard to imagine what complete subjectivity would be*' (Morgan, 2007:71).

The pragmatic approach adopted in this research meant that the researcher gave priority to research question over "paradigm" considerations (Bryman, 2006; Eisenhardt, 1989, Rowlands, 2005). Pragmatism encourages researchers to deploy different methods in carrying out their studies in order to take advantage of the strengths of the methods which also have '*overlapping weaknesses*' (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998:21).

In the context of this researcher's dialectical approach to data analysis, triangulation helped him to uncover paradox and contradictions (Bryman, 2004) within and between employees' accounts of job satisfaction. In a mixed methods study, the researcher is able to exploit the strengths of both methods (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004) as words make numbers more meaningful and numbers make words more precise. By combining methods this research overcomes what Tashakkori & Teddlie, (1998) describe as being subject to the tyranny of a particular method because he was able to pursue different ways of investigating and understanding (Johnson, 2008, Worall, 2004) job satisfaction among INGO employees. By combining methods

this research also benefited from using one method to negate or minimise the weaknesses of the other (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006).

Beyond justifying the combination of methods to advance social research, pragmatism constitutes a voice of reason in the epistemology debate that cautions against 'a strong tendency to not only privilege epistemology over methods and emphasise ontological issues above others' (Morgan, 2007: 68). In that regard pragmatists call on research methodologists to

devote equal attention to studying both the connection between methodology and epistemology and the connection between methodology and methods. Furthermore, we need to use our study of methodology to connect issues in epistemology with issues in research design, rather than separating our thoughts about the nature of knowledge from our efforts to produce it (Morgan, 2007:68).

As stated earlier this researcher decided that the qualitative element of this research would be the dominant one when this research was at the conceptual stage (Cresswell et al., 2004). This researcher disagrees with the position that the final decision as to which element would be dominant could only be made when the study is completed (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2006). From the initial review of job satisfaction literature, this researcher established that many studies focusing on job satisfaction had done so largely from a quantitative perspective. From a methodological perspective, this research contributes to the filling of the gap identified in the job satisfaction literature as means of improving understanding of the concept.

Conducting credible mixed methods research requires that the researcher pay attention to '*complex ontological and epistemological issues*' (McEvoy & Richards, 2006:66) in addition to overcoming practical challenges involved in data collection and analysis. In this research, conducting integrated analysis of different types of data tasked this researcher's persistence and creativity. On reflection that experience is part of the learning that is necessary to advance mixed methods research. However, mixed methods research scholars agree that interpretation of

conflicting results still requires more work (Bazeley, 2002; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Slonim-Nevo & Nevo, 2009).

The time and money that this researcher committed to data collection and data analysis confirmed that using mixed methods is both time consuming and expensive (Bazeley, 2002 ;Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). It must be said that this researcher found the whole experience intellectually stimulating and rewarding.

4.4 Mixed Methods Sampling

As stated in Section 1.1, this study originated from the researcher's interest in exploring whether feelings of employees in other INGOs about their jobs would be similar to how IFRC managers described their jobs. From the researcher's discussion with the IFRC managers, it was clear that the relations between an INGO's headquarters or regional offices and its field offices could influence the perception of job satisfaction by employees in both locations. In order to do justice to the research question that explored effects of the relations between headquarters and field locations on job satisfaction of employees, this researcher made efforts to get as many participants as possible from both locations in the organisations that he targeted.

Geographically, this research focused on INGO employees in the United Kingdom because headquarters of some major INGOs are situated in the United Kingdom. For example, the headquarters of INGOs such as Christian Aid, Tearfund, International Alert, and International HIV/Aids Alliance that took part in this research are located in the United Kingdom. INGOs that do not have headquarters in the United Kingdom maintain strong presence in the country to enable them to interact with key stakeholders in Europe. Africa was selected as the other region of focus because most of the major INGOs operate directly or indirectly in Africa.

At the time this research commenced, this researcher worked for a major humanitarian organisation that had its headquarters in Geneva-Switzerland and significant field operations in Africa. The researcher travelled frequently to various locations in Africa and that gave him the opportunity to administer questionnaires and interview INGO employees for this research. In order to facilitate data gathering in the United Kingdom, this researcher solicited the assistance of his British colleagues at the humanitarian organisation and followed up contacts already developed by another researcher at the Nottingham Business School. This researcher relocated to

the United Kingdom with his family two years later to continue his human resources management career and that development improved his access to INGOs in the United Kingdom.

The thought that the differences in the activities of INGOs and the environments in which their employees operate could have impact on job satisfaction influenced this researcher's efforts to sample research participants from different types of INGOs. In order to sample employees across the INGO sector this researcher relied on the widely adopted International Classification of Non-profit Organisations (ICNPO) to segment the research population. The ICNPO has 12 sections that categorise organisations on the basis of the scope and type of activities they engage in. Section 9 of the classification simply identifies and groups together organisations that operate internationally reserving differentiation based on type of activities for national non-profit associations.

This researcher adapted the activity based classification for national associations in the ICNPO (Salamon and Anheier (1996a) and derived three categories that differentiated INGOs based on their core activities. Adaptation of INGO classification method was discussed in Section 2.2. The 35 research interview participants and 148 survey respondents came from the International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies (IFRC), Care International, Christian Aid, Tearfund, Footsteps International, Womankind, Greenbelt Movement, Amnesty International, International HIV/Aids Alliance, Wateraid, Oxfam and International Alert (Table 2.2).

This researcher's ambition of conducting up to 45 in- depth interviews was tempered by the volume of refusal letters that he received from INGOs. The common excuse INGOs gave was that they were underresourced therefore employees were too busy to be interviewed. This researcher's perception that most INGOs had 'phobia' for academic research was reinforced by his experience at the headquarters of a major peace and human rights organisation. In response to his participation request letter, this researcher was invited to interview six employees that were

interested in taking part in the research. On the appointed day, the second of the six scheduled interviews had barely commenced when the Director that approved that the interviews be conducted interrupted the session. He informed the researcher to stop the interview because he had been advised to cancel further interviews. The Director did not provide further explanation as to why the interviews were being cancelled.

When this researcher arrived at the INGO headquarters earlier, he had a short conversation with one of the administrative staff who seemed genuinely interested in his research topic. As this researcher was leaving the premises of the INGO, the employee handed him a piece of paper that contained the title of a book (Hopgood, 2006) published recently about the INGO. The book deals extensively with most of the issues relevant to this research. The book illustrates the key tensions in INGO work relations and management practices that could have impact on employees' job satisfaction.

At another INGO based outside London, this researcher used his close relationship with the Chief Executive who was his senior colleague at a major international humanitarian INGO to gain access to employees for questionnaire administration and in-depth interviews. The INGO Chief Executive believed that the results of this research could be of benefit to his organisation thus sparing this researcher the experience of negotiating his research objectives (Buchanan & Bryman, 2007).

This researcher emailed and posted questionnaires to over 40 INGOs with operations in the United Kingdom and Africa in order to boost response rate for the survey. This research combined non-random sampling techniques such as simple, maximum variation, critical case, theory based, criterion and convenience sampling schemes (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007). The theoretical sampling technique adopted in this research enabled the researcher to include in his sample participants that possessed attributes or features that were relevant to his research questions

(Silverman, 2005; Glasgow, 2005). The significance of theoretical sampling in qualitative research is emphasised by Bryman (1998) who notes that generalizability in qualitative research is with respect to theoretical propositions and not to populations as is usually the case in positivist studies. Similar to the requirement for theory development before data collection and analysis, case study method supports this researcher's pursuit of analytic generalization as opposed to statistical generalisation (Yin, 2003; Johnson, 2006; Collins, 2007). By pursuing analytic generalisation, this research avoided sampling integration pitfall where either statistical generalisation is impossible or the inference quality based on concurrent design is low because the

inferences made from data yielded by a large random sample were integrated (i.e., into a meta-inference) with inferences made from qualitative data arising from a smaller subset of this sample or from an entirely different group of people (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006:56).

In terms of sample sizes, the 35 in- depth interviews conducted and 148 questionnaires analysed for this research exceeded minimum recommended thresholds of 3-5 participants for case studies, 82 participants for correlational studies and 12 participants for interviews (Crouch & McKenzie, 2006 ; Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007).

4.5.1 In-depth Interviews

Interviews are an essential part of data collection toolkit that enables realist researchers to access and interpret individual experiences that are relevant to the focus of their research (Crouch & McKenzie, 2006; McEvoy & Richards, 2006; Limpanitgul, 2009). This researcher conducted pilot interviews with three of his colleagues to assess whether his interview guide would generate the breadth and depth of data required to address his research problem (Gillham, 2000; Chenail, 2009). Two out of the three employees that volunteered for the pilot interviews worked at the INGO's Headquarters in Geneva and the third person was based in a West African location. This researcher used volunteers' feedback on the interview sessions to refine his interview guide (Appendix D1) and research questions (Gillham, 2000; Chenail, 2009).

Over a period of about four years, this researcher interviewed 35 INGO employees in United Kingdom and Africa. This researcher was aware that in-depth interviews are time consuming and that conducting good interviews requires high level of training and skills (Bryman, 1998, Gillham, 2000; Chenail, 2009). Through the interviews, the researcher captured the nuances and contradictions (Crouch & McKenzie, 2006) that were inherent in the work experiences narrated by the research participants. Deploying interviewing skills developed in the course of HR management career of over two decades, this researcher treated each interview as a case study (Jones, 2004; Crouch & McKenzie, 2006). He ensured that participants covered issues that were relevant to the research questions whilst giving them the opportunity to share their experiences and reflect on incidents that they considered important.

The three focus group sessions that this researcher had planned to explore further the issues that might emerge from in-depth interviews and research survey did not take place for logistical reasons. This researcher's efforts to organise on-line sessions were also unsuccessful largely because of difference in time zones between UK and various locations in Africa where the employees were based coupled with the fact the employees had other commitments. This researcher still achieved inside-outside legitimation (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson 2006) without the focus group sessions by discussing his preliminary analysis and insights at different times with INGO researchers and employees in organisations such as Christian Aid, Tearfund and International Alert.

Based on his flexible interview guide that was refined regularly to reflect new insights and learning points, this researcher asked open-ended questions and probed participants' comments as necessary. He encouraged research participants to illustrate their views with specific examples as much as possible. Interview questions covered issues such as what led participants to join the INGO sector and their particular organisation, relationships with their headquarters, field locations, colleagues and other stakeholders, including local counterparts and officials of host governments. Participants shared practical experiences of working according to their organisations' principles and values and expressed their views about their organisations' responses to challenges in the operating environment. This researcher explored how participants felt about their terms and conditions of service, aspects of their jobs that they enjoyed, what they disliked about their jobs and working in multicultural teams.

At the request of the participants, six out of the 35 or 17% of in-depth interviews were conducted at venues other than interviewees' offices to enable them to express their views freely. Some participants saw their participation in the interviews as their contribution to the success of this research yet others regarded being interviewed as their contribution to the

improvement of HRM in the INGO sector. This researcher interviewed two expatriates (AFR 5 & AFR 2) that were completing their assignments with a Disaster and Relief INGO in Southern Africa in early 2003. According to the expatriates, taking part in this research provided them the opportunity to share their work experiences with this researcher in a way that they would not have done with their colleagues or managers. The researcher could not interview INGO employees who spoke only French because he could no longer speak the language fluently.

4.5.2 Analysis of In-depth Interviews

After transcribing the in-depth interviews, this researcher uploaded the transcripts onto Nvivo 8 in the recommended rich text files (rtf) format. In order to differentiate the transcripts and facilitate retrieval of coded passages, each transcript was saved with a unique file name that the researcher assigned to the participants based on their location. For example, transcript saved as UK 1.rtf referred to interview number one in the United Kingdom.

The researcher read each interview transcript at least thrice to familiarise himself with the data gathered (Gillham, 2000; Power, 2004; Yeh & Inman, 2007) and reflect on how best data analysis should proceed. For the first level coding, the transcripts were coded thematically (Gillham, 2000) based on the focus or thrust of each research question as explained in Section 1.4. Statements made by research participants were coded under the theme or themes to which they related based on the judgement of the researcher. The themes referred to as parent nodes in Nvivo8 under which statements made in the transcripts were coded were INGO mission/speciality, principles / values , headquarters-field locations relations and HRM practices.

The second round of coding involved latent content analysis and exploration of underlying meanings of statements (Tashakkori & Teddlie 1998; Gillham, 2000; Power, 2004; Hsieh & Shannon, 2005) coded initially. At that stage, this researcher recoded passages under

each research question and grouped extracts that had common themes together. The recoded extracts provided the basis for the thematic analysis that preceded dialectical analysis of job satisfaction forms presented in the next chapter. The coding process enabled this researcher to reflect deeply on his understanding of the meanings of the extracts. In some cases, he moved interview extracts to different clusters and in other situations; he placed extracts in more than one cluster.

This researcher stopped using Nvivo8 software for qualitative data analysis at that stage. This researcher noticed that he was investing more time trying to optimise the use of the data analysis software than actually analysing interview data. He moved his data to Microsoft word and Excel programmes in order to manipulate interview data with greater efficiency and flexibility. The decision paid off as he took advantage of his proficiency in Microsoft Office suite applications to accelerate data analysis.

This researcher moved on to carry out what he calls, 'dialectical' coding by examining coded passages for affirmations, contradictions, resolutions and conclusions. Guided by his conceptual framework this researcher constructed matrices (Averill, 2002) showing summaries and dialectical analysis of participants' narratives (Appendices D2, D3, D4 & D5) as 'thesis', 'antithesis' and 'synthesis' (Baxter, 1988). At the end of the coding, this researcher reviewed and interpreted the 'dialectically' coded statements as indicators of specific types of job satisfaction perceived by employees based on the typology discussed in Section 2.6. The typology developed by Bruggelman (see Bussing et. al., 1999) identified job satisfaction types that included pseudo satisfaction, fixated dissatisfaction, constructive dissatisfaction, resigned satisfaction, progressive satisfaction, and stabilised satisfaction.

This researcher noted statements that did not fit into his dialectic framework but which provided contexts for other statements or represented fresh insights. The researcher used such statements to enrich his thematic analysis. That process was repeated for each participant until all the research questions had been addressed.

The combination of results from qualitative and quantitative data analyses came up at integrated data analysis stage in keeping with the conduct of a fully integrated study (Yin, 2006, Cresswell et.al. 2004).

4.6.1 Job Satisfaction Survey

The survey instrument selected for this research was Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) (Appendix B1) developed by Spector (1997) who formally authorised this researcher to use JSS. Over 600 copies of the JSS were sent to employees in over 40 INGOs operating in Africa and the United Kingdom. With 148 properly completed questionnaires returned the survey response rate was 24.6%. The survey participants cut across the INGOs listed as participating organisations in Sections 2.2 and 4.4.

The researcher decided not to develop his own questionnaire or amend the JSS because he believed that the nine facets of job satisfaction covered by the JSS would strongly complement in-depth interviews in providing relevant quantitative data for this study (Morse, 2006). Using a validated instrument also opened up the quantitative aspect of this study for possible comparative analysis with job satisfaction studies focusing on employees in similar organisations (Spector, 1997).

Adopting a validated instrument without modification meant that the survey was unable to capture organisation or employee – specific issues, events, and decisions that were relevant to employee job satisfaction (Spector, 1997). Using in-depth interviews, this researcher accessed and examined employees' accounts of incidents that influenced their feelings of job satisfaction that the JSS could not unearth or discover.

As explained later in this section, this researcher requested respondents to indicate the location and name of their organisation as part of the general information that they should provide to facilitate data analysis. Obtaining such information enabled this researcher to code and analyse data relating to job satisfaction of employees based on their location and the

category to which their organisations belong using his adapted version of the classification of INGOs.

The JSS has 36 items or statements covering nine different facets of job satisfaction. Depending on the way the 36 items in JSS are worded respondents were required to indicate the extent of their agreement or disagreement with each statement by choosing from options that ranged from “disagree very much” to “agree very much”. For example where the ideal response to a questionnaire item was “Agree very much”, 6 points were awarded for the ideal response, 5 for “agree moderately”, 4 for “agree slightly”, 3 for “disagree slightly”, 2 for “disagree moderately” and 1 point for “disagree very much”.

. This researcher obtained JSS for use in this research free of charge. This researcher prepared the French version of the JSS and research participation request letters (Appendix D6) and letter (Appendix D7) that he sent to potential respondents by engaging the services of a professional translator. He forwarded the English and French versions of the documents to another translator who confirmed that the French translations were accurate. The documents were translated to enable the researcher to gather data from INGO employees in some Western and Northern African countries who might not be sufficiently proficient in English Language to participate in the survey. The effort yielded minimal but satisfactory result as 16 out of the 148 or 10.81 % of the questionnaires analysed were completed in French.

4.6.2 Analysis of Survey Data

As soon as the researcher received completed questionnaires, he assigned unique serial numbers to them and coded the responses and relevant particulars of respondents such as INGO type, location, age band, and years of experience in the INGO sector. Before coding the questionnaires, the 19 negatively worded items were reverse scored by subtracting respondents' score on each *'item from the sum of the lowest and highest possible responses'* (Spector, 1997: 9).

The scores for the relevant items were added to derive sub-scale scores for each of the 9 facets. For missing items, the researcher computed the average for the relevant facet based on the number of questions answered and filled the missing item with the average score to ensure that the facet and overall scores were not too low (Spector, 1997).

The Excel spreadsheet on which the questionnaires were coded was uploaded onto version 15.0 of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) for analysis. This researcher created codes in SPSS to generate and analyse demographic tables showing frequencies according to respondents' gender, type of INGO they worked for, location, age- bands and years of work experience in the INGO sector.

In addressing his research questions, this researcher examined possible association between the variable that was the subject of each question (independent variable) and overall job satisfaction (dependent variable) using Chi square statistic. That approach was informed by the concept of overall job satisfaction as *'a weighted outcome of the individual's satisfaction with each one of the aspects or facets of the job'* (Skalli et al., 2008; 1907). The Chi-square statistic determines whether or not there is a significant relationship between the cross tabulated variables by comparing actual frequencies with expected frequencies in the cells of the 2X2 tables *'to calculate the odds of the distribution [on the table] happening by chance'* (Greasley, 2008:63 – 64). This researcher used cross tabulation for comparative analysis because it handles the examination

of relationship between 'categorical variables in detail better than simple frequencies for individual variables' (Greasley, 2008:61). The researcher constructed a 2x2 Chi-square table for each question using the cross tabs functionality in the SPSS.

In order to create 2x2 tables that cross tabulated independent variables with overall job satisfaction the researcher aggregated the initial scores derived from the six response options on the JSS to derive 2 instead of 6 response categories (Sadik, 2007). For each questionnaire item and each job satisfaction facet, respondents were either 'satisfied' or 'dissatisfied'. In order to arrive at the two response options, the 6 response options were converted from 'agree very much' to 'very satisfied', 'agree moderately' to 'moderately satisfied', 'agree slightly' to 'slightly satisfied', 'disagree slightly' to 'slightly dissatisfied', 'disagree moderately' to 'moderately dissatisfied' and 'disagree very much' to 'very dissatisfied'. Responses such as 'very satisfied', 'moderately satisfied' and 'slightly satisfied' were regarded as indicators of satisfaction. Indicators of satisfaction attracted a score of two under the new scale and indicators of dissatisfaction such as "slightly dissatisfied", "moderately dissatisfied", and "very dissatisfied" attracted a score of one. In line with JSS scoring method, scores for the relevant 4 questionnaire items under each facet were added to derive facet satisfaction score.

Average facet scores were then calculated by dividing the total facet score by 4. Average scores for the 9 facets were then added and divided by nine to arrive at the average overall job satisfaction score. An average score of 2 indicated that employee had overall job satisfaction and a score of 1 indicated overall dissatisfaction with the job. For research questions that had more than one facet according to the JSS – Research Questions Matrix (Appendix D9), average scores were derived to determine employee satisfaction or dissatisfaction following the same approach adopted in arriving at the scores for overall job satisfaction.

Following the reduction of response options and conversion of scores explained earlier the tables generated through cross tabulation did not meet the requirement or assumption of Pearson chi-square that all cells in the table should have counts that are not less than 5 (Pedersen, 1996;Greasley, 2008). When the tables failed to meet the requirement for the application of Chi-Square test, this researcher considered the statistics generated by SPSS for the recommended Two Sided Fisher's Exact Test (Pedersen, 1996). Applying the Two Sided Fisher's Exact Test, the result that was reported and analysed was the Exact Sig (2 sided) p - value (Pedersen, 1996). Whether the p- value indicated there was a relationship between the row variable and the column variable, or not this researcher focused on the row and column percentages that contributed to the p-value to describe the nature of the relationship or lack of it.

For each question, the null hypothesis was that the cross-tabulated variables were not related. Establishing the level of significance at 0.05 or 5 per cent meant with a "probability value" of less than 0.05 there was significant relationship between the variables and that the null hypothesis was not supported. In analysing each research question/hypothesis, the significance of test results was based on the convention suggested by Coolican (1990; cited in Perry, 1998) where probability levels of $0.05 > p < 0.01$, $0.01 > p < 0.001$ and 0.001 are described as 'significant', 'highly significant' and 'very highly significant' respectively (Perry, 1998). That analysis indicated the extent to which the independent variables under each research question influenced or led to survey participants' job satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005).

In conducting dialectical analysis of survey data, the discrepancies identified in the data were highlighted in order to achieve better understanding of the subject being investigated (Fisher , 2007) in a process that involved looking for '*unity concealed behind apparent differentiation and contradiction concealed within apparent unity*' (Winter, 1989; cited in Fisher , 2007:300).

4.7 Integrated Data Analysis (Appendices D9; D10;D11;D12)

The Conceptual Framework, and the Research Questions – JSS Items Matrix that this researcher developed established '*counterpart relationship*' between interview data and survey data as far as analysis was concerned (Yin, 2006).

The first research question explored the possible impact of INGO mission on the job satisfaction of its employees and the relevant questionnaire items focused on nature of work, communication and rewards facets of job satisfaction. The second research question dealt with employees' practical experience of working according to their organisations' principles and values. The relevant job satisfaction subscales considered under this question were nature of work, rewards and communication. The third research question addressed effects of working relations between headquarters and field locations on job satisfaction of employees in both locations. This question was linked with questionnaire items dealing with supervision and communication facets of job satisfaction. Relevant subscales for the fourth research question that considered the impact of HRM practices on job satisfaction were those of salary, communication, co-workers, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards and operating conditions. The last research question was a comparative one that looked at similarities and differences in job satisfaction perceived by research participants based in the United Kingdom and Africa. All the nine facets of job satisfaction covered by the 36 questionnaire items were considered in carrying out comparative analysis of nature and level of job satisfaction based on research participants; locations.

This researcher sorted the coded interview data according to location and compared analysis of forms of job satisfaction derived from interview data with the result of location based analysis of survey data (Bazeley, 2009).

Analysis and interpretation of data were carried out based on research questions. For each research question, results of cross-tabulation of relevant variables were considered alongside interview data in order to locate *'congruent findings. E.g. How the themes identified in the qualitative data collection compare with the statistical results in the quantitative analysis'* (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007: 291). Following realists' retroductive reasoning process (Olsen, 2007), this researcher also examined both forms of data for contradictions (Olsen, 2007), elaboration and complementarity. By using the quantitative element of this research to complement qualitative analysis of interview data, the researcher turned triangulation into dialectical practice (Olsen, 2002). He triangulated methods with clear understanding that in combining qualitative and quantitative research methods quantitative results served to complement but not validate findings from qualitative analysis (Kelle, 2006; McEvoy & Richards, 2006; Morse, 2006; Woolley, 2009). By synthesising findings from interview data with results from statistical analysis of questionnaire responses and interpreting them jointly, this researcher achieved data integration *'through analysis, rather than as a conclusion to analysis'* (Bazeley, 2009: 205).

In Chapter 5, qualitative analysis of interview data and quantitative analysis of survey data were not presented separately as in most mixed methods studies in order to avoid producing *'a report which is disjointed and potentially repetitive. [It is] Better to progressively unveil relevant evidence on a path to a common conclusion , than to organise on the basis of methods used'* (Bazeley, 2002: 9)

The discussion on research philosophy in Chapter 3 and detailed explanation of research methods in this chapter reflect this researcher's appreciation of the implications of *'epistemological concerns in [the] integration [of research methods]'* for research credibility and validity (Bazeley, 2009:203). The explanation of conceptual framework and research process demonstrate that the methods applied in this research satisfy key criteria of *'multiple validities'* and *'paradigmatic*

mixing'. Put differently, this researcher's 'epistemological, *ontological, axiological, methodological and rhetorical beliefs that underlie the quantitative and qualitative approaches are [have been] successfully (a) combined or (b) blended into a usable package*' (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006:57) in this research.

4.8.1 Ethical Considerations

The fieldwork for this research finished before Nottingham Trent University implemented a formal research ethics approval procedure. However, with the guidance of his supervisors and drawing on learning from his social research methods training, this researcher followed basic ethical guidelines in carrying out the fieldwork reported in this chapter.

This researcher forwarded letters to individuals and INGOs (Appendices D13 & D14) in Africa and the United Kingdom to explain what his research was about and to solicit participation in either or both job satisfaction survey and in-depth interviews. The JSS was attached to both versions of the letter that assured INGOs and their employees of the confidentiality of the data that would be gathered.

4.8.2 Research Survey

This researcher gave his Nottingham Trent University email address to INGO officials or potential research participants who might prefer that mode of communication. The researcher also provided self-addressed envelopes to encourage INGO employees to participate in the survey. Providing self-addressed envelopes for the return of completed questionnaires was one of the ways in which this researcher demonstrated his commitment to data confidentiality.

In order to guarantee their anonymity, the researcher gave survey participants the option of leaving out their names and other particulars such as gender and nationality that they might not be prepared to share with him. After coding, each questionnaire was filed in a folder that was locked up in this researcher's drawers for privacy and data protection reasons (Buchanan & Bryman, 2007).

4.8.3 In-depth Interviews

Each in-depth interview lasted for an average of 90 minutes and it was preceded by a short briefing by the researcher on key issues relating to ethical conduct of this research. The briefing was conducted based on a guide that this researcher prepared to ensure that he covered all key points (Appendix D1).

This researcher identified himself and told each interview participant briefly about his background, and the purpose the research. He explained to the participants how they were selected, and why they were important to the research. The researcher explained to participants how he would ensure their anonymity and the confidentiality of information they were about to volunteer. The researcher requested each participant's permission to record the interview and explained why that was important. Interview participants were informed that they were free to turn down the researcher's request to record the interviews. The researcher explained them that they could request that the tape recorder be turned off at any time during interviews. Participants were assured that there were no right or wrong answers to the questions and that they were free to request that the researcher repeat or clarify his questions or comments. This researcher explained to the participants that tape recorded interviews would be transcribed and that interview tapes would be destroyed at the completion of this research. All the 35 interviewees except one agreed that interviews be tape recorded. A senior official of a humanitarian relief INGO based in East Africa said that he was uncomfortable with having his views recorded on tape. This researcher took notes of his discussion with the official.

The particulars of interview participants such as names, ages, gender, job titles, organisations, nationalities, locations, dates and interview locations were recorded using a fact sheet template designed by the researcher. For privacy and data protection purposes (Buchanan

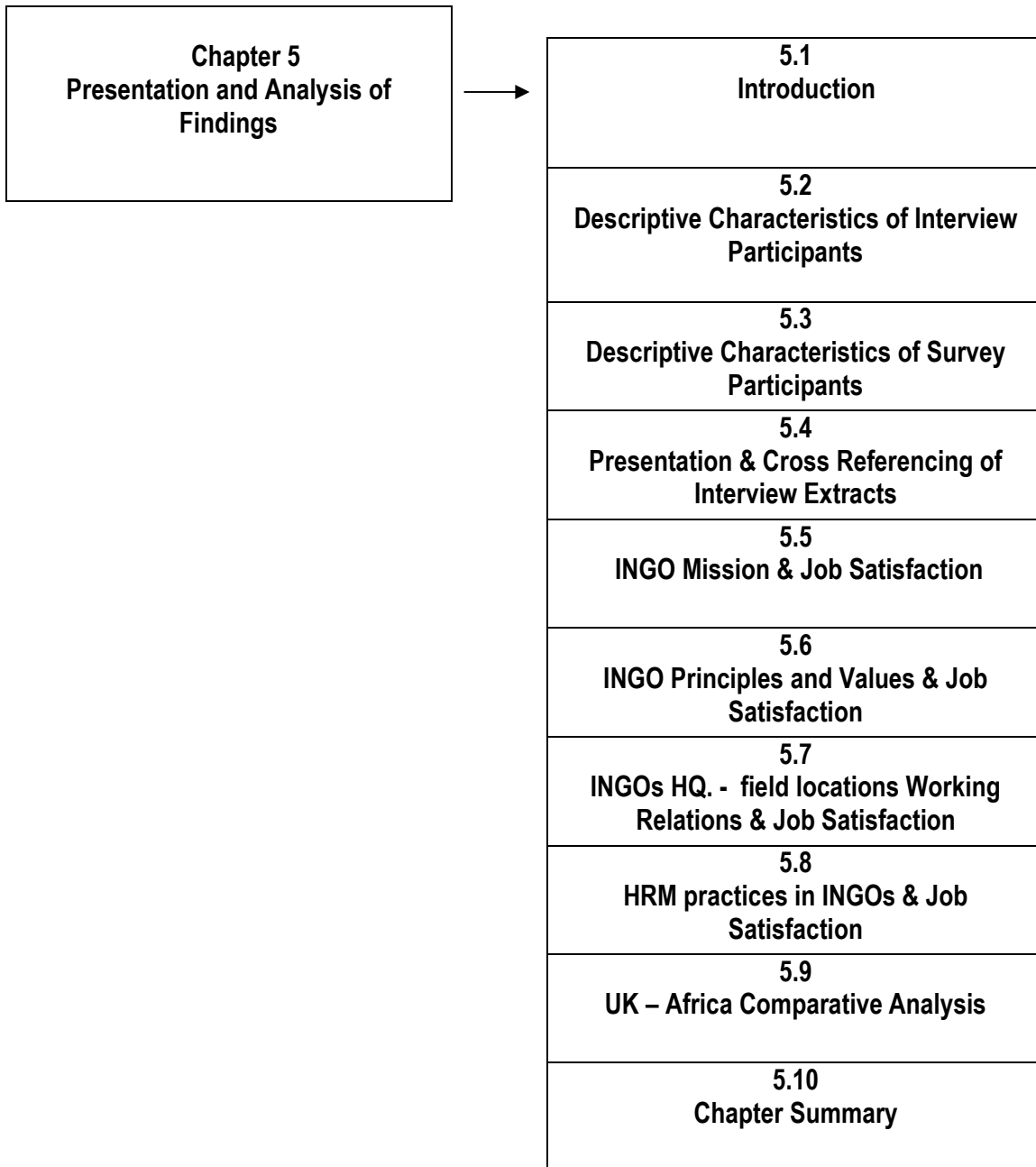
& Bryman,2007), this researcher protected the template, interview transcripts and other research documents saved on his computer laptop by using a password that he alone knew.

This researcher transcribed twenty out of the 34 recorded interviews and the remaining 14 were transcribed by professional transcribers using the template that the researcher provided. This researcher labelled interview tapes according to unique serial numbers to protect the identities of the participants. The researcher safely locked up tapes of transcribed interviews for confidentiality purposes and to ensure that the data quality was not compromised in any way.

4.9 Chapter Summary

This chapter detailed the procedures followed by this researcher to ensure that this research met relevant social research standards. The next chapter focuses on the integrated analysis of data aimed at addressing the research questions posed in the introductory chapter of this study.

STRUCTURE OF CHAPTER 5



CHAPTER 5

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

'Perceptions are important... even if they are misperceptions [because] people respond based on their perceptions of reality, not reality itself' (Shivers-Blackwell, 2006:28).

5.1. Introduction

This chapter covers the descriptive characteristics of interview participants and survey respondents and it focuses on integrated analysis of interview data and questionnaire responses. As the primary research method, qualitative analysis of interview data is complemented by quantitative analysis of data gathered using the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS). Summaries of findings are presented at the end of each research question and this chapter is concluded with a summary that highlights the key issues covered in the chapter.

As noted in Chapter 3 the conceptual framework for this research rests on four dialectical tensions. In carrying out thematic analysis, some of the themes that emerged from the coding of in-depth interview transcripts were relevant to two or more research questions. In effect, themes are discussed and interview extracts cross-referenced depending on their relevance to research questions.

Thematic analysis of themes from in-depth interviews reflects as much as possible the views of all research participants. However, dialectical analysis covers only those research participants from whose narratives this researcher obtained enough materials to complete the dialectical triad of thesis, antithesis and synergy. Dialectical analysis of interview data is based on specific cases that illustrate forms of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction perceived by research participants. In each case, two forms of work satisfaction or dissatisfaction are discussed. The first form of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction is the outcome of the tension between thesis and

antithesis and the other form of satisfaction or dissatisfaction relates to dialectical synergy for the research question.

The fifth research question addressed in this chapter deals with comparative analysis that highlights the similarities and differences in job satisfaction perceived by research participants in the UK and those based in Africa. Based on their location this research question examines research participants' satisfaction with INGO missions, application of principles and values, working relations between headquarters and field offices and HRM practices .

5.2 Descriptive Characteristics of In-depth Interview Participants

Thirty – five INGO employees were interviewed for this research. As shown in Table. 5.1 below that population was made up of 20 males and 15 females. Table 5.2 below shows that eighteen out of the thirty-five interview participants were based in various locations in Africa and the remaining 17 were based in the United Kingdom.

Table 5.1 Distribution of Interview Participants According to Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	20	57.14	57.14
Female	15	42.85	100
Total	35		100

(Source: Author's classification of research interview participants)

Table 5.2 Distribution of Interview Participants According to Location

Location	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Africa	18	51.42	51.42
UK	17	48.57	99.99
Total	35	100	100

(Source: Author's classification of research interview participants)

According to Table 5.3 below fourteen of the interview participants were employed by Disaster and Relief INGOs, thirteen by Human Rights and Peace Organisations and eight by Development associations. Table 5.4 below indicates that six interview participants were within the 20 – 30 years age band and that 17 participants were within the 31-40 years age band. Ten participants fell within the 41 – 50 years age band and only two of the interview participants were aged between 51- 60 years.

Table 5.3 Distribution of Interview Participants According to INGO Type

INGO Type	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Dev. Asst. Asso.	8	22.8	22.85
Disaster & Relief Orgs.	14	40	62.85
Human Rights & Peace Orgs.	13	37.14	99.99
Total	35	100	100

(Source: Author's classification of research interview participants)

Table 5.4 Distribution of Interview Participants According to Age Bands

Age Bands	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
20 – 30 Yrs.	6	17.14	17.14
31 - 40 Yrs.	17	48.57	65.71
41 - 50 Yrs.	10	28.57	94.28
51 - 60 Yrs.	2	5.71	99.99
Total	35	100	100

(Source: Author's classification of research interview participants)

In terms of work experience gained in the INGO sector Table 5.5 below shows that eleven of the interview participants had between 1 – 5 years experience and 17 had gained between 6 – 10 years experience in the INGO sector. Three participants had INGO sector experience ranging from 11-15 years and two fell within the 16-20 years experience bracket. The remaining two participants had gained between 21 – 25 years work experience in the sector by the time they took part in this research.

Table 5.5 Distribution of Interview Participants According to INGO Sector Work Experience

Experience Band	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
1 - 5 Yrs	11	31.42	31.42
6 - 10 Yrs	17	48.57	79.99
11 - 15 Yrs	3	8.57	88.56
16 - 20 Yrs	2	5.71	94.27
21 - 25 Yrs	2	5.71	99.98
Total	35	100	100

(Source: Author's classification of research interview participants)

5.3 Descriptive Characteristics of Survey Respondents

According to Table 5.6 below one hundred and forty-eight INGO employees that completed questionnaires for this research comprised of 81 males and 67 females representing 54.7% and 45.3% of the total number respectively. Table 5.7 shows that In terms of their location 64 survey respondents that were based in the United Kingdom and the remaining 84 respondents located in Africa represent 43.2% and 56.8% of the total number of respondents respectively.

Table 5.6 Distribution of Survey Respondents According to Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	81	54.7	54.7	54.7
Female	67	45.3	45.3	100.0
Total	148	100.0	100.0	

(Source: Generated by SPSS for this research)

Table 5.7 Distribution of Survey Respondents According to Location

Location	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Africa	84	56.8	56.8	56.8
UK	64	43.2	43.2	100.0
Total	148	100.0	100.0	

(Source: Generated by SPSS for this research)

According to Table 5.8 below, Development associations accounted for the largest number of respondents with 104 and Human Rights and Peace organisations had the lowest number of respondents with six and Disaster and Relief INGOs contributed 38 of the survey respondents.

Table 5.8 Distribution of Survey Respondents According to INGO Type

INGO Type	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Dev. Asst. Associations	104	70.3	70.3	70.3
Disaster & Relief Orgs.	38	25.7	25.7	95.9
Human Rights & Peace Orgs.	6	4.1	4.1	100.0
Total	148	100.0	100.0	

(Source: Generated by SPSS for this research)

Table 5.9 below indicates that employees within the 31 – 40 years age band accounted for 52% of the survey respondents and those within 20 – 30 years age band represent 31% of the survey respondents. Respondents in the 41 – 50 years age band and those in 51- 60 years age band represent 18.9% and 8.1% of the survey respondents respectively.

Table 5.9 Distribution of Survey Respondents According to Age Bands

Age Bands	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
(20 - 30) Yrs.	31	20.9	20.9	20.9
(31 - 40) Yrs.	77	52.0	52.0	73.0
(41 - 50) Yrs.	28	18.9	18.9	91.9
(51 - 60) Yrs.	12	8.1	8.1	100.0
Total	148	100.0	100.0	

(Source: Generated by SPSS for this research)

In terms of work experience gained in the INGO sector, Table 5.10 below shows that 47.3% of the respondents had between 1 – 5 years experience and 27% of survey respondents had between with 6 – 10 years experience. INGO employees with work experience between 11-15 years, 16 – 20 years and 21 – 25 years gained in the sector represent 14.9%, 6.1% and 4.7% of the total number of survey respondents respectively.

Table 5.10 Distribution of Survey Respondents According to INGO Sector Work Experience

Age Bands	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
(1 - 5) Yrs	70	47.3	47.3	47.3
(6 - 10) Yrs	40	27.0	27.0	74.3
(11 - 15) Yrs	22	14.9	14.9	89.2
(16 - 20) Yrs	9	6.1	6.1	95.3
(21 - 25) Yrs	7	4.7	4.7	100.0
Total	148	100.0	100.0	

(Source: Generated by SPSS for this research)

5.4. Presentation and Referencing of Interview Extracts

In order to differentiate this researcher's statements from interview extracts, interview extracts that are embedded within texts are presented in italics in Arial Narrow font size 11.

In order to facilitate referencing and cross referencing of interview extracts, unique numbers have been assigned to key interview extracts. Unique location codes have also been assigned to research participants for the same purpose.

5.5.1. What are the effects of INGO missions or types of INGOs that employees work for on their job satisfaction?

As explained in Chapter 1, this research question addresses the effects that attraction and commitment to corporate missions have on the job satisfaction of employees in INGOs. The dialectical tensions applicable to this research question are stated below.

THESIS

Employees join INGOs in order to contribute to the successful execution of the corporate missions that are related to their personal aspirations.

ANTITHESIS

Employees are dissatisfied with some aspects of their jobs and how INGOs execute their missions.

SYNERGY

Employees remain committed to the missions of their INGOs despite frustrations with aspects of their jobs and how INGOs execute their missions.

5.5.2 Thematic Analysis of In-depth Interviews

The themes that are relevant to this research question are attraction of INGO missions, commitment to INGO missions, employees' feelings about their jobs and performance of INGOs in executing their missions.

Attraction of INGO Missions

The view that INGOs are values-based organisations is commonly expressed in research contributions (Kilby, 2006; Fenton & Inglis, 2007; Hailey, 2000) on employee motivation and INGO management. In recent years, major INGOs have intensified efforts to 'professionalize' their organisations by attracting highly qualified personnel from the business sector (Cavill & Sohail, 2007). That development creates room for counter-argument that most employees in INGOs or nonprofits are not necessarily motivated by altruism.

UK1's organisation is faith-based but he joined the Disaster and Relief INGO that he describes as unique by '*accident*' for according to him.

(5.1)

I was working as a journalist for the BBC in Abidjan and one of my beat was to cover the NGO sector, see what is happening, especially the British NGO sector in Ivory Coast and also in Francophone West Africa. I saw an advert for an information Officer for the West and Central African Region of the International Federation of Red Cross and I applied and was appointed Information Officer for the Red Cross. (31- 40 year old Desk Officer).

AFR 5 joined his INGO after being a volunteer for about 8 years in his home country. As a government official, he worked closely with the national arm of his INGO on health related issues. He finally decided to join a Disaster and Relief INGO because he associated with the organisation's principles and cherished the opportunity to work with local communities and volunteers.

Similar to UK 1, UK 17

(5.2)

almost fell into it [INGO career]. When I left university I was not entirely sure what I wanted to do. I'd kind of been interested in museums and charities kind of, but I wasn't entirely sure what I wanted to do (31-40 year old Logistics professional)

She was well paid in her job that involved recruiting employees for charities but decided to join a charity herself because according to her recruiting for charities *'was all about making money'* (5.3).

How UK 12 started his career in the INGO sector is not too different from UK1's entry into the sector. UK 12 attributes starting a career in the INGO sector to the *'good fortune of seeing it [job advertisement] in the paper and then knowing that it is a good organisation led me to apply'* (5.4). UK12 explained to this researcher that the opportunity to visit different countries and the fact his INGO is faith-based made joining the Human Rights and Peace INGO that he works for a very good opportunity. On the other hand, the key consideration for UK17 when she joined her organisation was its closeness to her residence.

AFR 8 left the business sector to join a major Disaster and Relief INGO in order to pursue international career for he was

(5.5)

a bit fed-up with the whole thing and said let's do something else. So I took a break for a couple of months in Belgium and I thought like what I want to do now? So I wrote a letter to various organizations within Belgium that work internationally because the decision was taken to do something social... and Belgian Red Cross came up first and they asked me for an interview. So I went there, did an interview and was invited for the BTC [Basic Training Course] which was held one month later. I got a letter from them saying okay if you want to go out, we have something. So I left in 1993 and I did my first mission in Malawi with the intention that this would be just something that I do just for one year... (31-40-year-old Regional Logistics Manager).

UK 14 started her career in a private financial institution in a major European capital and decided on a career in the INGO sector after working for the European Commission on development projects for about five months. The experience gained from working with local communities in Latin America and supporting a local church in South Africa convinced her that

'This was definitely, what I wanted to do. To support local communities' (5.6).

UK 10 followed a different route in starting a career in the INGO sector. She started as a volunteer in a government department back in the Netherlands. On relocating to the United Kingdom, she decided to join the INGO sector as she was *'missing something in my job and I really wanted something extra'* (5.7). She decided to work for her organisation because of its reputation for *'speaking the truth'*.

The desire to make a difference and keen interest in NGO activities during early or mid career stages are other reasons why some of the INGO employees interviewed for this research joined the sector or their organisations.

UK 9 wanted to make a difference and believed that that objective could be best achieved by working for any of the major Development INGOs. UK 11 shares with UK9 the desire to make a difference by *'doing something to help the poor and the world'* (5.8). The values of her faith-based INGO also played a major part in her decision to work for the organisation.

UK 2 developed interest in human rights and took a Master's degree course in Human Rights that prepared her for a career in Human Rights Advocacy. She was working for her second INGO when she participated in this research.

The decision to take a first degree in Social Anthropology and Development Studies was UK16's way of preparing herself for a career in the field of international development that she had always found very interesting. She joined her organisation because she associates with its values and its contributions in health related matters. Similar to UK 17 closeness of UK 16's INGO to her residence played a major role in her decision to join her organisation. Whether UK 16 and or UK 17 would have explored other job opportunities if their INGOs were not located around their residential areas remains unclear.

For UK 15, her interest in human geography and the desire to gain relevant field experience including learning about other cultures motivated her to start a career in the INGO sector. UK 13's reason for working in the INGO sector is different from those offered by the other participants. Joining the INGO for UK 13 was continuing her family's tradition. She explained to this researcher that

(5.9)

my father was an agricultural economist. When I was a child we lived in Malawi for four years. So all our family friends have always been working in development and I've just always wanted to do the same. (20-30-year-old Programme Officer)

In response to this researcher's question on why she joined her INGO UK 13 unequivocally stated her belief in what the INGO

(5.10)

stands for, it has a set of values that I completely, totally believe in and I can just feel a passion about it. It contrasts with other experiences working with organisations that I have felt very, very uncomfortable with because, you know, they don't ... those values and the directors are people that I've found very difficult to agree with in how they present themselves and their organisations. (20-30-year-old Programme Officer)

Participants' Feelings about Their Jobs and the Execution of their Organisations' Missions

It is possible for an employee to be satisfied with her role in an INGO and yet be dissatisfied with her organisation's strategy or approach to the execution of corporate mission (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Corporate approach to mission execution could determine or influence how employees carry out their duties even though the degree of influence it has on job satisfaction would vary from one individual to another.

UK 1 accepts that programme personnel in INGOs should expect to travel frequently and he values being able to plan such trips in such a way that they do not affect his family life. In comparison with previous organisations he describes his current organisation as '*more proactive*'. This researcher gathered from the interview that the organisations that UK 1 worked for before joining his current employers were involved in disaster and relief operations. Involvement in disaster and relief operations meant that those organisations were not always able to give sufficient notice to programme personnel regarding field visits. From UK1's example, the difference in corporate missions could lead to different forms of satisfaction or dissatisfaction depending on the impact that the approach adopted by an INGO in carrying its mission has on the circumstances of the individual employee.

UK 2 describes her role as being '*stressful*' because she supported her INGO's Chief Executive in carrying out redundancy exercise as part of measures taken by her organisation to cope with what she describes as '*financial pressure*'. She relates the '*financial pressure*' and job losses to the fact that the '*INGO world has changed and the funding environment so the charity had to change, as have lots of NGOs, to accommodate their new world*' (5.11). UK 2 is satisfied with her organisation's performance and expresses confidence in its future when she says

(5.12)

I think what we do is quite unusual and so I think it is quite powerful. Different programmes have different successes in different countries. A couple of our programmes are closing down so now we are trying to look at new ones. I think we are at quite an interesting time. (31- 40 year old Human Rights professional)

UK 12 shares UK2's perspective that INGOs face stiff competition nationally and internationally to generate funds for their activities. Concerning his INGO's financial position, he explained to this researcher that his organisation's

(5.13)

supporter base, you know, it comprises of older people who are traditionally church going people. You know, those people are dying off, so to speak, so that support will not always be there. So there is a need for the organisation to look at other ways of gaining funds (31-40 year old, HR Professional)

The pressure on UK 12's organisation to move programme-related jobs to field locations has direct impact on his job as an HR professional and how his NGO operates. He highlights the compelling need for his INGO to act as demanded by donor agencies when he explains that

(5.14)

people that give us big money...the UN and these sorts of people they are all saying that you can't be in the UK and be demanding money to operate in Africa. You need to be in Africa or Southeast Asia or Central Asia to be able to make those decisions. So the drive has been to, you know, to relocate the resources to these countries in order to be able to be invited to the dinner table, so to speak. (31-40 year old, HR Professional)

UK 11 enjoys her role as Divisional Support Officer and considers the opportunity to develop her financial management skills by taking part in a major health campaign very interesting. She is supportive of her INGO's approach to the execution of its mission and is pleased that the organisation incorporates its principle of learning from partners into programme design and implementation.

UK 15 likes her INGO's culture and work environment. She is happy to be involved in developing a database for programme implementation monitoring and she appreciates being given the '*chance to go abroad to facilitate workshops*' (5.15)

UK 16 believes that the programme monitoring and management support services that she provides contributes to the effective functioning of her INGO. The opportunity that her INGO provides for knowledge sharing makes her job more enjoyable. One of the ways by which her organisation encourages knowledge - sharing is by organising '*brown bag lunches*' by which she means a situation where

(5.16)

somebody does a presentation to the rest of the ... [name of INGO] about the work they are doing at the moment. They just come and do a talk about their current piece of work and everybody brings their lunch in a brown bag. That's why its called brown bag lunch. It really good at least you know you've got bit of learning going on and that's the...[name of INGO].(31- 40 year old Monitoring and Evaluation Expert)

UK 17 enjoys working in logistics as it gives him the opportunity to interact with and learn from people from different professional and cultural backgrounds.

INGO headquarters determine terms and conditions of service and assignment priorities for most expatriates. AFR 1 was not pleased with the headquarters' instruction that he devote most of his time to the reconciliation of outstanding accounts. He did not dislike his job but expressed disappointment with the fact that he

(5.17)

expected to find something else because when going out for a mission, you're not interested only in the salary you get; you're interested also in improving your knowledge by sharing it with other people in the same technical area. Now when I went to Sudan and when this working advance issue popped up. So, I had to focus much time on work in advance which is just work in arrears which was accumulating. I could have concentrated on something else. I intended to do the training for the national societies to build their capacity but I couldn't do it because I didn't get that much time... (41-50 year old Finance professional)

AFR 1 did not rate his assignment as a total success because he did not contribute to the development of his local counterparts. It must be noted here that AFR 1's personal objective of 'local capacity building' is usually highlighted by his INGO as one of the key success factors in its programme design and implementation. During his assignment that ended shortly before this researcher interviewed him, AFR 2 felt that his knowledge and experience were not utilised fully by his field manager and the INGO headquarters. He was generally satisfied with his contributions even though in a previous assignment '*I think we did leave something that was tangible*' (5.18).

Similar to AFR 1, the priorities outlined for AFR 3 when she assumed her post in West Africa were different from what her 'mission instructions' indicated. Her disappointment was obvious when she explains to this researcher that

(5.19)

I was cheated because they knew already before I arrived that they wanted me to do admin but it was never mentioned until I was here. My expectations were very different from what I was facing once I was there in reality, checking it. I think that is unfair you know, they lure you down there and they hope that you lighten up to accept it. That is one thing, one thing is that I was anyway cheated into it (41-50 year old Programme Coordinator)

On the performance of her INGO, AFR 3 suggests that the organisation focus on few areas and achieve good results instead of putting corporate reputation at risk by doing too many things and not doing most of them well.

As Programme Officer, AFR 4 provides technical advisory support to Project Managers. Asked by this researcher to describe how he feels about his work, AFR 4 describes his work as hard, his workload heavy and the whole job interesting.

AFR 5's views about his work are similar to those expressed by AFR 4. He had the tools and resources that he needed to do his job, and he '*had a very good feeling*' about the assignment.

The experience gained in previous assignments and the feeling that she was contributing to the development of local capacity contributed to AFR 6's positive feelings about her job. In her words

(5.20)

I am enjoying it very much I have to say. It is similar to the work that I have done in other parts of the world. For me, I always enjoy meeting new people, experiencing new cultures and adapting practices and procedures to the reality of a different country. Also, I like the fact that I feel I am enabling people to build up their own organisation. (31-40 year old Organisational Development expert).

By operating in different cultural environments AFR 6 has

(5.21)

learnt a lot about people and how organisations function and I think it has made me into a very different kind of a person than the person I was before I started working. (31-40 year old Organisational Development expert).

AFR 8 also appreciates the opportunity that his job provides to learn about other cultures and considers it a privilege to

(5.22)

travel around, to get in contact with different cultures. I am not only talking about living in Kenya for example. Living in Kenya and having the experience and having the culture which is great and rich but also having the experience of working with people from Sudan in the delegation and working with all the people from Europe (31-40-year-old Regional Logistics Manager).

AFR 8's satisfaction with personal benefits provided by his employers does not extend to his views on organisational performance. He believes that his organisation limits its ability to compete with others by not optimising the comparative advantages it has by virtue of its global membership

network. He sees a bleak future should his INGO maintain its approach to mission execution because as he puts it

(5.23)

I don't really have solution to what we should do but I think the direction we are going is the wrong direction. So ... [INGO's name] is losing out (31-40-year-old Regional Logistics Manager).

AFR 18 had to contend with lack of clarity as to what his priorities were at the start of his assignment and he feels that frequent change in his work objectives affected his performance adversely. He was also critical of the new organisational structures and systems that his organisation's headquarters introduced to improve programme delivery. In his view, the structures and systems reduced performance levels instead of improving results.

Commitment to INGOs

Part of the debate about INGOs being values-based is the view that most employees remain in their organisations because of their commitment to their organisations (Brown & Moore, 2001; Brown et. al., 2004). The more employees value and believe in the missions of their INGOs the more likely that they will be willing to contribute to the realisation of corporate mission (Wright & Pandey, 2007).

UK 1 was only one year old in his INGO at the time this researcher interviewed him although he had been working in the INGO sector for a period of between 6-10 years. His commitment to his INGO's mission flows from the satisfaction he derives from participating in projects that improve living standards in rural communities or address needs of vulnerable people. Working for an INGO with whom he shares the same faith was a factor that UK 1 considered before joining his current organisation. Since joining his new INGO, the extent to which he enjoys his job shows in his remark that '*this work is more like a calling*' (5.24).

The collaborative approach and the absence of unhealthy competition among employees is the reason why UK 2 enjoys working for her INGO and not a private sector organisation. She seems to acknowledge that the price she pays for good work environment that the INGO provides is to accept less pay than she would have earned working in the business sector. It is however interesting that she cites '*money*' as the reason why she may leave her INGO. UK 2 does not have '*enough money. I am struggling in London. I have a baby, I have a flat and I just about survive. So my main pressure is money*' (5.25).

UK 9 likes NGO work and sees himself doing another type of NGO-related work when he leaves his current INGO. He sees leaving his current INGO in the future as a career development move that would provide him the opportunity for continued involvement in lobbying, advocacy and capacity building. He looks forward to '*working directly with Africans on African issues, what I do currently is indirectly working on development and African issues but not with Africans*' (5.26).

UK 10 '*loves*' her job and nurses the ambition of becoming a manager in her INGO. She accepts the reality that opportunities for promotion are limited. She faces the challenge of '*doing something*' about the frustrating aspects of her current job for according to her '*if I stay here [current job level] for several years I won't be able to think anymore. That's the way it is. It will probably start to irritate me*' (5.27). From UK 10's explanation, it could be inferred that she believes that operating at managerial level in future would enable her to put her talents to work thereby overcoming the frustrations in her current job. UK 10 is also not convinced that her INGO's current structure '*fits with me*'. With less than five years experience in the INGO sector, it is possible that UK 10 has not sufficiently internalised her INGO's values to be able to regard her job as '*a calling*' as UK 1 does. Furthermore, overcoming some of the challenges associated with joining a high profile INGO may explain her reluctance to commit to a long-term career in the sector. She enjoys how her organisation uses research to drive

its advocacy activities. She humorously tells this researcher that she finds reporting 'a bit difficult' because of '*not writing in my own language. In my previous job, I was also a Researcher, but I worked in Dutch, that's much easier (5.28).*

UK 11 enjoys her work and she will '*definitely*' continue her career in the INGO sector. She sees relocation to another country as the main reason why she could leave her current INGO. UK 14 is fully committed to the mission of her INGO and believes

(5.29)

I left my heart in Africa, definitely wanted to work with a UK based organisation that would be supporting local communities to take action on something and having lived in South Africa with HIV/ AIDs being so prevalent, people were dying on a weekly basis. I just really wanted to do something to contribute to, the response. So, it's what led me to really want to work in the NGO sector and on HIV/AIDS in particular. (31-40-year-old Planning Officer).

As a European who once stayed in South Africa, UK 14's commitment to being part of the response to spread of HIV and Aids in Africa is very strong. She joined an INGO that leads efforts to prevent spread of AIDS and caters for people who become vulnerable as a result of contracting HIV and AIDS. When this researcher asked why she might leave her INGO, UK 14 jokingly underlined her long-term commitment to the fight against HIV and AIDS, with the reply that '*I have just bought a house in ... so I am not hoping to leave too quickly*' (5.30).

UK 15 enjoys her job and will only consider leaving the INGO if she has serious '*personal difficulties*' or she feels she is no longer developing professionally.

UK 16 is committed to working in the area of international development and her satisfaction according to her lies in making tangible improvement to lives and societies. She is keen on continuing her career in the INGO sector and confides in this researcher that she could leave her current organisation if she does not get the '*right*' opportunities within two years.

AFR 6 finds the opportunity to work with people from different cultural backgrounds rewarding and looks forward to a long career in the INGO sector because as she explains '*if I have stuck with it [INGO work] for so long it means I must have specific needs that are being met*' (5.31).

AFR 8 set out to work internationally for '*one year and come back richer*' but working for the same organisation for about a decade has become '*a little bit addictive*' especially the opportunity to learn about other cultures. AFR 8 is still committed to his INGO even though he is clearly dissatisfied with its performance. On the question of why he might leave his organisation or the INGO sector, he spoke on behalf of himself and his spouse who works for the same INGO by noting that

(5.32)

It crosses our minds that maybe we should look at something else or should we stay. That would be a reason [dissatisfaction with INGO's performance]. I don't think it's better somewhere else. (31-40-year-old Regional Logistics Manager)

5.5.3. Forms of Job Satisfaction and Job Dissatisfaction (Appendix D2)

i. Constructive Work Dissatisfaction (thesis-antithesis) - Progressive Work Satisfaction (synergy)

The interview participants (UK1; UK 14) in this category consciously find solutions to the dissatisfying aspects of their jobs. In doing so they are motivated to increase their level of satisfaction with their jobs and the ways that their organisations pursue their missions.

UK 1 accepts that programme personnel have to travel to project locations frequently. He was 'constructively' dissatisfied with his job as unplanned trips took him away from his family at very short notice. By joining a new organisation that gives him more control

over the planning of his official trips, he becomes 'progressively' satisfied with his job that he now describes as a '*calling*'. In UK 1's case being able to resolve a personal problem strengthens his commitment to his INGO

UK 14 was motivated to join her INGO because she wanted to contribute to the solving of health and social problems faced by HIV/Aids victims in Africa. That motivation and taking steps to contribute to the solving of problems faced by the victims makes her 'constructively' dissatisfied. She becomes 'progressively' satisfied as she enjoys her job that gives her the opportunity to acquire new skills despite not being able to conduct her relations with field based colleagues on a '*face-to-face*' basis. She also looks forward to a long career in the INGO sector (5.6; 5.29).

ii. Resigned Work Satisfaction (thesis – antithesis) - Pseudo Work Satisfaction (synergy)

The research participant in this category adapts to the dissatisfying aspect of work that affects her commitment to corporate mission by focusing on personal factors.

UK 2 joined a Human Rights and Peace INGO because of her interest in human rights issues. She manifests 'resigned' satisfaction because she acknowledges that '*financial pressure*' has forced her organisation to declare a number of her colleagues redundant in order for the INGO to survive. She enjoys her job and she is satisfied with how her organisation is managed. She is 'pseudo' satisfied with her INGO's mission because she prefers the NGO work environment to that in business organisations although she indicates that she may consider leaving her organisation to join another INGO that pays higher salary (5.11; 5.25).

iii. Progressive Work Satisfaction (thesis – antithesis) - Progressive Work Satisfaction (synergy)

The interview participants (UK 9; UK11; UK16) in this category are satisfied with their jobs and the ways their INGOs approach mission execution. They are fully committed to their organisations' missions and they are therefore motivated to improve their organisation's performance or address frustrating aspects of their work.

UK 9 started a career in the INGO sector because he wanted to '*make a difference*'. He is 'progressively' satisfied with his job and the pursuit of corporate mission for he perceives his organisation as fair in its dealings with employees. He would like to continue his career in the INGO sector even if he leaves his current organisation for career development reasons (5.8; 5.26).

UK 11 joined her INGO because its values are based on her religious faith. She is satisfied with the INGO's policy of working with other organisations and learning from them in the true spirit of partnership. She is 'progressively' satisfied with her work and looks forward to continuing her career in NGO sector even if she relocates from the UK.

iv. Pseudo Work Satisfaction (thesis – antithesis) - Pseudo Work Satisfaction (synergy)

Research participants (UK 10; UK 17) in this category are actually dissatisfied because they find certain aspects of their work and their organisations' pursuit of corporate missions frustrating. They identify and articulate sources of their frustrations but deemphasise the adverse effects that those factors have on their job satisfaction.

UK 10 likes her job but she finds report writing challenging because English is not her first language. She is not sure whether she would have a long career in the INGO

sector although she enjoys contributing to the research that informs her INGO's activities in the area of advocacy (5.7; 5.27 – 5.28).

UK 17 enjoys the opportunity that her job provides to interact with people from other cultures. She decides to remain with her INGO because it is the only one around where she lives (5.2).

v. Pseudo Work Satisfaction (thesis – antithesis) - Constructive Work Dissatisfaction (synergy)

The research participant in this category is dissatisfied with different aspects of his work but he is sufficiently motivated to address sources of his frustrations by either solving problems or suggesting solutions to problems.

The 'pseudo' satisfaction element relates to UK 12's argument that his INGO's approach to HR Management is not strategic enough to enable the organisation to respond effectively to changes in its operating environment. He is 'constructively' dissatisfied for he supports his organisation's efforts to meet stakeholder requirements by relocating programme related roles to field locations and identifies the need for his INGO to seek new sources of funds to implement its programmes (5.13 – 5.14; 5.50 – 5.52).

vi. Pseudo Work Satisfaction (thesis – antithesis) - Progressive Work Satisfaction (synergy)

Research participants (UK 13; UK 15; AFR 5) in this category progress from seeing the problems in certain aspects of their work as unsolvable; pseudo satisfaction, to addressing those problems to improve their level of satisfaction; progressive satisfaction.

UK 15 joined the INGO sector to '*make a difference*' and she enjoys the '*informal work environment*' in NGOs. She manifests 'pseudo' satisfaction by feeling that in her former INGO she was not satisfied with her contributions to the improvement of living standards of programme

beneficiaries. She becomes 'progressively' satisfied because joining a new INGO has given her the opportunity to take on more challenging and fulfilling tasks. She is committed to a long-term career in the INGO sector and would only leave her current organisation if she has '*serious*' personal problems or feels her career is not progressing well enough (5.15).

AFR 5 joined his INGO because he identified with the INGO's principles. He manifests 'pseudo' satisfaction by expressing frustration with the delay in confirming the terms of his assignment in writing. He became 'progressively' satisfied with his work and the overall programme implementation for he '*had a very good feeling about*' the programme as soon as the initial administrative issues were resolved.

vii. Fixated Work Dissatisfaction (thesis-antithesis) - Resigned Work Satisfaction (synergy)

Research participants (AFR 1; AFR 3) in this category do not seek solutions to the problems arising from the negative aspects of their work. Instead they adapt to the frustrating aspects of their work by lowering their expectations.

AFR 1 was unable to contribute to the development of local capacity during his assignment. He experienced 'fixated' dissatisfaction for he was directed by his INGO's headquarters to devote full attention to the reconciliation of outstanding accounts. AFR 1 did not see his assignment as a total success. He manifested 'resigned' satisfaction because he had to forego his personal objective of contributing to local capacity development (5.17).

AFR 3 felt '*cheated*' and manifested 'fixated' dissatisfaction for the tasks she performed during her assignment were different from those stipulated in her 'mission instructions'. She experienced 'resigned' satisfaction, as she had to accept the administrative duties attached to her programme coordinator role. She also did not function as the deputy head of her team as promised when she was offered the job (5.19).

viii. Fixated Work Dissatisfaction (thesis-antithesis) - Pseudo Work Satisfaction (synergy)

The research participant in this category is dissatisfied with work and is unable to solve the problems arising from the frustrating aspects of his work. However, he cherishes the opportunity he has to learn about other cultures.

AFR 8 manifested 'fixated' dissatisfaction with respect to his INGO's approach to the pursuit of corporate mission. He is frustrated that his INGO fails to take full advantage of its global membership network to enhance its competitiveness. He remains committed to his organisation and manifests 'pseudo' satisfaction, as he believes that he may have similar experience if he decides to join another INGO (5.23;5.32).

5.5.4. Quantitative Analysis

Table 5.11 shows the relationship between overall job satisfaction and (dependent variable) and the type of INGOs that survey respondents work for (independent variable). The results establish that there is no association (2 Sided Fisher's Exact Test, $p=.355$) between survey respondents' overall satisfaction and the type of INGOs that they work for.

Table 5.12 below shows that across the different types of INGOs most of the survey respondents reported overall job satisfaction. About ninety-four percent (94.2%) of survey respondents from Development Assistance Associations, ninety-seven percent (97.3%) from Disaster and Relief Organisations and eighty- three percent (83.3%) of survey respondents from Human Rights and Peace INGOs reported overall job satisfaction.

Table 5.11 Relationship between Overall Job Satisfaction and INGO Type

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)	Point Probability
Pearson Chi-Square	2.087(a)	2	.352	.355		
Likelihood Ratio	1.710	2	.425	.355		
Fisher's Exact Test	2.416			.355		
Linear-by-Linear Association	.038(b)	1	.845	1.000	.520	.238
N of Valid Cases	148					

(Source: Generated by SPSS for this research)

Table 5.12 Cross Tabulation of Overall Job Satisfaction and INGO Type

Overall Satisfaction	Counts	Dev. Asst. Asso.	Disaster & Relief	Human Rights & Peace	Total
Dissatisfied	Count	6	1	1	8
	% within INGO Type	5.8%	2.6%	16.7%	5.4%
Satisfied	Count	98	37	5	140
	% within INGO Type	94.2%	97.4%	83.3%	94.6%
Total	Count	104	38	6	148
	% within INGO Type	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

(Source: Generated by SPSS for this research)

5.5.5. Summary of Findings

Analysis of interview data indicates that most of INGO employees that took part in this research are satisfied with their jobs and how their organisations approach the execution of their missions. Analysis of in-depth interviews also revealed that most of the research participants joined their organisations because they associate with corporate missions of those INGOs.

It must be noted that in some cases the various reasons why people join INGOs are similar to the general reasons that people in other sectors give for joining their organisations. Some INGO employees started a career in the the sector by chance, and others joined INGOs based on corporate reputation, corporate commitment to social responsibility, conditions of service on offer and career aspirations. Whilst some of the interview participants expressed dissatisfaction with some aspects of their jobs and how their organisations execute corporate missions they remain committed to their organisations.

Analysis of survey data also indicated that majority of the survey respondents were satisfied with their jobs and how their INGOs approached execution of corporate missions. However, the results indicated as well that participants' overall job satisfaction did not depend on the types of INGOs that they work for.

5.6.1. What are effects of working according to corporate principles and values on job satisfaction of INGO employees?

As explained in Chapters 1, this research question focuses on how the challenges that INGO employees face in applying corporate principles and values influence the nature of their satisfaction with their jobs. The dialectical tensions that are relevant to this question are stated below.

THESIS

INGO employees are expected to conform to corporate principles and values in performing their duties.

ANTITHESIS

Employees' practical experiences contradict the principles and values enunciated by their INGOs.

SYNERGY

Employees are satisfied with management support to enhance application of INGO principles and values

5.6.2. Thematic Analysis of In-depth interviews

The themes that are examined under this research question are importance and relevance of INGO principles and values, practical application of principles and values and improving ethical context for the application of principles and values.

Importance and Relevance of INGO principles and Values

As members of the larger family of non-profit organizations INGOs have risen to position of prominence and influence in global affairs (Cavill & Sohail, 2007). One of the reasons why INGOs are credible is that they base their activities on well-articulated principles and values (Fenton & Inglis, 2007). Apart from the principles and values enunciated by INGOs themselves, INGOs enter into agreements to follow codes of behaviour and meet stipulated standards in carrying out their activities (CIVICUS, 2005). INGOs expect employees to conform to the principles and values enunciated or adopted by them in performing their duties.

UK 1 demonstrates good understanding of his INGO's principles, traces their origin and explains how they guide the organisation's activities. He explains that '*Tear Fund and World Vision started what is now called Christian Development, which means putting Christ at the centre of international development* (5.33)

He compares his present INGO to the previous ones to buttress his argument that

(5.34)

a lot of development work from the west fails because they don't understand the role of religion in development. If I take the case of HIV Aids, for example, we have seen that religion plays a big role in people's understanding of it. Having worked in a non-faith based organisation, some of the things we did, we did not understand the soul of the people while trying to meet their needs. They have got a soul and their needs being met or not is based on their belief system. I never knew that development could be done based on faith. Now I know why ... [His INGO] is as keen on their Christian approach and as a committed Christian that was very, very important for me. (UK 1, 31-40 year old Desk Officer)

From UK 1's narrative above, it is evident that sharing the same faith with his organisation has created in him a strong sense of identity with the INGO's principles and values. He considers the principles and values '*very important*' and relevant to his organisation's programme delivery. UK 11 like UK 1 was attracted to her INGO because of the Christian values that underpin the delivery of its programmes.

In order to explain the importance her INGO attaches to its values, UK 2 looks inwards. As far as promoting the development of women is concerned she believes that her organisation '*practices what it preaches*' by making necessary provisions to enable smooth return of women to work at the end of maternity leave.

UK 13's views agrees with UK 2's position that a good way of establishing the importance that an INGO attaches to its values is to examine its internal policies. UK 2 believes as well that it should be considered whether the INGO gives '*voice*' to partners and beneficiaries in designing and implementing its programmes.

UK 9 believes that his Human Rights and Peace INGO adheres to its values in serving beneficiaries. According to him, his organisation's success depends on the extent to which it uses various programmes to tackle poverty and fight injustice. However, he notes that corporate values are more relevant to the activities of employees who are directly involved in advocacy or interact directly with partner-organisations.

According to UK 14, her organisation's values revolve round empowering communities and individuals to face challenges posed by the spread of HIV and Aids. She describes her organisation's strategy as that of mobilising

(5.35)

Communities to work in partnership with health services, local government and other organisations, to provide prevention support for the sick, work with orphans and vulnerable children. ... Very participatory, draw people in and making sure the individual knows that he has an important role and responsibility towards himself, toward family, and the wider community.
(20 – 30 year old Programme Officer)

UK 16 is from the same INGO as UK 13 and shares her understanding of their organisation's commitment to developing and building strong partnerships as basis for taking effective action to address HIV and Aids related problems.

As observed earlier good understanding of an INGO's principles and values is a pre-condition for effective application of those principles and values. AFR 1 rates the dissemination and reinforcement of his INGO's principles and values poorly for he does not

(5.36)

know if they are well disseminated in the field. It's only the national societies [INGO members], that at times disseminate this information to volunteers, otherwise, there is not much dissemination between the [INGO headquarters] and the field personnel. When you go to the field, you just focus on what you have in hand and what you are going to do. (41-50-year-old Finance Specialist)

It seems AFR1's assessment of his organisation's efforts in the dissemination and reinforcement of its principles and values is influenced by his perception that they have little bearing on his effectiveness as a Finance professional. In AFR 1's INGO all professionals have to attend a mandatory 'Basic Training Course' in order for them to understand its principles and values. The organisation regularly updates and distributes literature and other training tools on its principles and values to headquarters and field based employees.

AFR 2 describes his organisation's principles and values as '*really good*' but questions their relevance because in his opinion the historical context that informed the principles is completely different from the realities of the environment in which the organisation now operates. He argues that majority of the current members of his INGO did not participate in the formulation of the principles and values that according to him reflect

(5.37)

Western world thinking of what used to be called [INGO's name]... now, time has also come for them [INGO members] to say, can we review the principles which doesn't seem to be coming up... (51-60 year old Development professional)

For AFR 3, the principles and values are relevant and important although she states that her INGO makes them more complicated than normal. AFR 3 argues that the benefits of the

principles and values lie in applying them practically and not in *'talking about them'*. The point about paying attention to practical application of the principles is valid. The emphasis on practical application of the principles and values by AFR 3 may be due to what she perceives as ineffective promotion of the principles and values by her INGO whose *'national societies [INGO members] and expatriates are breaching those [principles and values] all the time in various degrees'* (5.38).

Breach of corporate principles also concerns AFR 6 although she believes in her organisation's principles and values. In her view

(5.39)

the fundamental principles are key to our work. My concern has always been that people claim to know and understand the fundamental principles but quite often people don't. They express their commitment to them but in reality in their work they don't apply them particularly when it comes to working with their own staff. (31-40 year old Organisational Development professional)

AFR 4 lists his INGO's core values as respect, integrity, commitment, excellence and diversity. He believes that the values are important and that they inform programme implementation and employee performance evaluation.

AFR 5 feels that his organisation's principles are important but recommends that they should be implemented *'properly'* to enhance their contributions to organisational effectiveness. He faults his INGO's dissemination machinery and argues that high staff turnover drains institutional memory thereby leaving field based personnel with little or no support when handling ethically challenging situations.

AFR 8 describes his organisation's principles and values as *'good'* However, he joins AFR 2 in calling for a review of their organisation's principles and values because in his opinion they are *'a lit bit outdated'*.

Practical Application of INGO principles and Values

Practical application of principles and values is the best means of testing how realistic they are (Fenton & Inglis, 2007) regardless of how well crafted or widely disseminated they are.

UK 1's organisation puts premium on building relationships with partners and programme beneficiaries as means of accomplishing its mission. In tackling poverty, the INGO does not subscribe to the popular view that in international development donors should 'dictate the tune'. He cited the example of a situation where his organisation's campaign succeeded because it understood

(5.40)

why people don't believe in the use of condoms, why people will not use their drug until it has been prayed on by the Pastor. These are serious issues this is why ... [name of INGO] is more interested in relationships, understanding people in its totality. We know the role that religion plays, especially in Africa and even in Asia. So ... [name of INGO] lays a lot of emphasis on people, praying with them, understanding their environment and asking them what they need. That is one of the core values. (UK 1, 31-40 year old Desk Officer)

Being a faith-based INGO places some limitations on the programmes that UK 1's organisation can deliver. The INGO may also not have access to funds available from institutional donors that may not wish to be associated with a particular religious faith. The INGO in question is able to design and implement programmes that conform to its Christian faith because

(5.41)

it gets 70% of its funding from the local churches in the UK. It is in a unique position because its core money does not come either from the government and external donors. It comes from what we call supporters who are church-based. It gets money from DIFD [Department for International Development], it gets money from USAID and gets money from what we call institutional donors but its major funds come from Christians with no strings attached. So when others are bending the rules and selling their souls, we are covered from that... (UK 1, 31-40 year old Desk Officer)

Apart from overcoming problems relating to access to funds, UK 1 highlights the benefit of autonomy that an INGO enjoys when it generates larger part of its funds from donors that are firmly committed to its principles and values. In the case of UK 1's organisation there is no risk of compromising or not applying its principles and values in programme delivery since 70% of its revenues comes from local churches.

UK 14 is impressed with her organisation's commitment to non-discrimination in its HIV and Aids programmes that involve working with sections of society that are often stigmatised or overlooked in programme design and implementation. Unlike UK 14, AFR 2 sees evidence of discrimination in his INGO's HRM practices although its fundamental principles include impartiality and universalism. Focusing on the preferential treatment enjoyed by expatriates sponsored by the richer members of his INGO AFR 2 states that

(5.42)

Discrimination does exist because the ones [expatriates] who are coming from Denmark, they say we are the ones who are funding you and the ones who are coming from the local national society whether it is in Zimbabwe, Namibia, Malawi and what have you don't have anything to contribute in monetary terms. Their human resource skills are not easily recognised to say this is what they can do. They may have the skills but as the money is not there for them it doesn't actually work. So, the principles are good but they need to be more in the practical... (51-60 year old Development professional).

AFR 5 works for the same INGO as AFR 2. He also challenges the recruitment practices adopted by members of his INGO at national and local levels that violate the INGOs' non-discrimination principles. Another example of contradiction between principle and practice is the recognition that AFR 8's INGO granted to two bodies in his country of origin. By recognising two members from the same country, the INGO violated its principle of recognising only member from any one country. In underlining his INGO's hypocrisy AFR 8 states that

(5.43)

Diversity, fine, great no difference in religion, in race whatever. I think that is wonderful but if you go like that there should one national society per country and all that...if you see my own national society we have two... (AFR 8, 31-40 year old Regional Logistics Manager)

AFR 8 also gave example of a situation where an individual approached him for humanitarian assistance and he could not decide whether to render the assistance under his organisation's principle of humanity. The individual that required assistance was fleeing his home country where his father's government had been toppled. AFR 8 was in

(5.44)

a dilemma [because] ... [name of politician] and his family and his entourage were looting the country supported by foreign governments for many years. They did not have the clothes to change the clothes that the son of ... [name of politician] was wearing on that particular day. So, should we go on and help him, give him another clothing and all that or should we just say I am sorry my friend you were looting the country, you were stealing from everyone and you have palaces and castles and houses and villas all over the place. Linked to the principles should we or should we not? So that was the dilemma. I am not going to say what I did. (31-40-year-old Regional Logistics Manager)

As he indicated in the interview extract above, AFR 8 was not willing to share with this researcher how he handled the request for assistance by the fleeing son of the politician accused of corruption.

UK 2 looks inward for an example of how her organisation acts in line with its commitment to policies and practices that support development of women. According to UK 2, her organisation provided necessary support to smoothen her return to work at the end of maternity leave. Her INGO's gesture in UK 2's view is consistent with its reputation as

(5.45)

pioneers in the human resources side of things on how we treat women in the workplace. We do have an important place because we are the only international development women's right charity in the UK so we are unique both here and overseas. (31-40 year old, Human Rights Official)

UK 9 has no problems in applying his organisation's core values in doing his day to day work for all employees are required to assess their activities against corporate values. AFR4 commends his organisation for putting into practice its core values of respect, integrity, commitment and excellence. He notes workforce diversity as an area where the INGO needs to continue to improve its performance although he acknowledges that staffing of management vacancies in his location had improved starting with the appointment of more women.

AFR 6's reports that her experience has been good with respect to the adherence to corporate principles by her organisation and colleagues. She is however concerned that the application of her organisation's principle of voluntarism is stretching into the realm of exploitation. According to AFR 6

(5.46)

I have a concern that we as an organisation because of financial cut-backs are tending to involve more and more volunteers in our work and actually asking them to do things that we would normally as a staff member to do. I am concerned that there is an issue around exploitation. There is a fine line between giving people experience and exploiting them. That is the one [principle] that I have had the most problems with. (31-40 year old, Organisational Development Expert)

In the process working with members of her INGO, AFR 6 also claims to have come across

(5.47)

some terrible violations of the principle of impartiality and neutrality. I have not actually directly experienced it myself but the consequences of it, yes. (31-40 year old, Organisational Development Expert)

AFR 6 was not willing to provide examples or substantiate her claims regarding violation of some of her organisation's principles because she felt it was inappropriate to reveal the identities of the individuals involved. AFR 18 had reason to question the integrity of an INGO member whose management team could not account for substantial sums of money earmarked for programme delivery.

Ethical Context for the application of principles and values.

As employees identify contradictions and experience tensions in working according to enunciated principles and values, they rely on management support to resolve those contradictions (Thoms, 2008; Baker et al., 2006). Whilst the role of managers in helping to create an ethically conducive environment is important, employees delivering front-line services often have to choose between confronting and shying away from ethically challenging issues.

In order to survive in a highly competitive environment, INGOs adopt various strategies to generate funds and meet the performance expectations of various stakeholders (Beck et al., 2007). Certain measures adopted to ensure corporate competitiveness may threaten to violate or indeed violate INGO corporate principles (Heap, 2000; Ossewaarde et al., 2008).

UK 1 explains that the fund-raising tactics deployed by his former INGO were the reason why he left the organisation. He regrets that

(5.48)

we had to do one or two things that in hindsight weren't the best. We did it to get money - we went as far as using pictures that you would consider to be degrading to the soul of the beneficiaries. It was a shock for me to see some of the tactics used to raise money. I did a lot of soul searching. I am also a photographer and I believe in taking picture that will show the dignity of the human being and not the other way round. I saw that one of our tactics was to use very, very degrading pictures and the more degrading the pictures...
(31-40-year-old Desk Officer)

UK 1's current organisation does not need to resort to the fund-raising tactics deployed by his former INGO because it is able to access funds from various sources.

For UK 9, his organisation encourages employees to refrain from activities that contradict its principles. UK 13 similarly feels that the transparency demonstrated by her INGO in the application of principles and values makes her more committed to the principles.

UK 14 believes the requirement for employees in her organisation to work with various stakeholders in INGO, public and private sector organisations has proved very challenging for some of her colleagues. The solution according to her lies in '*being true to our values*'.

AFR 5 recommends that his INGO provide more support to field based personnel to enable them to apply corporate principles and values effectively and consistently. Having called for a fundamental review of his INGO's principles and values that he considers outdated, it is not surprising that AFR 8 advocates pragmatism in the application of the principles and values. In his view

(5.49)

The principles are there and I think the principles are very good guidelines. But should we live religiously according to the principles? I think that's impossible, that's impossible...I think that if we live too much according to the principles, do our work too much literally taking what the principles are saying, we would not survive in this environment any more...the environment is changing and becoming more and more a business minded thing. There is competition. Now in this competing mode are the principles still valid? They are still applicable to a certain extent but we should not steer ourselves blind on the principles. . (AFR 8, 31-40 year old Regional Logistics Manager)

The pragmatism that AFR 8 suggests takes into consideration the highly competitive environment in which his INGO operates that according to him requires '*business mindedness*'... AFR 8 's position on the principles and values is consistent with justification for management and cultural changes introduced across the INGO sector as organisations respond to changes in the global arena where they have become influential players.

5.6.3. Forms of Job Satisfaction and Job Dissatisfaction (Appendix D3)

i. Constructive Work Dissatisfaction (thesis-antithesis) - Progressive Work Satisfaction (synergy)

Research participants (UK 1; UK 14; AFR 4) in this category consciously find and put forward solutions to the difficulties that they face in applying their organisations' principles and values. By pursuing solutions to eliminate or reduce the problems that they face they are motivated to increase their satisfaction in relation to putting their organisations' principles and values into practice.

UK 1 left his former organisation mainly because he was compelled to adopt fund-raising tactics that he considered unethical. For UK 1 joining his new employers who do not have to resort to the fund-raising tactics deployed by his former employers solved the problem of engaging in unethical practices. He experienced 'constructive' dissatisfaction by addressing the dissatisfying aspect of his job; unethical practices. The synergy for this dialectic is that UK 1's satisfaction with the application of corporate principles and values is 'progressive' because he is fully satisfied with the opportunity and support that he receives from his new employers with whom he shares the same religious faith to apply corporate principles and values (5.33 – 5.34; 5.40 – 5.41).

AFR 4 is satisfied that corporate principles and values drive the implementation of his organisation's programmes. He experiences 'constructive' dissatisfaction because he is not completely satisfied with his organisation's performance in putting into practice its commitment to diversity. As synergy, his satisfaction turns 'progressive' as he commends his INGO's efforts to appoint more women to senior management posts at his location as an indication of its commitment to diversity.

ii. Stabilised Work Satisfaction (thesis-antithesis) - Stabilised Work Satisfaction (synergy)

The research participant's (UK 9) job satisfaction with respect to the application of corporate principles and values is both 'stable' and 'sufficient'. The individual channels efforts to increase job satisfaction to other aspects of work or non-work related interests that he or she considers important.

UK 9 identifies with his organisation's principles and values and does not encounter problems in putting them to practice in carrying out his duties. He is also satisfied with the support that his INGO gives employees to avoid actions that contradict its principles and value.

iii. Stabilised Work Satisfaction (thesis-antithesis) - Progressive Work Satisfaction (synergy)

The research participant (UK 13) in this category is satisfied with the application of her organisation's principles and practices. Her appreciation of management efforts to improve the translation of corporate principles and values into action leads to a higher level of satisfaction.

UK 13's satisfaction with working according to her INGO's principles and values is 'stable' for she does not experience problems in adhering to them in doing her work. Efforts by her INGO to make the application of corporate principles more transparent and participatory enhance her commitment to the principles. In effect, the research participant's feeling that she is more engaged in fashioning how to improve application of principles and values raises her satisfaction level from 'stabilised' to 'progressive'.

iv. Pseudo Work Satisfaction (thesis – antithesis) - Pseudo Work Satisfaction (synergy)

Research participants (AFR 1; AFR 3) in this category are actually dissatisfied and frustrated with the application of their organisations' principles and values. They deemphasise negative impact that the application of corporate principles and values has on their job satisfaction.

AFR 1 rates the dissemination of his organisation's principles poorly and he does not see them as directly relevant or critical to effective performance in his role as finance specialist. He however acknowledges that those involved in emergency response operations need to understand and apply the principles and values **(5.36)**.

AFR 3 is dissatisfied with her INGO's approach that she believes complicates the application of principles and values. She believes her INGO pays too much attention to promoting principles and values instead of prioritising practical application.

v. Fixated Work Dissatisfaction (thesis-antithesis) - Resigned Work Satisfaction (synergy)

Research participants (AFR 2; AFR 18) in this category do not seek solutions to the problems arising from the application of their organisations' principles and values. Instead, they regard the contradictions between corporate actions and principles as normal.

AFR 2 believes his organisation's principles and values are '*good*' but he is dissatisfied with the contradiction between his INGO's declared commitment to non-discrimination and discriminatory recruitment practices by some of its members. He is unable to tackle the negative effects of discriminatory recruitment practices even if he so desires and therefore manifests 'fixated' dissatisfaction. He believes that the principles and values are no longer relevant to his INGO. He experiences 'resigned' form of satisfaction, as he is not convinced that

stakeholders that are affected by discriminatory recruitment practices will canvass the review of principles and values that he deems necessary (5.37; 5.42).

AFR 18 feels his organisation's principles are relevant but expresses dissatisfaction with the lack of integrity demonstrated by an INGO member in the handling of its finances. The magnitude of the integrity crisis and the fact that AFR 3 is not a position to address the problem produces 'fixated' dissatisfaction. As the technical adviser to the INGO member with the integrity problem, AFR 18 enjoys 'resigned' satisfaction because he no longer expects high standard of performance from the organisation concerned.

vi. Fixated Work Satisfaction (thesis-antithesis) - Constructive Work Dissatisfaction (synergy)

The research participant (AFR 8) in this category is dissatisfied with the application of principles and values in his organisation and goes ahead to proffer a solution that he believes will address his frustration.

AFR 8 agrees that principles and values are generally good and necessary. His satisfaction is of the 'fixated' type because he does not understand why his INGO continues to maintain principles and values that he believes are outdated. AFR 8 feels the principles and values in their current form weaken his INGO's capacity to compete in a challenging environment. His job satisfaction changes to 'constructive' with his observation that '*religious*' application of the principles was detrimental to the effectiveness of the INGO. He proposes that the principles and values be reviewed to reflect and support a 'business – like' approach to mission execution (5.49).

5.6.4. Quantitative Analysis

Table 5.13 below shows the relationship between overall job satisfaction (dependent variable) and satisfaction with application of principles and values (independent variable). The results indicate that survey respondents that are satisfied with the application of principles and values (2 Sided Fisher's Exact Test, $p < 0.001$) are more likely to report overall job satisfaction compared to those that are dissatisfied.

As shown in Table 5.14 below about ninety- eight percent (97.9%) of the survey respondents that were satisfied with their organisations' principles and values reported overall job satisfaction. Only about two percent of the survey respondents that were dissatisfied with their organisations' principles and values reported overall job satisfaction.

Table 5.13 Relationship between Overall Job Satisfaction and Principles & Values

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2- sided)	Exact Sig. (2- sided)	Exact Sig. (1- sided)	Point Probability
Pearson Chi-Square	53.916(b)	1	.000	.000	.000	
Continuity Correction(a)	42.758	1	.000			
Likelihood Ratio	22.665	1	.000	.000	.000	
Fisher's Exact Test				.000	.000	
Linear-by-Linear Association	53.552(c)	1	.000	.000	.000	.000
N of Valid Cases	148					

(Source: Generated by SPSS for this research)

Table 5.14: Cross Tabulation of Overall Job Satisfaction and Principles & Values

Overall Satisfaction	Counts	INGO Values		Total
		Dissatisfied	Satisfied	
Dissatisfied	Count	5	3	8
	% within Overall Job Satisfaction	62.5%	37.5%	100.0%
Satisfied	Count	3	137	140
	% within Overall Job Satisfaction	2.1%	97.9%	100.0%
Total	Count	8	140	148
	% within Overall Job Satisfaction	5.4%	94.6%	100.0%

(Source: Generated by SPSS for this research)

5.6.5. Summary of Findings

Analysis of interview data indicates that most of the INGO employees that participated in this research are satisfied with the application of principles and values in their organisations. There were a few cases where research participants expressed dissatisfaction with violation of corporate principles and values or contradictions between actions taken by their organisations and corporate principles. Most of the research participants believe that corporate principles and values are still relevant to the way their INGOs operate. They also indicated that their organisations provide necessary support to enable them to apply corporate principles and values in performing their duties.

Results of quantitative analysis also established that most of the survey respondents were satisfied with the application of principles and values in their organisations.

5.7.1. What effects do the working relations between INGO Headquarters and field offices have on the job satisfaction of employees?

As explained in Chapters 1, this research question focuses on the effects that the working relations between INGO headquarters and field offices have on job satisfaction of employees. The dialectical tensions that apply to this research question are stated below.

THESIS

INGO headquarters focus on Organisation Centred Activities (OCAs)

ANTITHESIS

INGO field locations focus on Programme Centred Activities (PCAs)

SYNERGY

INGO headquarters and field locations are united by a common mission and they collaborate despite the tensions that characterise their relations.

5.7.2. Thematic Analysis of In-depth interviews

The themes that are relevant to this research question are Communication and Collaboration, Programme Implementation Support, and Power Relations.

Communication - Collaboration

For INGOs that have their headquarters in the UK, communication and collaborating with field offices in Africa are vital if they are to achieve their corporate objectives. Ineffective communication between both locations and difference in their priorities will create tensions (Suzuki, 1998) that will influence their perceptions of their working relations.

In response to this researcher's question about his working relations with his colleagues in Africa, UK 1 uses his visit to Africa to illustrate his position.

(5.50)

For example, I went to our office in Sierra Leone just about two weeks ago. It took me an hour to open my email. So I understand why my officer in Sierra Leone could not send some files to me ... Some of the excuses are flimsy. There are issues with cultural attitudes to work but sometimes we have a lot of problems that make them unable to deliver. For example in our office in Ivory Coast I am trying to buying a generator for one of our officers so he can send reports to me. I am also giving him a laptop. So when I go to Africa I just have to put myself in their shoes and forget about timing to get work done (31-40-year-old Desk Officer).

UK 1 acknowledges that practical problems affect the achievement of work objectives but believes that '*flimsy excuses*' and '*cultural attitudes*' are also responsible for his counterparts in Africa not achieving the desired results. The support and resources he provides convey the determination on his part to mitigate the adverse effects of practical and cultural factors on the achievement of work objectives.

In terms of maintaining good relations with his field office counterparts, the fact that UK 1 puts himself in the position of field officers lessens his frustrations with their less than satisfactory performance. Despite the frustration that characterises their working relations UK 1 believes '*I have a very good relationship [with them] and I hope it continues*' (5.51).

UK 11's experience is similar to that narrated by UK 1 especially in terms of the difficulty involved in communicating with and getting reports from field offices. UK 11 (female, 31-40 years, Divisional Support Officer) is also familiar with communication problems faced by employees in field locations in Africa. However, she still finds it '*a bit stressful*' that needed information does not get to the headquarters quickly. She sees the issue as a challenge that calls for understanding by

headquarters based employees. As in the case with UK 1, the "stress" involved in maintaining contact with field locations does not have adverse effect on UK 11's perception of her working relations with the field offices that she describes as being 'ok'.

UK 14's (Female, 31-40 years, Planning Officer) perspective on the adverse effects of poor communication facilities on collaboration is similar to the experiences of UK 1, UK 2 and UK 11. She appreciates that field offices are understaffed and they often do not respond to emails or have access to the internet due to frequent power failure.

Similarly, UK 13 stresses the need to maintain good working relations whilst ensuring that field offices

(5.52)

Meet your needs and requirements here [Headquarters] taking into account their very heavy workload and not trying to be a burden in that ...so it's sort of creating that relationship (20-30 year old Programme Officer)

Communication enhances collaboration but it takes more than effective communication for INGO headquarters to work effectively with field locations or partner organisations. UK 2's Human Rights and Peace INGO enjoys good working relations with field offices and she attributes the "generally positive" relationship mainly to a 'values contract'. The contract according to her specifies and clarifies expectations of both parties. UK 2's description of the workings of the contract appears to cast doubt on the value added by the 'values contract' to the sustenance of meaningful collaboration with field offices. The contradiction in the policy or strategic approach adopted by the INGO becomes apparent in UK 2's statement that

(5.53)

We provide funding to women's organisations and then we work in partnership with them. ... It is all managed really from the London offices and it is all about working with women's organisations and providing funding to them to implement their work (31-40 year old Human Rights Officer).

For UK 13, maintaining good working relations with partner organisations requires finding the right balance between putting pressure on them to fulfil their obligations and recognising that they are under pressure due to their heavy workload. UK 13's success in building good working relations with a partner organisation was limited for her INGO was '*struggling*'. The partner organisation according to UK 13 complained during one of her field visits that "*the amount of communication emails we are getting from you [UK 3] is too much and we cannot handle it*". For UK 13 however, the complaint was

(5.54)

a direct criticism of something, that you know... we're trying to work towards this partnership relationship and give them technical support as well as financial support, and they haven't kind of got to the same point and understanding ...[as the INGO]. (20 – 30 year old Programme Officer)

UK 17 (female, 31 – 40 years) is responsible for Logistics in a Development INGO and her experience is slightly different from that narrated by UK 13. Lacking fluency in French is a major setback as far as developing good working relations with her INGO's field offices in French speaking West African countries is concerned. She also believes that it is difficult to maintain good working relations through telephone and email contacts. UK 17 prefers "*dealing face-to-face*". The understanding that partners work in "*challenging circumstances*" probably accounts for UK 17's conclusion that her INGO's working relations with the partners are "*relatively good*".

The perspective of INGO personnel in field locations on communication and collaboration with their organisations' headquarters in the UK is slightly different from the headquarters' perspective. Implied in the field perspective is the argument that INGO headquarters in the UK are to blame for ineffective communication that leads to poor collaboration between both locations.

According to AFR 2 (male, 51-60 years) who is a Disaster and Relief Official in a major humanitarian INGO, the fact that his letter did not clarify his terms of reference when his assignment was extended indicated how poor the flow of information was between his INGO's headquarters and the Regional Office in Africa.

On his part, AFR 5 (male, 20-30 years) who is a HIV/Aids Programmes Officer overcomes poor communication by proactively asking headquarters and regional office what was required of him. He was concerned that he got " *no response*" regarding his efforts to involve key regional stakeholders in programme development and implementation. He sees his inability to involve regional stakeholders as a failure on the part of headquarters and regional office to take full advantage of his INGO's global network. AFR 18's (male, 31-40 years, Logistician) concern was that his headquarters did not consult INGO members before determining priorities for them.

Programme Implementation Support

In the INGO sector headquarters chart strategic direction and provide support to field offices or partner organisations to enable the implementation of programmes designed to fulfil the organisation's mission.

INGO officials visit field locations to ensure programme implementation follows corporate guidelines and strategy. As part of the oversight referred to above, UK 13 visits field locations to review progress in programme implementation and assess effectiveness of technical support provided by her INGO. Such visits according to UK 13 afford her the opportunity to build "*trust*" and get the cooperation of field officers to meet their reporting and other obligations. Supporting field offices by providing or recommending programme personnel to them carries with it the risk of the field officers feeling undermined. Narrating her INGO's experience UK 14 indicates that

(5.55)

On, the technical side I mean we are talking about, you know that we are sending someone who will assist them with doing an assessment and developing a strategy for advocacy. Now, you know, they turn the tables on us. It is a good example in that they asked for the CV for this person. We offered and we employed a consultant, who developed something which was over ambitious and they rejected it and said “no, we can’t manage to do this”, so they went and found somebody else... (31-40 years old Planning Officer)

Implied in UK 14’s explanation above is her INGO’s headquarters had the right to deploy technical personnel to a partner organisation. On the other hand, UK 14 did not acknowledge whether the field office had the right or made the right decision by rejecting the proposal that she admitted was “*over ambitious*”. Instead, UK 14 presents the situation as that of INGO – partner organisation ‘power struggle’ in which the partner wanted to exercise its autonomy.

UK 15 is a Finance professional in a Development INGO and she appreciates the challenge that field offices face in meeting reporting and other requirements on which continued access to funds is based. Pressed by this researcher to give example of the nature of challenge faced by her INGO in getting partner organisations to fulfil agreed obligations, UK 15 talked about a database project

(5.56)

to capture all this information to send to donors so they carry on funding us but of course that puts a burden on small organisations. It is a lot of form filling and a lot of time . Of course, I think in those locations they look on that as a burden and almost as though you’ve got to do this and its seeing that bigger picture. So you have to have a sort of softly, softly approach around trying to implement things and say you’ve forgot to do this. That’s really has been my experience so far. (31-40 year old Finance professional)

UK 15 acknowledges that getting field offices and small partner organisations to use the database provided by her INGO might be burdensome. That understanding has implications for her feelings, reaction and satisfaction with working relations especially where the required information is not provided as and when it is required. The “*softly softly*” approach that UK 15 adopts to obtain

necessary information underlines her commitment to ensuring uninterrupted flow of funds from donors for programme implementation.

As receivers of support from their headquarters and implementers of programmes designed to achieve strategic objectives, how field based employees perceive the support they receive from headquarters will influence their perception of the working relations with their headquarters counterparts.

A Finance specialist (AFR 1) in a major humanitarian INGO is an example of field personnel with mixed feelings where the effectiveness of headquarters in supporting field personnel to achieve their assignment objectives is concerned. According to him,

(5.57)

I can say that I get a lot of help for instance, when I prepare my report, I just send them to the region as well as the headquarters so that they go through the report. They come back to me and tell me exactly where I have gone wrong and what remedial steps I should take. We sit down and say okay! We want some money in this budget line. Sometimes, you may find enough money but sometimes you may not get (41 – 50 year old Finance specialist)

In relation to the development of local counterparts, he was not impressed with his INGO's practice of deploying expatriate personnel who were less competent than their local counterparts to field locations. He describes the problem by asking rhetorically

(5.58)

How can you say that I have come today Ahmed [this researcher] to train you while you yourself are more knowledgeable than myself? What do you expect to be the reaction between the two, definitely, we will get a negative attitude (41 – 50 year old Finance professional).

In response to this researcher's question as to what he was doing to ensure that the situation improved, AFR 1 stated that

(5.59)

In the end since, you go there as a delegate [expatriate], you have what you can say ... the power of money ... whatever you say, the secretariat [headquarters] will just listen. They may not even listen but this is exactly where I think we've had some problems. (41 – 50 year old Finance specialist).

AFR 1 also draws on his personal experience to highlight the tension that characterises expatriate – local personnel relations in a situation where the locally hired personnel is perceived as more competent than his or her expatriate colleague. He makes the point also that he cannot influence a change in policy or practice regarding the deployment of highly competent expatriates to field locations.

Lack of clarity and focus leading to fragmented support for corporate strategy are issues about which AFR 3 has concerns. Referring to the reorganisation embarked upon by her INGO to improve programme delivery, she said that

(5.60)

what confused me was that you could feel there are different movements within the cafeteria. Take regionalisation for example, some people believed in it, some people didn't. They'd be sending conflicting messages down, should we do this or shouldn't we do this? Apparently here [her region], they didn't agree how it should be done and that affects us a lot, changing directions all the time (41- 50 year old, Programme Coordinator)

From AFR 3's statement above, employees in her organisation had to cope with the uncertainty that the frequent change of strategic direction brings. In terms of getting support from the headquarters, she makes an interesting but critical distinction between administrative and other forms of support. As far as technical support is concerned, AFR 3 states that *"I didn't have any contact with the technical department"* because according to her *"nobody could have helped us"* (5.61). She is appreciative of the administrative support provided by the Desk Officer at the headquarters when she says *'I have a very good support from the desk very good support of course...they're really nice towards us, no problems at all'*. AFR 3 sees coming under pressure from the Desk Officer to provide

information and prepare reports as part of a "cycle" in which the Desk Officer "pushes" field officers because the Desk Officer and managers at the headquarters had been 'pushed' (5.62). The understanding expressed by AFR 3 as to why the Desk Officer "pushes" her and colleagues in the field locations would seem to temper any feelings of frustration arising from her relations or interaction with the Desk Officer in particular and the headquarters in general . That however is not to discount the strong views she holds as far as the lack of strategic focus and its impact on employees are concerned.

Field based employees appreciate resource related problems faced by technical and other departments at the headquarters. Considering their commitment to timely and efficient programme delivery, some of them do not rely fully on the support that they may get from the headquarters in planning and delivering their programmes.

As does AFR 3, AFR 6 admits that she does not have "much contact" with the technical department ". According to her the technical department at the headquarters is "under-resourced" and therefore lacks the "capacity to respond to many things". She does not bother to contact the technical department because

(5.63)

there is also an issue with some technical departments. I am not saying it is specifically the case with my own, in that very often, we in the field are more familiar with the issues than the people in the technical department and the feedback is not always very constructive or useful. It is not actually a direct criticism but it is very often an issue (31-40-year-old Organisation Development Expert)

The view that headquarters' lack of familiarity with challenges faced in field locations leads AFR 6 to experience what she describes as

(5.64)

the growing distance I feel between headquarters and the field, and the pressure coming from the top to implement all these new procedures and guidelines - putting pressure on us to make national societies understand and apply things that are totally irrelevant. (31-40-year-old Organisation Development Expert)

She is critical of a situation where she and her field-based counterparts are required by the headquarters to drive the implementation of ‘*totally irrelevant*’ procedures and guidelines. It is interesting to observe that she does not see the negative impact that implementing ‘*totally irrelevant*’ procedures and guidelines might have on people and programme delivery as an immediate problem. However, she concedes that ‘*there is a risk that that [negative impact] might happen*’. She attributes the development of sophisticated procedures and guidelines that do not fully reflect the realities and peculiarities of the environments in which they are implemented to the pursuit of ‘professionalism’. According to her

(5.65)

the business approach that is now being applied maybe works at headquarters level but when you try to translate that down into other cultures quite a lot of them really are not applicable (31- 40-year-old Organisation Development Expert).

AFR 6 goes on to suggest that the headquarters should make the guidelines and procedures “*simple*” and “*understandable*”. Effective implementation of an INGO’s strategy depends on how clear it is, how well employees understand it and support its implementation. AFR 8 finds uncertainty surrounding his INGO’s the long-term strategy with respect to logistics ‘*stressing*’ noting that

(5.66)

the uncertainty ... we still don't really have clear guidelines on what's happening with Logistics. My predecessor was told ... we'd close the Logistics Unit. When I arrived having thought like actually we made a mistake we should build it up again. Now, we are going to Johannesburg. You start something, somebody has the policy and somebody has the vision and a year or two years later they see something else and they just want to drop everything one did. That makes it very stressful and very demanding because you go from zero you build it up and you have to go back to zero without any valid reason.
(31 – 40 year old Regional Logistics Manager)

What AFR 8 perceives as lack of response or support for his initiative to clarify his organisation's strategy for logistics leads him to conclude that the headquarters '*don't listen*'. It is therefore not surprising that he describes his relationship with logistics department at his organisation's headquarters as '*very stressful*'.

Power Relations

Earlier analysis of INGO employees' accounts of their work experiences highlighted the importance of effective communication, clear strategic focus and effective programme implementation support in ensuring effective collaboration between INGO headquarters and field locations (Suzuki, 1998). The exercise of authority or control by the headquarters and the need for autonomy by the field locations create tensions (Suzuki, 1998) that influence how the different parties perceive their working relations.

As noted earlier in the analysis of communication and collaboration between INGO Headquarters and field locations, UK 2 describes the relations with field office as a partnership. In the same breadth, she confirms that headquarters provides funds for programme implementation and manages all the programmes.

UK 13 described the engagement between her INGO headquarters and field location as that characterised by '*power relations*'. At an open meeting with a partner organisation a member of staff described UK 13's INGO as '*a valued collaborator*' whereas the Executive Director said that '*we were just a donor*'. UK 13's organisation being regarded as a donor by the Executive Director meant that the latter was consciously asserting her organisation's autonomy or expressing dissatisfaction with its working relations with UK 13's organisation. The difference between the views expressed by the Executive Director and a member of her staff on their organisation's relations with UK 13's INGO indicates how difference in perceptions of working relations could influence job satisfaction. In the situation described above, the employee in the 'partner' organisation is satisfied with the working relations whereas the Executive Director is not satisfied. UK 13 attempts to validate her assessment of the difficult working relations with the partner organisation by focusing on the Executive Director. She says

(5.67)

I mean I've talked to my programme manager and she said in the last eight years of working at the ... the director that we are currently working with in this [partner] organisation is one of the most difficult I've ever worked with... (20 – 30 year old Programme Officer)

Despite her views on the Executive Director, UK 13 believes that '*on the whole, there are relatively good relations. I try to understand the context in which they work ...the constraints within which they work...*' (5.68)

In the earlier analysis of INGO Strategic Focus and Programme Implementation, AFR 1 referred to his organisation's headquarters possession of '*power of money*' as a limiting factor with respect to pushing through a proposal that only competent expatriates should be seconded to field operations. INGO headquarters officials and their field counterparts are aware

of the impact that the former's control over financial resource could have on the perception of working relations between both parties. As UK 15 points out

(5.69)

I am aware that perceptions can be that sometimes we are big brother and we are imposing certain regulations which we don't want to be doing. We call ourselves the ... [name of INGO] family but obviously there are limitations to what we can do and we have to impose. We've got things imposed on us that we have to pass down. So that's a bit difficult and that can sometimes cause tension (31-40-year-old Finance Professional).

The awareness that her organisation is perceived as "*big brother*" by partner organisation partly explains the "*softly softly approach*" that UK 15 favours in dealing with partner organisation. Field based personnel become frustrated and tension mounts in their relations with headquarters when as AFR 5 states "*the funding that they [INGO Headquarters] promised has not been forthcoming*".

Furthermore, AFR 5 hints at his perception of his organisation's headquarters as arrogant on the issue of resource mobilisation when he accuses his organisation of giving its members the impression that "*we have all the money, so [members] sit back and there is nothing to mobilise resources locally*"(5.70). Over-dependence on the INGO headquarters for funds by national members depicted by AFR 5 could equally be said to be indicative of the advantage that the headquarters have over national members and field locations in the "*power-relations*" game.

5.7.3. Forms of Job Satisfaction and Job Dissatisfaction (Appendix D4)

i. Pseudo Work Satisfaction (thesis – antithesis) - Constructive Work Dissatisfaction (synergy)

Four (UK 1; UK 13; AFR 5; AFR 18) of the interview participants were classified as displaying 'pseudo' work satisfaction and 'constructive' work dissatisfaction. Research participants in this category are dissatisfied with different aspects of their work but they are sufficiently motivated to address sources of their frustrations by either solving problems or suggesting solutions to problems. In terms of job satisfaction outcome the dialectical synergy is that research participants in this category are 'constructively' dissatisfied with the working relations between headquarters and field locations or partner - organisations.

UK 1 expects to receive regular programme updates and reports from field-based officers. However due to poor communication facilities in field locations and what he considers to be '*flimsy excuses*' and '*cultural attitudes*' his colleagues do not send the reports and updates as and when required. He experiences "pseudo" work satisfaction because he is frustrated by the delays in receiving reports and programme updates. His determination to improve field performance leads him to initiate steps to provide power generator and laptop computer to one of the field offices in Africa. Taking steps to address the problem of poor communication facilities is a feature of 'constructive' work dissatisfaction that leads the employee to seek to alter a frustrating work situation (5.50).

AFR 18 is concerned that his INGO does not consult its members before deciding on self-evaluation as the top priority for them. He experiences 'pseudo' work satisfaction because his INGO's failure to consult members is tantamount to the INGO not practising what it preaches. He displays 'constructive' work dissatisfaction by suggesting solutions to the frustrating situation by highlighting cases where provision of ongoing support and consultation of stakeholders achieved positive results.

ii. Pseudo Work Satisfaction (thesis – antithesis) - Resigned Work Satisfaction (synergy)

Two (UK 11; UK 14) research participants that manifested elements of 'pseudo' and 'resigned' forms of work satisfaction are based in the UK headquarters of their organisations. Research participants in this category are satisfied with their working relations with field locations and partners because they consciously focus on positive aspects of those relations. They lower their expectations in relation to the frustrating aspects of the working relations and thereby experience 'resigned' work satisfaction; dialectical synergy.

UK 11 experiences 'pseudo' work satisfaction because she appreciates that poor communication facilities make it difficult for her field based colleagues to maintain contact with the headquarters. Her description of work relations with field -based personnel as 'ok' reflects resigned work satisfaction because she decides to tolerate communication problem based on the belief that the situation is unlikely to get better.

UK 14 experiences 'pseudo' satisfaction because she is frustrated when the partner organisation exercises its right to determine the suitability of programme personnel by actually rejecting the expert assigned to the headquarters. UK 14 manifests 'resigned' work satisfaction by accepting the rejection of the expert as a reality of the '*power struggle*' between both parties.

iii. Progressive Work Satisfaction (thesis – antithesis) - Progressive Work Satisfaction (synergy)

The only interview participant in this category is a UK based Human Rights Officer. 'Progressive' work satisfaction indicates that the individual is satisfied with working relations and that he or she is motivated to improve working relations with the other party.

UK 2 describes her INGO's working relations with partner organisation as '*generally positive*'. Her form of work satisfaction is 'progressive' because she believes the

relations could improve. The fact that UK 2's INGO manages its programmes for which the partner organisation should be responsible from its London headquarters enables her to put a positive spin on their working relations (5.53).

iv. Resigned Work Satisfaction (thesis – antithesis) - Pseudo Work Satisfaction (synergy)

The interview participant in this category adapts to negative aspects of the working relations by lowering her expectations and she is motivated to maintain good working relations with partner organisation as a means of performing her duties effectively.

UK 17 appreciates that her inability to speak French limits her ability to communicate effectively with and develop good working relations with employees in a partner organisation. She manifests 'resigned' work satisfaction by continuing to work on developing good working relations with the partner organisation regardless of the language barrier. As synergy, she is 'pseudo' satisfied with working relations because she conducts relations with employees in the partner organisation as if her inability to speak French is not a major barrier to good working relations with French speaking employees in the partner organisation.

v. Fixated Work Dissatisfaction (thesis-antithesis) - Resigned Work Satisfaction (synergy)

The two (AFR 2; AFR 3) interview participants classified in this category do not seek solutions to the problems arising from the negative aspects of their work and they adapt to those frustrating aspects of their work by lowering their expectations.

AFR 3 is a female 41-50-year-old Programme Coordinator in a Disaster and Relief INGO. She is dissatisfied with the frequent change in strategic direction and in particular the implementation of regionalisation strategy by the organisation. She experiences 'fixated' work

dissatisfaction because she does not bother to and cannot address the cause of her dissatisfaction. As synergy for this dialectic, she manifests 'resigned' work satisfaction because she accepts and adapts to the frequent change of strategic direction. She also goes along with the implementation of regionalisation strategy by her organisation even though the strategy did not receive as much support as she would have expected (5.60).

vi. Constructive Work Dissatisfaction (thesis-antithesis) - Progressive Work Satisfaction (synergy)

The interview participant in this category is committed to addressing the aspects of the working relations with partner organisation that she is dissatisfied with in order to improve those relations.

UK 15 is 'constructively' dissatisfied with the performance of partner organisations but appreciates that small organisations and field offices could find her INGO's reporting requirements burdensome. The 'progressive' work satisfaction that is the synergy for this dialectic relates to her confidence that adopting '*softly softly*' approach will enable her to achieve work objectives and improve working relations between the two parties (5.56).

vii. Pseudo Work Satisfaction (thesis-antithesis) - Fixated Work Dissatisfaction (synergy)

The only interview participant in this category experiences frustration in some aspects of his relations with his organisation's headquarters and seems powerless to address the dissatisfying aspects of the working relations.

AFR 1 is 'pseudo' satisfied with his working relations with his INGO's headquarters because his workload does not give him the opportunity to contribute to the development of local capacity although he gets good support from the headquarters and regional office. As synergy, he experiences 'fixated' form of work dissatisfaction because he is not able to influence necessary

action to ensure that only very competent expatriates are deployed to field locations (5.17;5.58 – 5.59).

viii. Fixated Work Dissatisfaction (thesis-antithesis) - Fixated Work Dissatisfaction (synergy)

The only interview participant classified in this category does not see any solution to the cause of his dissatisfaction, which is lack of clear corporate strategy in his work area.

AFR 8 experiences 'fixated' dissatisfaction due to the uncertainty surrounding future of his logistics department that he finds '*stressing*'. He does not see his INGO articulating a clear logistics strategy and the fact that his organisation's headquarters '*don't listen*' makes his relations with headquarters '*very stressful*' (5.66).

ix. Resigned Work Satisfaction (thesis – antithesis) - Resigned Work Satisfaction (synergy)

The interview participant in this category adapts to the frustrating aspects of her working relations with her organisation's headquarters by lowering her expectation of support from the latter.

AFR 6 is a female 31-40 year old Organisational Development expert in a Disaster and Relief INGO. She hardly contacts the technical department because she believes it is under-resourced and lacks familiarity with operational issues. AFR 6 manifests 'resigned' work satisfaction because she now sees operating without support from the technical department as normal (5.63 – 5.64).

5.7.4. Quantitative Analysis

Table 5.15 shows the relationship between overall job satisfaction (independent variable) and satisfaction with headquarters – field locations working relations (independent variable). The results establish that survey respondents that are satisfied with headquarters – field locations working relations (2 Sided Fisher’s Exact Test, $p < 0.001$) are more likely to report overall job satisfaction compared to those that are dissatisfied.

Table 5.16 below shows that about ninety-eight percent (98.6%) of survey respondents that are satisfied with the working relations report overall job satisfaction and only 1.4% of survey respondents that are dissatisfied with working relations report overall job satisfaction (Table 5.18).

Table 5.15 Relationship between Overall Job Satisfaction and HQ. – Field Relations.

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1- sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	62.638(b)	1	.000		
Continuity Correction(a)	49.818	1	.000		
Likelihood Ratio	24.832	1	.000		
Fisher's Exact Test				.000	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	62.215	1	.000		
N of Valid Cases	148				

(Source: Generated by SPSS for this research)

Table 5.16 Cross Tabulation of Overall Job Satisfaction and Headquarters. – Field Relations

Overall Satisfaction	Counts	HQ – Field Offices Relations		Total
		Dissatisfied	Satisfied	
Dissatisfied	Count	5	3	8
	% within Overall Job Satisfaction	62.5%	37.5%	100.0%
Satisfied	Count	2	138	140
	% within Overall Job Satisfaction	1.4%	98.6%	100.0%
Total	Count	7	141	148
	% within Overall Job Satisfaction	4.7%	95.3%	100.0%

(Source: Generated by SPSS for this research)

5.7.5. Summary of Findings

Analysis of interview data analysis indicates that most of the research participants from INGO headquarters and field locations are satisfied with the working relations between both locations. Poor communication and differences in what research participants from both locations consider as their priorities create tensions in working relations. Research participants in both locations are able to set aside the differences and collaborate to enable their INGOs to execute their missions successfully.

Results of survey data analysis also show that most of the survey respondents are satisfied with headquarters- field locations working relations in their organizations.

5.8.1. What effects do the HRM policies and practices in INGOs have on job satisfaction of employees?

The focus of this research question was established earlier in chapter 1 . The question addresses how INGO employees perceive HRM practices adopted by their organisations and how such perceptions influence the nature and level of their job satisfaction. The dialectical tensions that are explored under this research question are stated below.

THESIS

INGOs formulate HRM policies and adopt practices to motivate employees and enhance corporate effectiveness.

ANTITHESIS

Employees perceive inadequacies and contradictions in INGOs HRM policies and practices.

SYNERGY

Employees are satisfied with HRM policies and practices despite shortcomings and contradictions but call for better conditions of service.

5.8.2 Thematic Analysis of In-depth Interviews

The Interview extracts relevant to this research question were considered under the themes of HRM challenges, HR Policies and Practices and Operating Conditions.

HRM Challenges

As one of the means of improving their performance INGOs are expected to adopt a strategic approach to people management (Brewster & Lee, 2006; Cunningham, 2001).

Considering that the INGO sector does not have a long history of adopting strategic approach to management (Anheier, 200) efforts to adopt strategies often associated with business organisations are likely to present difficulties for INGO management and employees.

UK 12 is an International HR manager with a Human Rights and Peace INGO. He describes the strategic HR challenge that his organisation faces as a

(5.71)

very big one... I think the key thing is on the one hand we are trying to achieve consistency and equity. One of the things we want to do is globalise things. How do you globalise things when you're faced with individual or specific country regulations, legal aspects and things like that . So on the one hand you try to put everything under one umbrella and to treat everybody the same, but then quite clearly you can't do that because you're faced with different jurisdictions, which demand that you do different things. (31-40-year-old HR Manager)

Related to the challenge of 'globalising' HR approach that UK 12 identifies is the criticism that HRM policies and practices in INGOs create tensions between local and expatriate personnel. The expatriate-local personnel dichotomy is described by UK 12 as a

(5.72)

very big challenge... people doing the same type of work but because they are international staff you give them more benefits and you give them all sorts of things with the exclusion of the national staff. (31-40-year-old HR Manager)

Offering better terms and conditions of service to expatriate personnel is a long-standing practice in the INGO sector akin to what obtains in multinational business organisations.

In an effort to mitigate the effects of the expatriate – local personnel dichotomy, resourcing strategy in UK 12's organisation focuses on mobilising

(5.73)

resources to areas where there is greatest need, which includes developing local talent and national talent to begin to take over and run the programmes themselves. We're trying to move away from the saying..., you know, only special people can hold certain offices. (31-40-year-old HR Manager)

AFR 5 criticises the discrepancies in the expatriate – local personnel remuneration for they create *'rivalry and rift between local staff if you put this one [expatriate] above other] local personnel] especially if this one [expatriate] is not [more] academically qualified than this one [local personnel] at this [lower] level* **(5.74).**

In support of programme implementation members of a major humanitarian INGO contract international staff and second them to operations run by the parent INGO. Commendable and helpful as that gesture is, it creates tensions amongst expatriates contracted by different INGO members that are offered different remuneration packages for doing comparable jobs. AFR 6 argues that it is unfair for sponsors to offer remuneration packages that do not take into consideration full ramifications of jobs. She cites the example of some expatriates at her location

(5.75)

who could have come with their families for example and were told under no circumstances was this going to be a family posting in their case. Usually because it is a funding issue. But I really don't think that is very acceptable practice. Of course, it would be different for somebody coming with good financial backing from a PNS [funding INGO member] behind him or her. (31-40 year old Organisational Development expert)

Management of change is another area of weakness that AFR 17 and UK 14 identify in their organisations. In AFR 17's organisation

(5.76)

the form of change that is going on, it's to do with the different ways of working. Predominantly what we had was everything was led from the UK, decisions were made in the UK and ...down to people in different countries. So decisions were made in the UK and then people were told what to do, and that is not empowering... (20 – 30 year old Disaster Preparedness Officer)

The change management strategy is further criticised by AFR 17 for lacking 'road maps' to convince employees that the organisation knew where it was going. UK 14 joins AFR 17 in the camp of those that believe that INGOs do not manage change particularly well. According to UK 14

(5.77)

The case in mind would be the Africa team transition where we are changing, adapting and restructuring our team. I think sometimes we're not as conscious as we should be of how that impacts people and the support that is required in order to make the transition a success. (31-40 year old Planning Officer).

UK 2's assessment of her organisation's performance in institutionalising strategic HR management appears to summarise the accounts reviewed briefly above. Her progress report indicates that '*there is still a way to go on some of the practice but the principles are there*' **(5.78)**

HRM Policies and Practices

The perception that HR departments in most INGOs are ineffective (Brewster & Lee, 2006) appears to extend to the perception that some of management policies and practices in those organisations are unfair. As an HR professional, UK 12 admits that

(5.79)

Within ... [name of INGO] the HR department has a very bad name...things have gone wrong, so when you come in, you know, you are painted with the same brush. Because when they talk about HR everybody goes "oh yeah HR Even though you are trying, you're doing the best you can. You're faced with historic perspective, because I know that people still talk to me about things I didn't know about and I say well... (31-40-year-old HR Manager).

A non-HR professional from another INGO corroborates UK 12's perspective on the perception of the HR function and his organisation's approach to HR management. AFR 8 casts a 'vote of no confidence' on HR management in his organisation when he observes that in his

(5.80)

experience with the ... [name of INGO] over the last 10 years or 9 years, HR is always is always very weak area. We often have very good delegate in addition, we let them go because we don't have any if you want career planning. (31-40-year-old Regional Logistics Manager)

The criticism that HR performance attracts in some INGOs does not detract from the satisfaction that UK 2 derives from '*doing HR Work*' as part of her job. Whether the criticism of the HR function or the HR management process is unfair is open to debate.

Offering short-term contracts to expatriate personnel appears to be a pragmatic solution to the financial problem that INGOs experience. It however makes workforce planning difficult and gives employees not occupying 'core posts' very little to look forward to. UK 10, AFR 4 and AFR 6 share AFR 8's concern with the consequences of INGOs not retaining talented personnel due to lack of funds.

The sore point for employees in 'permanent jobs' is the limited career progression opportunities in their organisations. For example, UK 11 and UK 17 are frustrated that securing higher jobs in their organisations depends more on availability of opportunities and less on their performance.

Research interview participants had different views on the terms and conditions of their employment. UK 1 for example is satisfied with his remuneration package. Based on what he describes as his '*private research*' he found that

(5.81)

... [name of his INGO] is in one of the top five in terms of payment in the NGO sector in the UK. It is not the best in terms of international NGOs in the UK but their [his INGO] salary ranks among the first five so it is ok... It can be improved upon but it is not the worst. In ...[name of his INGO] we have a lot of in-house training and if you want to do your postgraduate they are willing to support you financially and also give you more time off work. They [his INGO] have a process of increasing your annual leave with maybe an extra month in the year if you are writing up your thesis or something. (31-40-year-old Desk Officer)

UK 14 is also satisfied with her remuneration package that includes 'large' employer pension contributions and training budget. UK 16 is satisfied with the combination of salary and non-financial benefits that her organisation provides. UK 2 is satisfied with her package that includes training budget and she recognises that her medium-sized INGO cannot afford to compete with the 'top four'.

UK 11's salary is 'pretty good' and UK 12 is 'more or less satisfied' with it. However, he points out to this researcher that he is worth more in the business sector considering his qualifications and experience. He brings realism to bear on his assessment when he observes that

(5.82)

I know that [his salary] is the going rate for a charity, this is what a charity offers. I think people generally, feel that they are well paid, competitively well paid particularly for the charitable sector. I think people understand that, because they know that if it's for money or for financial gain...Charitable sector. So I think people come with that knowledge already and I think that definitely helps. (31-40-year-old HR Manager)

UK 12 indicates that one of the reasons why employees in the INGO sector may be satisfied with their salaries is because they are aware that the INGOs do not pay high salary compared to business organisations.

UK 15 appreciates improvement in the conditions of service that her INGO provides but suggests realignment of salary structure especially at the lower end to remedy the situation where junior personnel get minimal salary increments. She also advocates that her organisation's inflexible leave administration policy be reviewed to enable employees to carry part of their annual leave over to the next financial year if they wish to do so.

Employees in INGO locations in Africa are satisfied as well as their UK counterparts with their remuneration packages. Some of the field-based employees interviewed by this researcher however, highlight cost of transportation (AFR 4) and retirement plans (AFR 5; AFR 6) as areas where their organisations' provisions do not meet employees' expectations.

UK 16 is '*really impressed*' with her organisation's induction programme but AFR 3 feels the his INGO's pre-assignment briefing for new joiners should change because

(5.83)

Seeing one person for half an hour, one hour, it becomes too vague for new delegates [expatriates], I say the briefing should change and if you've been here for maybe a week and you should be given the documentation like your strategies, change strategy documents, the various documents you would use like Ouagadougou reports, Dakar meeting reports, ministerial meeting reports. You should actually sit down and read these [documents] and then have the possibility to speak to the people who've been there to ask 'what were really the biggest problems with that ... [INGO member] (41-50 year old Programme Coordinator).

Employee resourcing challenges that UK 12 and AFR 6 highlighted earlier may account for dissatisfaction of some research participants with the recruitment policies and practices in their organisations. AFR 5 is concerned that his organisation appears to value qualifications more than the experience that people bring to their jobs. AFR 8 is worried by lack of professionalism and favouritism that characterise staff recruitment and selection in his organisation. According to AFR 8

(5.84)

HR is a very very weak point and together with other things, I think we're losing our way. We're not professional and what I think is wrong with ... [name of INGO] is that they don't see the delegates [expatriates] as professionals. It's not like who you know. It should not be like whom you know but what you know and I think [Name of INGO] is very much like whom you know and you get a job. (31-40-year-old Logistics Manager)

AFR 15 corroborates AFR 8's position but goes further to recommend that his organisation should adopt recruitment practices that guarantee equal opportunities and demonstrate corporate commitment to 'meritocracy'. In order to enhance corporate credibility before stakeholders AFR 15 suggests the

(5.85)

need to seriously look at our recruitment policies when we advertise. We should mean that they [jobs] are advertised and the best people are selected for the job. Not advertising them because it's proper ethics to advertise when you already have somebody in mind. We need to be clear on that. If there is a position that you feel an expatriate in the field can fill, then don't advertise. (41-50-year-old Organisation Development Expert)

Employees' perceptions of how well they get on with other team members, how they are managed by their superiors and whether those around them and their organisation support them influence the form and level and type of job satisfaction that they manifest. UK 2 and UK 9 find the collaborative and '*democratic*' work environments in their organisations satisfying.

Most of the research participants are satisfied with the working relations they have with their colleagues. Considering that most INGO employees operate in multicultural teams, they have to demonstrate intercultural effectiveness in order to contribute as team members. UK 11 believes patience, listening skills and open-mindedness have helped her to develop '*very good, pretty good*' relationship with her colleagues.

UK 14 identifies differences in expectations, educational backgrounds and experiences as some of the factors that people should bear in mind when they interact with others in a multicultural setting. On a different note, she agrees with UK 2, UK 12, and UK 13 that their organisations' headquarters in the United Kingdom should be more diverse.

Most of the research participants have good working relations with their managers and supervisors. AFR 1's relationship with his manager is '*professional*' and it is based on mutual respect despite the disagreements they have on how they could serve members of their INGO better.

The relations between UK 13 and her manager are different. She senses that because she is older than her manager

(5.86)

there is a tension and I feel a bit that she kind of tries to put me in my place a little bit and correct me because of that possible insecurity. I don't know if I'm over analysing it just to make myself feel better. I don't think I've done a single piece of work perfectly. She's correcting it and she's got every right to because she knows and should set the standards that the organisation requires. So, you know, I had just had my appraisal and, you know, she gave me back feedback of, you know, "well there's room for improvement here, there's room for improvement there" but I didn't feel very motivated. (20 – 30 year old Planning Officer)

This researcher does not have sufficient data to locate or identify the source of the 'tension' that UK 13 makes reference to in describing her relations with her manager.

However, the thought that she is probably '*over analysing*' and therefore interpreting differently her manager's actions may provide a starting point for the 'smoothing' of working relations.

As UK 14's experience indicates, it may take longer to build good supervisor – employee relations than both parties reckon. She explains how the working relations with her manager '*progressed and improved after a season of getting to know each other and getting to know how one another works and adapting*' (5.87).

Both UK 10 and UK 12 emphasised earlier the need for managers in their organisations to be equipped to manage change better. In his capacity as HR Manager, UK 12 articulates the need to focus on developing people management skills in his organisation where he says managers are

(5.88)

very good technically, but then when it comes to managing their staff they have a big, big problem. So those things are very difficult for me sometimes, because when you are faced with a manager who is dying to dismiss an employee of course there are procedures that you need to follow. He cannot just dismiss his employee all of a sudden. What has happened over night that you suddenly hate this person? They would say HR is not supportive, policies are not helpful. You know sometimes it becomes a big, big challenge. (31-40-year-old HR Manager)

Operating Conditions

Like employees in other sectors, INGO personnel could be dissatisfied with their jobs because of various types of work-related stress or pressure (Spector, 1997; Karl & Peluchette, 2006). As a Desk Officer UK 1 is responsible for ensuring that records of programme funds in his region are accurate and available as and when required. Despite understanding the importance of maintaining accurate financial records, UK 1 still complains that

(5.89)

I don't like administrative work, I don't like a lot of paper pushing, and that is the problem whenever I work in the headquarters. As for my current job, there are a lot of papers to push to get signed. I find it very frustrating... Because I manage a large project and the accountability in the British financial system is very... when I was working in a non-British NGO it was a bit relaxed but it is more here because we are accountable to the Charity Commission and a lot of auditors. A lot of money going out of the UK. (31-40-year-old Desk Officer).

UK 17 shares UK 1's dislike for bureaucracy that she nicely refers to as 'controls'. According to her '*sometimes it feels like o.k. you are checking off a list rather than focusing on what you have to achieve*' **(5.90)**. AFR 6 describes 'paper work' as the

(5.91)

parallel work that I have to do, I find that I get involved in far too much paperwork and administration. I think that it's a problem for almost everybody dealing with all these systems and procedures. However, I am very comfortable with my real work. (31-40 year old Organisation Development expert)

Being the most experienced employee in her team landed UK 15 '*many mundane tasks*' that she found '*quite stressful*'. Meeting unrealistic deadlines was the source of stress for UK 4 whose responsibility it is to collate and circulate monthly reports authored by colleagues who have '*other important tasks*' to perform.

As Programme Coordinator, AFR 3 told this researcher that she worked under so much pressure that she '*lost control*' by which she meant '*mixing up the countries [in her region], I was mixing up, what program was that again? That was Ghana oh sorry was that Guinea Bissau. Oh of course you lose control*' **(5.92)**.

Not having a computer to work with, a car and a mobile phone left AFR 2 feeling unsupported. The tense political situation at his location in West Africa contributed to making his situation '*very sensitive*'. Similarly, AFR 18 feels that his organisation's headquarters did not take his safety and security seriously when

(5.93)

I became a victim of attempted mugging in May, I duly sent my report to the headquarters stating that I was concerned by the rising incidence of violent crimes in[name of city]. Within my team, we have had eight victims of violent crime in the last 6 months including three armed car jacking and kidnappings. Through apparent administrative failures, incident reports were never properly received by the headquarters security department. As a result they indicated they had no idea of increasing violence in ... [name of city]. A Psychiatrist was sent from the headquarters to evaluate and support staff. A written report was circulated and a security analyst was hired. But to my knowledge, nothing changed in terms of putting in place new security guidelines to change delegates'[expatriates] behaviour (31-40 year old Logistics professional).

It is appropriate to wonder whether AFR 18's experience above especially the feeling that his organisation cares very little about the safety and security of expatriate personnel could trigger a revision of his career plans to include leaving the INGO. AFR 18 does not go that far in his discussion with this researcher. However, this researcher finds his verdict on his organisation's commitment to the well-being of field personnel troubling although it was delivered in a philosophical tone. According to AFR 18

(5.94)

The human spirit and mind are remarkably resilient and adept at coping but From time to time an objective assessment is necessary. People are burned out, people are discouraged, people are demoralised, people are not always coping well, and people are no longer effective. For a humanitarian organisation to continue to overlook the well-being of its own personnel seems incongruous. But then maybe we are all suffering from the same disease. (31-40-year-old Logistics professional)

5.8.3. Forms of Job Satisfaction and Job Dissatisfaction (Appendix D5)

(i) Fixated Work Dissatisfaction (thesis-antithesis) – Progressive Work Satisfaction (synergy)

The research participant (UK 1) in this category feels dissatisfied with an aspect of his work and he does nothing about it. He is satisfied with another aspect of his work that leads him to adopt a positive or problem-solving attitude in order to derive more satisfaction from his job.

UK 1 experiences 'fixated' dissatisfaction because he does not like 'paper work' but he is compelled to handle administrative tasks that are an integral part of a Desk Officer's duties. He rates his remuneration as competitive and believes that there is scope for it to improve. UK 1 manifests 'progressive' satisfaction for he believes that his job satisfaction will increase when his remuneration package is enhanced (**5.81; 5.89**).

ii. Pseudo Work Satisfaction (thesis – antithesis) - Constructive Work Dissatisfaction (synergy)

The research participant in this category is dissatisfied with different aspects of his work but is motivated to address sources of frustrations by either solving problems directly or suggesting solutions to problems.

As an HR professional UK 12 is dissatisfied because he sees managers in his organisation as technically good but poor in people and change management. His 'pseudo' satisfaction becomes 'constructive' because he identifies the need for action to remedy the source or cause of his dissatisfaction (**5.88**).

iii. Pseudo Work Satisfaction (thesis – antithesis) - Progressive Work Satisfaction (synergy)

Research participants (UK 2; UK 14; UK 16) in this category progress from seeing the problems in certain aspects of their work as unsolvable; pseudo satisfaction, to addressing those problems to improve their level of satisfaction; progressive satisfaction.

UK 2 was under serious pressure for having to fully support her INGO's Chief Executive in managing staff redundancies due to financial difficulties. She felt it was her duty to work with the Chief Executive to ensure that the exercise was successful although she did not know whether she would still have a job by the end of the exercise. Her work satisfaction changes from 'pseudo' to 'progressive' because she is very satisfied with her organisation's maternity policy. Furthermore, she supports the changes implemented in her organisation and expresses the conviction that those changes would lead to improvements by the time employees adapt to new ways of working (5.11; 5.78).

iv. Fixated Work Dissatisfaction (thesis-antithesis) - Resigned Work Satisfaction (synergy)

The two (UK 9; AFR 3) research participants classified in this category do not seek solutions to the problems arising from the negative aspects of their work and they adapt to those frustrating aspects of their work by lowering their expectations.

AFR 3 does not like administrative work. She worked under pressure and at a point started mixing up various programmes that she coordinated in different countries. Her dissatisfaction was the 'fixated' type since she did not make any efforts to address the challenge posed by combining a lot of administrative work with programme coordination. She is 'resigned' to the fact that her organisation will not improve its induction programme for field-bound personnel (5.78; 5.92).

v. Pseudo Work Satisfaction (thesis-antithesis) - Resigned Work Satisfaction (synergy)

The research participant (UK 10) in this category is dissatisfied with an aspect of her job but remains focused on her job in order to achieve a personal objective that she considers important.

UK 10 does not like the short-term employment contract that she has with her INGO but she enjoys her job as a researcher. The satisfaction that she gets from doing research enables her to continue in her job even though it is not certain whether her contract would be renewed. UK 10 was prepared to wait for as long as possible for colleagues to provide the inputs required to enable her to complete her task. She manifests 'resigned' satisfaction because she does not chase the inputs with much vigour. She had been told earlier that '*things do take time*'.

vi. Pseudo Work Satisfaction (thesis-antithesis) - Pseudo Work Satisfaction (synergy)

The research participant in this category is dissatisfied with her job. However, she does not like to give the impression that she could not achieve her work objectives.

UK 13 is frustrated that she does not understand how to get information that she needs to do her work. Whilst making efforts to understand how to work with her INGO's monitoring and evaluation database she gets an urgent request to provide information to one of her INGO's partners. She senses that there is tension in her relations with her manager. Reassuring herself that she may be '*over analysing*' the situation enables her to carry on as if all is well and normal (5.86).

vii. Resigned Work Satisfaction (thesis-antithesis) - Constructive Work Dissatisfaction (synergy)

The research participant (UK 15) in this category is dissatisfied with an aspect of her INGO's management practices. She is motivated to address the dissatisfying aspect of her organisation's management practices for which sees scope for improvement.

UK 15 finds having to carry out mundane tasks physically and mentally demanding and she is not too pleased with her supervisor's management style. She could not solve any of the two problems. UK 14's job satisfaction changes to 'constructive' for being satisfied with the new terms and conditions of service in her INGO whilst looking forward to future improvements.

viii. Constructive Work Dissatisfaction (thesis-antithesis) - Progressive Work Satisfaction (synergy)

The interview participant (AFR 6) in this category consciously finds and suggests solutions to dissatisfying aspects of her job. AFR 6 criticises her INGO for not leading by example and for the preferential treatment enjoyed by expatriates sponsored by the richer members of her INGO. The 'progressive' satisfaction element that is the dialectical synergy in her case comes from her acknowledging that her INGO's terms and conditions of service are generally good. She also looks forward to the improvements that her organisation should make in the areas of insurance cover and pension plans for expatriates (5.75).

ix. Fixated Work Dissatisfaction (thesis-antithesis) - Pseudo Work Satisfaction (synergy)

The research participant in this category is initially dissatisfied with HRM practices in his organisation and does nothing about the source of dissatisfaction. He identifies another aspect of his INGO's management practices that he appears to be satisfied with.

AFR 8 is dissatisfied with HR Management in his organisation pointing out that for about 10 years he had identified HR as an area of weakness. He experiences 'fixated' dissatisfaction for he is not in any position to make the improvements that he desires in people management. His 'fixated work dissatisfaction becomes 'pseudo' when he indicates that he enjoys working in the multicultural environment that his INGO provides (5.22; 5.80 – 5.84).

x. Fixated Work Dissatisfaction (thesis-antithesis) - Fixated Work Dissatisfaction (synergy)

The research participant (AFR 18) in this category is dissatisfied with HRM practices in his organisation and is unable to deal with the cause of his dissatisfaction. AFR 18 is dissatisfied with his INGO's lack of commitment to the safety and well-being of field-based personnel. He attributes the survival of field - based personnel to their resilience (5.93 - 5.94).

5.8.4. Quantitative Analysis

Table 5.17 shows the relationship between overall job satisfaction (dependent variable) and satisfaction with HRM policies and practices. The results indicate that survey respondents that are satisfied with HRM policies and practices (2 Sided Fisher's Exact Test, $p=0.001$) are more likely to report overall job satisfaction compared to those that are dissatisfied.

Table 5.18 below shows that about ninety- nine percent (99%) of the survey respondents that were satisfied with HRM policies and practices practices in their organisations reported overall job satisfaction. Less than one percent of respondents that reported dissatisfaction with HRM policies and practices reported overall job satisfaction.

Table 5.17 Relationship between Overall job satisfaction and HRM practices

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)	Point Probability
Pearson Chi-Square	111.470(b)	1	.000	.000	.000	
Continuity Correction(a)	95.143	1	.000			
Likelihood Ratio	44.339	1	.000	.000	.000	
Fisher's Exact Test				.000	.000	
Linear-by-Linear Association	110.717(c)	1	.000	.000	.000	.000
N of Valid Cases	148					

(Source: Generated by SPSS for this research)

Table 5.18 Cross Tabulation of overall job satisfaction and HRM practices

Overall Satisfaction	Counts	HRM policies & Practices		Total
		Dissatisfied	Satisfied	
Dissatisfied	Count	7	1	8
	% within Overall Job Satisfaction	87.5%	12.5%	100.0%
Satisfied	Count	1	139	140
	% within Overall Job Satisfaction	.7%	99.3%	100.0%
Total	Count	8	140	148
	% within Overall Job Satisfaction	5.4%	94.6%	100.0%

(Source: Generated by SPSS for this research)

5.8.5. Summary of Findings

Analysis of in-depth interviews revealed that most of the research participants are satisfied with HRM policies and practices in their INGOs. Research participants' accounts revealed contradictions between HR policies and their application. Aspects of HRM policy that some of interview participants suggested should be improved are recruitment and remuneration.

Analysis of survey data also established that most of the respondents were satisfied with HRM policies and practices in their INGOs.

5.9.1. What are the differences and similarities in job satisfaction perceived by INGO employees based in the United Kingdom and Africa?

5.9.1 Comparative Analysis

As noted in the introduction to this chapter, findings from each of the four research questions addressed earlier are examined based on the locations of the research participants.

5.9.2. What impact do the missions or specialties of INGOs have on the job satisfaction of INGO employees?

Comparative Qualitative Analysis

Most of the research participants based in the United Kingdom joined INGOs because they associate with their organisations' missions (UK8; UK9; UK14; UK10; UK11; UK13; UK16). Most of the participants that also saw joining INGOs as career move or joined INGOs by chance are also located in the United Kingdom (UK1; UK17; UK13; AFR8).

Two research participants from Africa are disappointed with their work experiences because the tasks that they were required to perform were different from those specified in their assignment letters (*AFR1; AFR2*). One participant based in Africa is not satisfied with how his organisation went about executing its mission (*AFR8*). Research participants that are based in the UK (UK2; UK12) appreciate the challenges that INGOs face especially in raising funds for programme implementation.

Two participants based in Africa (*AFR4; AFR5*) are satisfied with their jobs because of the support, tools and resources provided for them by their organisations. Other research participants who are based in Africa (*AFR6; AFR8*) appreciate the opportunity that they have to learn about other cultures. Two UK based participants (UK16; UK14; UK1; UK12) are satisfied with the opportunity to develop their skills and contribute to helping the needy and working with INGOs with whom they share the same religious faith.

Comparative Quantitative Analysis

In both locations there was no relationship between overall job satisfaction and satisfaction with jobs and the types of INGOs that survey respondents work for. Analysis of data in Table 5.21 supports the acceptance of the null hypothesis for both locations (UK: 2 Sided Fisher's Exact Test, $p=.438$; Africa: 2 Sided Fisher's Exact Test, $p=.644$) that there is no relationship between overall job satisfaction and satisfaction with jobs and types of INGOs that research participants work for. The result in each of the two locations is consistent with the result obtained when both samples were combined (Tables 5.11 and 5.12).

Figure 5.1 below indicates that in both locations the rates of satisfaction with jobs and how INGOs execute corporate missions reported by survey respondents in the United Kingdom and Africa are very similar. The proportion of survey respondents that expressed satisfaction with their jobs and how their organisations execute corporate mission was about ninety-five percent (95%) for the United Kingdom and ninety-four percent (94%) for Africa.

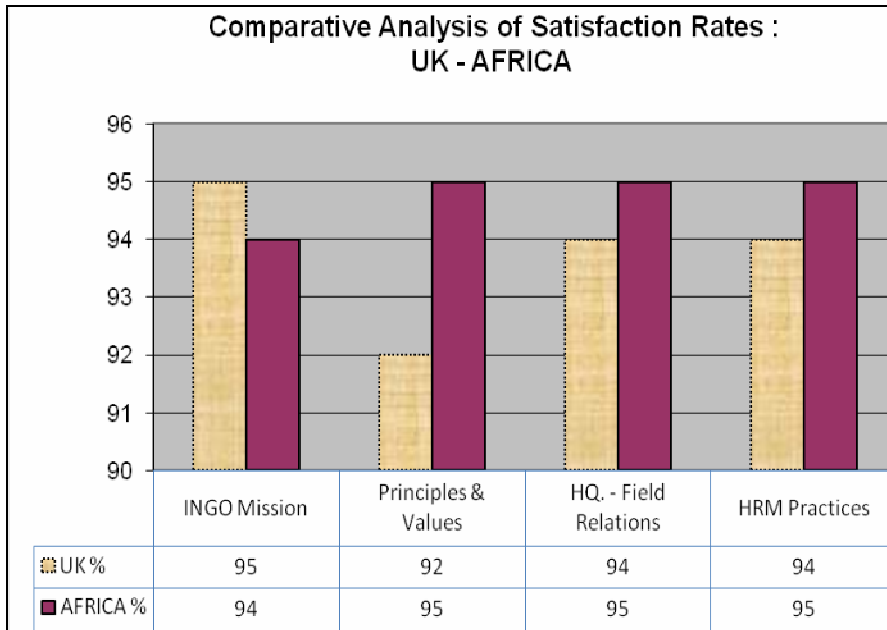


Figure 5.1 Chart showing rates of satisfaction for areas covered by RQ.1 – RQ.4

Source: Prepared by this author from Appendices A 1 & A2

Table 5.19 SUMMARY OF COMPARATIVE QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS : United Kingdom and Africa

	Research Question Variables	UK & Africa Samples Combined		UK		Africa	
		Statistically Significant Relationship?	Fisher's Exact Test P- Value	Statistically Significant Relationship?	Fisher's Exact Test P- Value	Statistically Significant Relationship?	Fisher's Exact Test P- Value
1	INGO Mission and Employee Job Satisfaction	N	.355	N	.438	N	.644
2	INGO Principles/Values and Employee Job Satisfaction	Y	.001	N	.009	Y	.001
3	INGO HQ. – Field Office Relations and Employee Job Satisfaction	Y	.001	Y	.004	Y	.001
4	INGO HRM Practices and Employee Job Satisfaction	Y	.001	Y	.001	Y	.001

NB : **Y :** Yes, there is a statistically significant relationship between both variables **N:** No, the relationship between both variables is not statistically significant

P-Value : Basis for acceptance or rejection of null hypothesis at 0.05 level of significance

Source: Prepared for this research from Appendices A1 & A2

5.9.3. What are the effects of working according to corporate principles and values on job satisfaction of INGO employees?

Comparative Qualitative Analysis

Most of the research participants from the UK and Africa see the principles and values in their organisations as both relevant and important in the performance of their duties. Notable exceptions are AFR 1, AFR 8 and AFR 2 who believe that their INGOs do not disseminate the principles and values properly. They also suggest a review of the principles and values because they have become outdated.

The experiences of participants from the UK and Africa are different with respect to the practical application of principles and values. The research participants in Africa often face ethically challenging situations whilst engaging in Programme Centred Activities. It is surprising that some of the participants from Africa (AFR 1; AFR 2) argue that not applying the principles and values does not affect the effective discharge of their responsibilities. On the other hand, the participants from UK feel that their organisations provide necessary support to enable practical application of principles and values. Field-based personnel (AFR3; AFR6; AFR2; AFR8) reported instances where principles and values were believed to have been violated in the course of programme and policy implementation. From the headquarters perspective, UK 1 narrated his involvement in what he considers to be unethical approach to fund raising in his former INGO.

One field based research participant (AFR8) calls for pragmatism in the application of principles and values in order for his INGO to remain relevant and competitive. Research participants from UK (UK1; UK16; UK14; UK13) and Africa (AFR2; AFR3; AFR8; AFR5; AFR4) agree that their organisations' principles and values are important and they are generally satisfied with the efforts made by their organisations to enable better application of those principles and values.

Comparative Quantitative Analysis

Table 5.19 shows different results for the United Kingdom and Africa. For the United Kingdom the result obtained indicates that there is no relationship between overall satisfaction and application of principles and values (2 Sided Fisher's Exact Test, $p=.009$). The result for Africa establishes that there is an association between overall job satisfaction and application of principles of values (2 Sided Fisher's Exact Test, $p=0.001$). In Africa survey respondents that are satisfied with the application of principles and values are more likely to report overall job satisfaction than those that are dissatisfied. That result is consistent with the result obtained when both samples were combined (Tables 5.13, 5.14 and 5.19).

Most of the survey respondents in both locations expressed satisfaction with the application of principles and values in their INGOs. Figure 5.1 shows that about ninety-five percent (95%) of survey respondents in Africa expressed satisfaction with the application of principles and values in their organisations and the proportion of respondents in the United Kingdom that were satisfied with the application of principles and values is about ninety- two percent (92%).

5.9.4. What impact do the working relations between INGO headquarters and field offices have on the job satisfaction of INGO employees?

Comparative Qualitative Analysis

UK based research participants (UK1; UK13; UK14) are frustrated that due to poor communication facilities they are unable to maintain contact with locations in Africa. In their working relations with their headquarters research participants from Africa (AFR1;AFR8;AFR3;AFR6) are frustrated by inadequate technical support , lack of strategic direction , headquarters' overwhelming control over INGO funds and pressure mounted on them to adopt models and implement procedures that do not reflect the culture of environments in which they are to be applied.

Poor communication is a source of frustration but that frustration does not influence perception of headquarters based research participants on the working relations with their counterparts in Africa. The research participants in the UK (UK1; UK13; UK15) appreciate the communication and operational challenges that their colleagues in Africa face in meeting the demands of headquarters and coping with programme implementation. Similarly, field based personnel (AFR1; AFR3) appreciate the pressure that their headquarters colleagues are under to report on programme implementation to stakeholders.

Comparative Quantitative Analysis

Table 5.19 indicates that for Africa there is a relationship between overall job satisfaction and working relations between headquarters and field locations (2 Sided Fisher Exact Test, $p= 0.001$) . Similarly, Table 5.19 shows that for the United Kingdom there is an association between overall satisfaction and working relations between headquarters and field locations (2 Sided Fisher's Exact Test , $p=0.04$). In both locations survey respondents that are satisfied with working relations between headquarters and field locations are more likely report overall job satisfaction than those that that are dissatisfied.

Figure 5.1 shows that the response patterns in both locations were similar for this research question. About ninety-four percent (94%) of survey respondents in the United Kingdom were satisfied with working relations between both locations and for Africa about ninety-five percent (95%) of respondents expressed satisfaction with working relations between both locations.

5.9.5. What effects do the HRM policies and practices in INGOs have on job satisfaction of employees?

Comparative Qualitative Analysis

In implementing different initiatives to enhance corporate effectiveness, research participants in the UK (UK12; UK14) and Africa (AFR3; AFR17) observe weaknesses in their organisations in the areas of HR management and capacity to manage change. Research participants from both locations (UK1; UK17; AFR6) also express discomfort with increase in bureaucracy due to their organisations' efforts to be more accountable to stakeholders. One research (AFR6) participant is frustrated that she is pressurised by her INGO's headquarters to adopt organisational development models that do not take into consideration the culture of the environments in which they are to be implemented. Participants from both locations (UK12; AFR5; AFR6) also report that their organisations implement HR policies that create tensions between expatriates and locally recruited personnel. One field based research participant complains about working under too much pressure (AFR3) and another expresses concerns about his personal safety (AFR18).

Most of the research participants from the UK manifest 'progressive' satisfaction and (UK1; UK2; UK14; UK16) and 'constructive' dissatisfaction (UK12) in relation to HR and management practices in their organisations. The positive forms of satisfaction and dissatisfaction that UK based research (UK1;UK13;UK15) participants manifest are attributable to their being sensitive to the perception by field based personnel that INGO headquarters exercise 'power' in discharging their duties.

Comparative Quantitative Analysis

Table 5.19 shows that in both locations there is a relationship between overall satisfaction and HRM practices. Obtaining the same result (2 Sided Fisher Exact Test , $p=0.001$) for both locations indicates that survey respondents that are satisfied with HRM practices are more likely to report overall job satisfaction than those that are dissatisfied . That result is consistent with the result that was obtained when the two locations were combined (Tables 5.17, 5.18 and 5.19).

5.9.6 Summary of Findings

Most of the research participants in the United Kingdom and INGO field locations in Africa are satisfied with their jobs. However, analysis of interview data indicates that there are differences between research participants in both locations in terms of their satisfaction with how INGOs execute their missions, application of principles and values, working relations between both locations and INGO management policies and practices. Research participants that are based in the UK are more satisfied with different aspects of their jobs that are covered in this research than their counterparts in African locations.

Comparative quantitative analysis also indicates that are differences and similarities in job satisfaction reported by survey participants in the United Kingdom and Africa. Both locations obtained similar results in relation to INGO mission, working relations between both locations and satisfaction with HRM practices. The only difference was found with respect to the application of corporate principles and values. Analysis of survey responses from INGO employees in Africa indicated that there is an association between application of principles and values and overall job satisfaction. Analysis of data for United Kingdom indicated that there is no relationship between application of principles and values and overall job satisfaction.

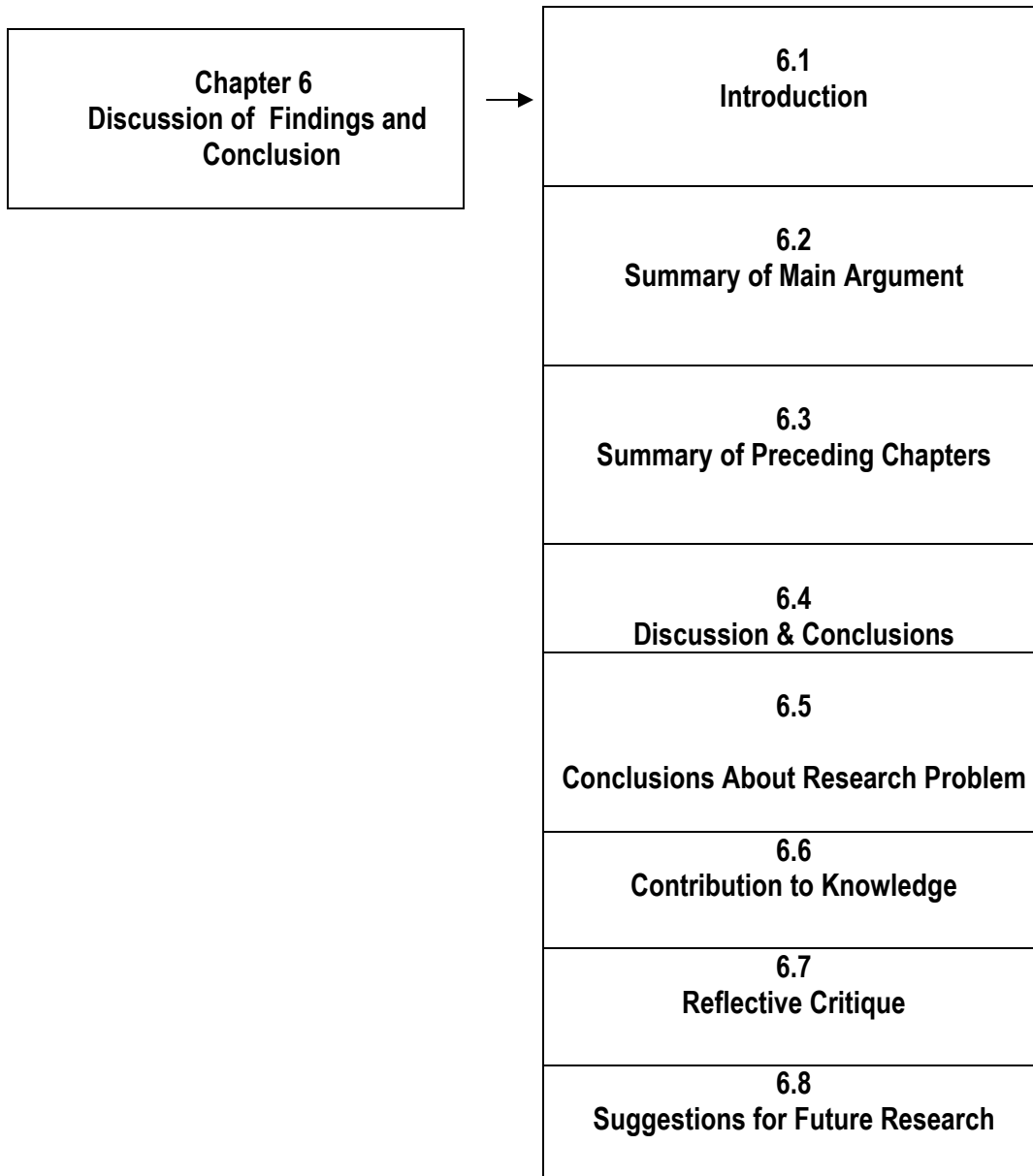
5.10 Chapter Summary

This chapter addressed the presentation of research findings according to the research questions. The five questions raised in this research focus on research participants' satisfaction with their organisations' missions, application of principles and values, management practices, working relations between headquarters and field locations and comparative analysis of overall job satisfaction perceived by research participants in the UK and Africa.

Guided by the conceptual framework presented in chapter 6, the presentation and analysis of research findings covered thematic and dialectical analyses of interview and statistical analysis of data gathered from job satisfaction survey. Dialectical analysis covered research interviewees from whose accounts this researcher could obtain enough materials to complete the dialectical triad. On the other hand, thematic analysis of interview data enabled this researcher to reflect the views and perspectives of most of the research participants. Under each research question, findings from analysis of interview data were complemented by examination of results from statistical analysis of survey data.

In the next chapter, the findings presented in this chapter are discussed based on conceptual framework developed for this research and in relation to the literature reviewed in chapter two.

STRUCTURE OF CHAPTER 6



CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter summarises the main argument in this research and issues covered in Chapters 1 to 5. Research findings are discussed based on the research questions stated in Chapter 1 and the final conceptual framework presented in this chapter. The contributions that this research makes to knowledge and conclusion on the research problem are also presented. Lessons learned in the process of conducting this research are discussed after which this researcher suggests agenda for future research.

6.2. Summary of Main Argument

The main argument in this research is that the policies and practices that INGOs adopt in response to the changes in their operating environment are characterised by tensions and contradictions. Those tensions and contradictions influence how employees perceive their jobs, INGO corporate missions, application of principles and values, working relations between headquarters and field locations and HRM practices.

6.3 Summary of Preceding Chapters

Chapter 1 provided background to the problem identified by this research, explained research problem and the questions designed to address the problem. Potential contributions of this research to knowledge were listed and a brief outline of the case study research strategy including the Qual + quan variant of mixed research methods selected for this research was provided.

Chapter 2 focused on the critical review of relevant literature that covered the theories and models of job satisfaction, measures of job satisfaction, and the effects of INGO missions, organisational culture, organisational structure and HRM practices on employee job satisfaction. The Chapter justified the need for a dialectical view of INGOs as a way of gaining good understanding of job satisfaction among employees in the sector. The Chapter identified tensions and contradictions in INGO management that influence employee job satisfaction. Based on pragmatic critical realist philosophy, Hegel's' dialectical method was adopted as the overarching heuristic for the examination of forms of job satisfaction perceived by INGO employees that participated in this research. Finally, it was established that job satisfaction literature is dominated by quantitative studies and that the preponderance of atheoretical contributions on the INGO sector poses a threat to improved understanding of job satisfaction.

Chapter 3 was devoted to the presentation of the conceptual framework for this research. The Chapter focused on comparative analysis of critical realist, positivist and constructionist research philosophies in demonstrating the benefits of pragmatic critical realism to this research.

Chapter 4 detailed how conceptual framework and research design guided data collection, presentation and analysis in this research. The chapter explained how this researcher followed social research ethical guidelines and observed relevant protocols dictated by case study design and the methods combined in this research.

Chapter 5 focused on the presentation and analysis of research findings. It discussed the integrated analysis and interpretation of interview and survey data based on Qual + quan research design in which statistical analysis of questionnaire data supplemented thematic and dialectical analysis of interview data.

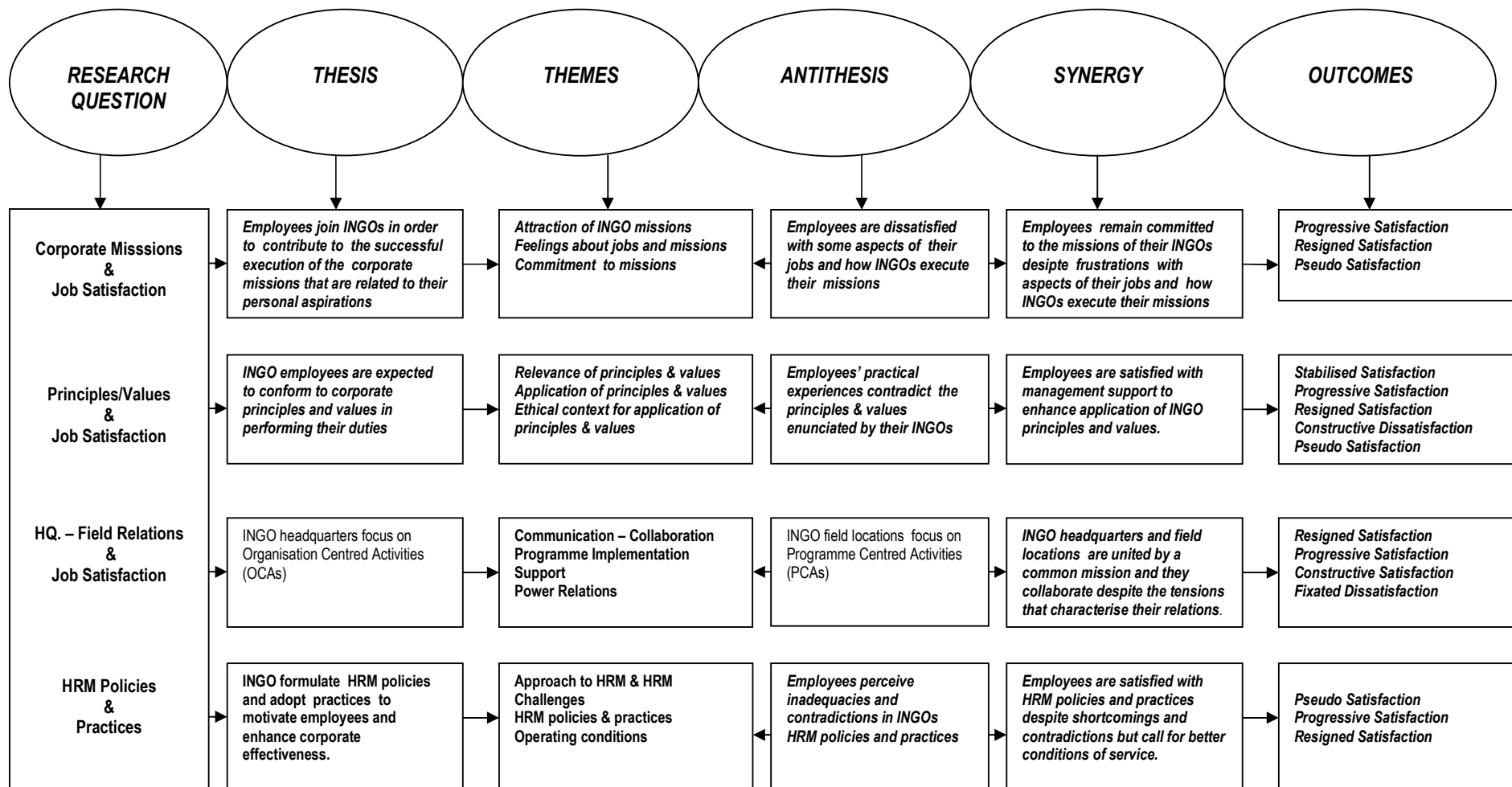


Figure. 6.1 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR JOB SATISFACTION AMONG EMPLOYEES IN INTERNATIONAL NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS

Source : Developed for this research by the author. NB. Aspects in BOLD ITALICS indicate changes made to the interim conceptual framework presented in Section 3.4.

6.4. Discussion and Conclusions

6.4.1. What effects do the missions or specialities of INGOs have on the job satisfaction of their employees?

By exploring why employees join INGOs and their perceptions of their jobs and how their organisations pursue their missions this research was able to assess the nature of their job satisfaction and their commitment to their organisations. Analysis of interview data indicates that most of the research participants are satisfied with their jobs and how their INGOs execute corporate missions even as they face mission- market dilemma (Dolnicar et al., 2008; Brown et al., 2004).

Most of the research participants joined their organisations because they associate with corporate missions and values espoused by particular organisations and or the objectives of organisations in the INGO sector in general. Such personal objectives and aspirations range from the desire to support local communities to helping the vulnerable and less privileged. In the cases mentioned above the mission of INGOs or the nature of activities performed by organisations in the sector played an important part in the decision of employees to join INGOs (Brown et al., 2004; Wright & Pandey, 2007; Wright, 2007). Like in other sectors, there were those research participants that joined their INGOs or the sector by chance either because they saw it a career move or an opportunity to do something different. Most of the employees in both groups later developed a sense of commitment to the missions and values of their organisations.

Research participants that joined INGOs for altruistic or other reasons that are linked to INGO missions and values had the expectation that working for INGOs would give them the opportunity to achieve their personal objectives (Wright, 2007; Wright & Pandey, 2007).

As key players with global influence, INGOs face the challenge of operating more effectively and efficiently thereby becoming more competitive. Improving INGO management in line with the demands of the operating environment challenges INGO management culture that has traditionally been based on pursuit of social good or not-for-profit philosophy.

The change in INGO management philosophy has led some INGOs to embark on reorganisation in order to become more effective and in order to continue to access financial support especially that provided by institutional donors. In some cases, INGOs are required by institutional donors to decentralise and transfer roles and activities from their United Kingdom headquarters to field locations in Africa and other parts of the developing world. Another measure that INGOs have had to take is to re-examine and redefine their missions in order to remain relevant and continue to enjoy the support and confidence of stakeholders in pursuing their missions. The introduction of change management initiatives, review of work force levels and overhead costs to achieve cost efficiency and application of sophisticated planning tools such as Logical Framework Analysis (LFA) are some of the other measures taken by INGOs to change the way they operate.

The policies that INGOs formulate and the practices that they adopt in meeting the challenges outlined above including the requirement to be more transparent and accountable in the way they operate have affected their employees in different ways. INGO employees therefore interpret or perceive measures taken by their organisations in response to the demands of the operating environment differently. Such perceptions of the measures taken by INGOs to ensure their survival influence how employees perceive their individual jobs and the performance of their organisations.

Some of the research participants were dissatisfied with their organisations' performance mainly because of disappointing job related experiences. One research participant was unhappy that he had to work on outstanding accounts in order to enable a national member of his INGO to access programme funds. Whilst he acknowledged that reconciling outstanding accounts was very important he was disappointed that he could not meet his personal objective of contributing to capacity building by training his local counterparts during the assignment (Makela, 2007). Another research participant was disappointed that she was made to focus on administration instead of programme coordination that was her main job.

In the face of global economic recession resource mobilisation continues to be a major challenge facing INGOs. The uncertainty surrounding availability of funds to implement programmes leads to constant review of budgets and operational strategies. INGO employees whose jobs are affected by delays in decision making, frequent restructuring and budgetary reviews are disappointed with what they perceive as lack of strategic direction. Disappointment with performance of some INGOs also revolved round their inability to seize the advantage that their global membership network and brand popularity gives them over their competitors. In expressing dissatisfaction with the performance of their organisations, research participants acknowledged the challenges that INGOs face in meeting stakeholders' demands especially in relation to raising funds for programme implementation.

Most of the research participants interviewed for this research were generally satisfied with their jobs and how their organisations approached the execution of their missions despite the dissatisfaction and disappointments highlighted above. Research participants were satisfied with the challenge of contributing to INGO survival and mission execution in a difficult operating environment. The impact that the programmes embarked upon by different INGOs had on the lives of beneficiaries was a source of pride to some of the research participants.

The different reasons given by most of the research participants for remaining in their organisations or in the INGO sector should be considered in relation to research findings regarding the motivational purpose of corporate mission in nonprofits. Research findings emphasise the important role that corporate mission plays in motivating employees in nonprofits (Brown et al., 2004, Hailey, 2000; Suzuki, 1998). In this research, interviews with INGO employees reveal that whilst change in management culture has affected how INGOs operate and how employees perform their duties, INGO employees are still motivated by and committed to corporate missions. The different reasons given by some of the research participants are linked to their motivation for joining INGOs. Some of the research participants (5.6 - 5.8;5.10; 5.24;5.9 – 5.30) indicated that they would remain in their organisations because of their attachment to the missions of those organisations (Koh & Boh, 2004) and their desire to contribute to realisation of their organisations' missions (Shore & Tetric, 1991). Some of the research participants attach great importance to the fact that they share the religious faith on which their organisations' missions are based (UK1; UK12; 5.24). The commitment to missions as expressed by research participants reinforces the finding that the importance that INGO employees attach to their corporate mission is a factor that contributes to the success of organisations in the sector (Suzuki, 1998; Brewster & Lee, 2006). Commitment to corporate mission that forms the basis for research participants remaining in their organisations or the INGO sector also indicates that the nature of corporate missions may provide sufficient intrinsic motivation that compensates employees that do not enjoy certain incentives that are available mainly to workers in private sector organisations (Wright, 2007; Wright & Pandey 2007).

Other reasons that research participants advanced for remaining with their organisations or why they might leave INGO underline the fact that employee commitment in INGOs is similar in some respects to what exists in other sectors. Some of the research participants derived satisfaction from their jobs because they enjoyed the opportunity to learn about other cultures (5.21; 5.22), and develop new skills (5.16). Those personal factors indicate the bases of commitment of some of the research participants to their INGOs. A participant (AFR 8) indicated that his decision to remain in his current organisation was based on the consideration that a new organisation might not necessarily perform better. Cunningham (2001) noted that whilst employees in the nonprofits may not be motivated by financial gains it is reasonable for them to expect that they would be paid well enough to afford good standard of living. One research participant (UK2) expressed satisfaction with her work environment which she noted was better than what other people experience in the business sector. However, she indicated that she might leave her INGO because her salary could no longer sustain her. Various reasons given by research participants for remaining in their INGOs or the sector relate to affective, continuance and normative types of commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Statistical analysis of survey data indicated that there is no significant relationship between participants' overall job satisfaction and the different types of INGOs they worked for (Table 5.11). Across the different types of INGOs most of the research participants reported that they were satisfied with their jobs and how INGOs pursued corporate missions (Table 5.12). That result does not directly support or contradict the findings from qualitative analysis of interview data especially with respect to the importance of employee commitment in the INGO context. However, the indication that most of the research participants were satisfied with their jobs and how their organisations approached mission execution is consistent with the conclusion from qualitative data analysis.

The result from statistical analysis of survey data could equally be explained in terms of the effect of recruiting professionals from the business sector into the INGO sector (Cunningham, 2001) in order to improve performance. That trend or process that has been described as professionalization may have the effect of making INGO employees survival oriented as opposed to being mission driven (Walker 2007) more so that work activities and processes in INGOs are now similar to those in other sectors (Suzuki, 1998). It has also been argued that INGO employees do not have to agree with or share their organisations' values or be committed to their missions to perform effectively (Suzuki, 1998).

Conclusion

The pressures that their operating environment exerts on INGOs expose them to conflicting institutional demands that have been described as mission-market dilemma (Dolnicar et al, 2008). In meeting those demands the policies that they formulate and the practices that they adopt influence how employees feel about their jobs and how their organisations execute their missions. Employees join INGOs for different reasons but a key factor that relates to the success of INGOs is employees' commitment to corporate missions. Whilst commitment to missions remains critical to INGO success, whether INGOs would be able to mobilise that commitment for much longer remains to be seen. The rate at which their operating environment is changing and the fact that INGOs face other institutional challenges apart from mission-market dilemma suggest that employee commitment to mission may begin to wane when those that are committed feel that their organisations' missions have diminished in importance (Wright, 2007; Wright & Pandey, 2007; Ridder et. al, 2010; Brown & Moore, 2001). In such a situation, continuance form of commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Allen & Meyer, 1990) may be predominant depending on individual circumstances and availability of other job opportunities. In effect employees will remain in their

INGOs based on the consideration that seeking other suitable opportunities may be difficult or the fact that leaving their organisations will lead to loss of benefits that their current jobs provide. On a positive note, the indication by some of the research participants that they were willing to address or that they foresee improvement regarding dissatisfying aspects of their jobs and issues pertaining to their organisations' missions indicates that mission valence (Ridder & McCandless, 2010; Wright & Pandey, 2007; Wright, 2007), job satisfaction and commitment (Mosadeghrad et al., 2008; Koh & Boo, 2004) may all increase.

Furthermore, analysis of interview data indicates that most of the employees manifested 'progressive' satisfaction regarding this research question. That establishes that most of the research participants perceive that there is a fit or congruence between their personal aspirations and practical experiences (Bussing et al., 1999) despite the tensions and contradictions operating in this dialectic. Employees that perceive that there is a fit between their aspirations and those of their organisations will show more commitment towards their organisations (Brown & Moore, 2001; Ying & Ahmad, 2008; Garland et al., 2009).

Whilst INGO policies and practices influence how employees perceive their jobs and their organisations' effectiveness in executing corporate missions, the key factors that underline employees' commitment to INGOs are their personal aspirations. Employees' personal aspirations supply employees necessary motivation to continue to commit to their organisations even as INGOs change the ways they operate in order to be competitive. The nature of personal aspirations to which the success of INGOs has been attributed is related to affective commitment which indicates strong attachment to organisational goals and values (Alatrasta & Arrowsmith, 2003; Shore & Tetric, 1991).

6.4.2. What effects does working according to corporate principles and values have on the job satisfaction of INGO employees?

Analysis of In-depth interviews with INGO employees support the finding in this research that participants are satisfied with application of corporate principles and values and ethical contexts in their INGOs. That finding was based on the consideration of the tensions and contradictions involved in how INGOs meet the conflicting demands of idealism and functionalism (Mowles, 2008).

INGOs are often regarded as values based organizations (Suzuki, 1998; Brewster & Lee, 2006). In the course of executing their missions, they and their employees are guided by principles and values that scholars argue differentiate INGOs from other organizations. The dynamic environment that INGOs operate in is a critical factor that determines the extent to which they are able to apply their principles and values. The need for INGOs to address concerns of various stakeholders means that they have to find a balance between adhering strictly to principles and values and demonstrating flexibility in order to meet the demands of those stakeholders (Mowles, 2008; Ebrahim, 2003; Hailey, 2000; Beck et al., 2008).

As a means of ensuring that in pursuing their objectives they and their employees behave ethically, INGOs take the application of principles and values seriously. They also rely on the principles and values to protect them in their interaction with other stakeholders especially business organizations with whom they collaborate to implement programmes. INGOs use principles and values to mobilize employees and external stakeholders for the achievement of objectives tied to their missions. INGOs either develop their own or adopt principles and values as members of networks. One key example of such adopted framework of principles and values is the INGO Accountability Charter. The commitment to be guided by the provisions of the charter

establishes that senior managers in INGOs believe that principles and values are still relevant in INGO operations. That belief is shared by research participants from different types of INGOs (5.33 – 5.34; 5.39 – 5.40). They believe that conformity or non-conformity to corporate principles and values would have some impact on INGO credibility as well as performance evaluation.

Research participants' perceptions of the effectiveness and relevance of their organizations' principles are based on the extent to which they are able to apply or behave according to INGO corporate ideals. Some of the participants observed that in performing their duties colleagues did not apply corporate principles and that some of their organizations' practices did not reflect commitment to corporate ideals (5.38-5.39; 5.42-5.43; 5.46-5.47). One of the main sources of violation of corporate principles is revenue generation drive that leads some organizations to resort to unethical practices (5.46; 5.48). The nature of some of the violations of principles and values reported by research participants indicate the challenge that INGOs face in operating according to their espoused principles and values (Fenton & Inglis, 2007; Walker, 2007). Apart from incidents of individual misconduct, research participants cited cases where INGOs compromised or acted unethically in order to achieve their objectives including failing to apply espoused principles and values in managing their employees. Other criticisms leveled against INGOs include the undue emphasis that they put on promoting principles and values instead of championing practical application of those principles and values. The contradictions between the values and principles that INGOs commit to and what they do in practice frustrate employees some of whom joined their organizations because they shared or strongly associate with INGO principles and values (5.33) (Valentine et al, 2006).

Considering the increasingly challenging environment that INGOs operate in one research participant called for pragmatism in the application of principles and values in order for his INGO to survive (5.49) (Madon, 2000). In effect adhering religiously to corporate principles and values may put an INGO at disadvantage in its competition with others.

Efforts made by INGO to enable improved application of principles and values include the implementation of HRM policies that reflect and reinforce corporate principles and values. They also pursue a deliberate policy of diversifying sources of their revenues (5.40-5.41; 5.45) in order to preserve their independence to act in line with their principles and values. According to the research participants, managers and management teams in INGOs help to create the supportive environment that employees need to apply principles and values consistently in carrying out their work (Valentine et. al., 2006; Baker et al., 2006; Fritz et al, 1999). INGOs also design and implement programmes based on their principles as means of demonstrating their commitment to those principles and values (Fention and Inglis, 2007; Thoms, 2008). By designing and implementing programmes based on corporate principles and values INGOs mobilise employees as critical stakeholders(5.34 – 5.35; 5.37;5.40) (Mowles, 2008; Schwepker, 2001; Valentine et al., 2006). The efforts made above by INGOs to enhance individual and corporate capacities to act according to principles and values account for the satisfaction expressed by interview participants with the application of INGO principles and values in their organisations.

Most of the research participants were divided equally between 'pseudo' and 'progressive' forms of job satisfaction regarding the application of principles and values in their organisations. It is not surprising that the proportion of those that manifested 'pseudo' satisfaction is approximately the same as those that were 'progressively' satisfied in view of the series of violations of corporate principles and values cited by different research participants. Progressive satisfaction is the highest level of job satisfaction among the six forms of job satisfaction in the

dynamic model of job satisfaction and it indicates a good fit between employees' aspirations and their work experiences (Bussing et al., 1999; Bussing & Bissels, 1998).

On the other hand pseudo satisfaction suggests that there are discrepancies between employees' aspirations and their work experiences (Bussing et al., 1999; Bussing & Bissels, 1998). It is a disguised form of dissatisfaction that is characterised by deliberate distortion of perception by an employee to conform to strong social norms or to achieve a valued objective (Bussing et al., 1999; Bussing & Bissels, 1998). Thus, the notion that INGOs are values based organisations (Brewster & Lee, 2006; Suzuki, 1998) could as a norm influence or cause denial or distortion of dissatisfaction with application of principles and values. Denial of dissatisfaction with application of principles may also be motivated by employees' desire to achieve personal objectives that are symptomatic of either continuance or normative commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Allen & Meyer, 1990). Based on the dominant position in the literature that job satisfaction leads to organisational commitment (Mackenzie et al., 1998; Koh & Boo, 2004) 'pseudo' satisfaction is more likely to be associated with either continuance or normative commitment because employees' commitment increase when their organisations meet more of their needs (Koh & Boo, 2004).

Result of statistical analysis for this research question indicates that there is a relationship between overall job satisfaction and corporate principles and values (Table 5.13). About ninety-seven percent (97.9%) of the survey respondents that reported that they were satisfied with the application of principles and values reported overall job satisfaction. That result is consistent with those reported in other studies that concluded that employees that are satisfied with corporate values and principles are more likely to report overall job satisfaction (Valentine et al, 2006; Elci & Alpan, 2009; Schewpker, 2001).

Conclusion

Given the challenging environment in which INGOs operate, employees and their organisations will continue to face ethically challenging issues. It is therefore vital that INGOs and their employees are able to deal with the tensions and contradictions involved in applying principles and values. Achieving that objective calls for a functional approach (Mowles, 2008) that is predicated on discovering what values mean in particular situations. The call for review of INGO principles and values and pragmatic approach in applying them (5.49; 5.42) is in line with the proposal that INGOs adopt a functional as opposed to idealistic approach to the application of principles and values (Mowles, 2008). That position is important in view of the argument that it is unrealistic for INGOs to expect that they will be able to adhere strictly to their principles whilst operating in challenging and dynamic environment (Van Woudenberg, 2005).

Whether employees perceive their managers as ethical and supportive of ethical behaviour or not influences their perception of ethical contexts in their organisation and their job satisfaction (Baker et. al., 2006; Thoms, 2008; Fritz et al., 1999). In that regard, cases of violation of corporate principles by senior managers cited by research participants demoralises employees (Mowles, 2008). INGO principles and values remain very important guidelines for organisational activities including the engagement of stakeholders. Analysis of interview data indicates that employees' personal values and values of those around them are also important to the extent that they serve as frames of reference when employees have to handle or examine issues (5.44;5.46;5.48) that have ethical implications (Valentine et al., 2006).

6.4.3. What effects do the working relations between INGO Headquarters and field offices have on the job satisfaction of employees?

INGOs have to contend with the dialectical tensions and contradictions that are involved in the process of maintaining a balance between OCAs and PCAs (Suzuki, 1998). Research evidence presented in Chapter 5 indicates that INGO employees at the headquarters and their field-based counterparts are committed to addressing dissatisfying aspects of the challenging working relations that they have with each other.

INGOs review their structures fairly regularly in order to be able to respond to challenges in the operating environment especially the need to move services or personnel or both closer to beneficiaries or stakeholders. As stakeholders continue to pressurize INGOs to decentralize their activities, major INGOs retain structures that still give much authority to INGO headquarters. Changes in organizational structures and allocation of resources affect how employees perform their duties, interact with each other and collaborate. Federative structure is common among large INGOs, and in what could be theoretically described as neat differentiation of roles and allocation of authority, the headquarters formulate operational strategies, promote INGO ideals, generate and allocate funds for programme implementation. They are also responsible for corporate activities such as providing information on programmes to partners, ensuring financial accountability and providing technical assistance to field locations to enable effective and efficient programme implementation.

INGO Field or country offices on the other hand are responsible for programme delivery and implementation of change management initiatives based on the strategies and guidelines formulated by their headquarters. The tensions and contradictions that are involved in INGOs' efforts to maintain a balance between OCAs and PCAs become manifest when

headquarters and field locations operate the structure designed to ensure that both locations function effectively and collaboratively. With the headquarters of most INGOs located in the United Kingdom, coordinating the activities of the field offices in Africa constitutes a major challenge.

In working with their field offices colleagues research participants based in the UK express frustration that they are unable to maintain contact with field locations due to poor communication infrastructure in most locations, poor attitude to work, personality clashes and the fact that field locations see the fulfillment of important reporting requirements as unnecessary burden (5.50; 5.54 – 5.55).

Research participants in INGO field locations are dissatisfied with lack of clear strategic direction, conflicting messages from their headquarters on reorganization and their inability to influence changes in management practices due to the control that headquarters have over financial matters. The effect of lack of consultation and lack of clear direction from headquarters is that field based personnel are left confused. A field based expatriate was quite conscious of headquarters authority over financial matters that he refers to it as 'power of money'. He said that managers at the headquarters would listen to suggestions whenever it pleases them to do so. (5.58 – 5.59). Lack of consultation over fundamental issues such as reorganization was another source of dissatisfaction for field personnel. Headquarters are also seen as ineffective in providing technical support to field locations to enable successful programme implementation. According to field based employees their headquarters' technical departments are understaffed. Field based research participants were also of the view that their headquarters colleagues were not familiar enough with programme issues to provide the level of support that programme officers require. On that basis, a programme coordinator indicated that she stopped contacting the technical department at her INGO's headquarters (5.60-5.61; 5.66). Field locations are also dissatisfied with the pressure put on them by headquarters to adopt new models and implement

policies which they believe are not relevant to the local contexts in which they are meant to be applied (5.64 – 5.65).

In discharging their functions INGO headquarters communicate with field locations, specify work standards and ensure that OCAs that field locations are required to support are completed on schedule. In discharging its functions headquarters exercises its powers as the strategic apex (Mintzberg, 1979) of INGO organizational structure.

Research participants from both locations appreciate the importance of maintaining good relations with each other. One of the sources of tensions in the relations between them is the disagreement over what should be prioritized at different times. Employees in both locations are usually convinced that their area of responsibility should come first. For programme personnel in field locations ensuring that programmes are delivered on time and within budget and to the satisfaction of beneficiaries is the priority. At the headquarters end, getting progress reports to donors and programme partners is crucial to the survival of the organization and therefore deserves priority attention.

The difference in their priorities means that in order for both locations to discharge their responsibilities effectively so that INGO could achieve its objectives they have to maintain good working relations based on mutual support and understanding. Whilst headquarters chart strategic direction and exercise control over allocation of programme funds, the relationship between the two locations is that of interdependence (Caruso et al., 2007).

Research participants based at INGO headquarters appreciate that poor communication facilities and inadequate staffing make it difficult for field offices to combine programme implementation with meeting headquarters demands and requirements. In some cases, headquarters personnel provide practical support to field offices to enable them to overcome communication problems and enhance their ability to deliver on critical tasks (5.50-5.52).

Conscious of the challenges that field locations face headquarters personnel handle their interactions with field offices with tact and understanding (5.51-5.52; 5.56; 5.68 – 5.69). Field based research participants on their part appreciate the level of support that headquarters are able to provide and that colleagues at the headquarters are under pressure to meet information requirements of funding partners (5.57;5.61 – 5.62). On that basis both locations are able to forge a synergy that is based on improved understanding of their inter-dependent relations and shared commitment to the same corporate mission (Suzuki, 1998).

Dialectical analysis of interview data indicates that the two predominant forms of satisfaction and dissatisfaction manifested by research participants were 'resigned' satisfaction and 'constructive' dissatisfaction. That finding is not surprising considering the catalogue of issues and complaints that each location brought up against the other during the interviews for this research. The resolve to work together also underlines the importance of good headquarters – field-working relations both for employees' job satisfaction and for INGO effectiveness (Suzuki, 1998).

Manifestation of 'constructive' dissatisfaction indicates that most of the research participants are committed to improving their relations with their headquarters or field locations counterparts as existing relations fall short of their expectations. 'Resigned' satisfaction suggests that INGO employees are dissatisfied with the headquarters- field working relations and they lower their expectations of each other in order to achieve satisfaction with the relations (Bussing et al., 1999).

Conclusion

Headquarters – field relations are complex essentially because of the key elements that create tensions such as difference in priorities (Suzuki, 1998), resource allocation, division of work, authority and communication (Young et al., 2003; Newman, 1975). The complaint by field based personnel that they are compelled by headquarters to send reports upon reports and implement unsuitable solutions in field locations indicate that they may be perceiving role conflict, which causes dissatisfaction or lowers job satisfaction (Mohr & Puck, 2007; Foreman, 1999). The relations between headquarters and field locations especially the complaints raised by field based personnel that are consistent with perceptions and manifestation of role conflict include stress, poor interpersonal relations, lower levels of trust and respect for the parties thought to be responsible for the imposition of conflicting demands and pressure (Mohr & Puck, 2007; Foreman, 1999). The admission by one headquarters official that she and her colleagues put pressure on field locations and imposed regulations on them to get tasks done because they were also under pressure illustrates the tension that characterizes field –headquarters working relations (5.69). The fact that both locations had different perceptions about their relations stemmed from the fact they had different experiences and interpretations of their working relations based on their different positions and locations in the INGO organizational structure (Newman, 1975).

Statistical analysis of survey data in Tables 5.15 and 5.16 established that there is an association between overall job satisfaction and headquarters – field locations working relations. Results of statistical analysis of survey data underline the importance of good headquarters – field-working relations to overall job satisfaction. The variables that were measured in statistical analysis confirm findings of earlier studies regarding the existence of relationship between employee job satisfaction and communication, co-worker relations and, supervision (Goris, 2007; Spector, 1997; Ducharme & Martin, 2000).

Resigned' satisfaction and 'constructive' dissatisfaction manifested by most of the research participants suggests that the determination demonstrated by research participants from headquarters and field locations to work on their relations in the overall interest of their organizations is based on pragmatism.

6.4.4. What effects do HRM Policies and practices in INGOs have on job satisfaction of employees?

As INGOs strive to become strategic in HRM, they face the challenge of adopting commitment –focused SHRM philosophy as well as that of achieving objectives that are associated with control-focused SHRM philosophy (Nishii et al, 2008). Under this research question, the implications of the tensions inherent in adopting conflicting SHRM philosophies are explored with a view to understanding their effects on job satisfaction among INGO employees.

The call for INGOs to adopt a strategic approach to HRM cannot be louder than now given the challenge that they face in a very competitive environment (Cunningham, 2001; Brewster, & Lee, 2006). Some of the initiatives pursued by INGOs involve cultural change and organisational restructuring (5.76 – 5.77; 5.60). INGOs strive to achieve equity and consistency in HR policies and practices but encounter problems in achieving those objectives due to the effects of legal provisions, differences in culture and economic development in the various locations where they operate. An innovative resourcing strategy that would enable INGOs to empower and develop local talent was being explored by a faith-based INGO as part of its efforts to adopt a strategic approach to HRM.

The introduction of different initiatives to enhance corporate effectiveness has exposed the weaknesses of some INGOs in the areas of people and change management (5.76 – 5.77; 5.60). The issues raised by some of the research participants include lack of consultation by INGO headquarters that impose change initiatives on field offices as part of embedding new ways of working. Research

participants are also dissatisfied with HR management policies and practices that create tensions between expatriates and locally recruited personnel (5.72; 5.74 – 5.75), poor recruitment practices (5.85) and lack of career planning (5.79 – 5.80; 5.84 – 5.85).

Two expatriates felt that their organisation's recruitment and reward management practices discriminated against fellow expatriates who were placed on lower salaries and less attractive benefits because they were not sponsored by financially strong members of the INGO (5.42;5.76). Research participants one of whom was an HR professional noted that HR functions in their organisations did not have good reputation (5.79 – 5.80; 5.84). One research participant also criticised his INGO for deploying expatriates who were not as competent as local counterparts to field locations. In his view such a practice would increase the tension in the relations between expatriates and local personnel (5.58 – 5.59). He was frustrated that his recommendation would not be taken seriously by the headquarters. The use of volunteers as a cost saving measure by a major INGO was identified as a practice that was inconsistent with its values (5.46).

Poor communication infrastructure in most field locations is a source of tension between INGO personnel based in the UK and their counterparts in field locations. Effective human resource management becomes more difficult than normal when communication between supervising departments at the headquarters or the HR functions and field offices is slow or ineffective. Poor management of international assignments is another issue that field based expatriates are unhappy about. An expatriate complained that she was hired and deployed to the field as a programme coordinator but on arriving at the location, she was surprised to discover that she did more administrative work than programme coordination. She was unhappy and felt that the headquarters had deceived her into accepting that assignment by not indicating that

the administrative content of the job would be heavy (5.19). Another expatriate was also bitter that during his assignment he was made to devote most of his time to the reconciliation of outstanding accounts which meant he had no time to contribute to the development of his local counterpart as much as he desired (5.17).

An expatriate complained about how his employers failed to take seriously safety concerns the he and his colleagues reported formally to field office and INGO headquarters (5.93-5.94). INGO's poor induction arrangement came under criticism (5.83) and the practice of promoting technically sound professionals into management jobs without equipping them to manage properly was identified as an area of weakness in HRM in INGOs (5.88) (Brewster & Lee, 2006).

The issues and complaints listed above would suggest that most of the research participants would be highly dissatisfied with HRM practices in their INGOs. Interview evidence indicates that they are generally satisfied with HRM practices and approach to HRM in their organisations despite the shortcomings highlighted above. One research participant (UK 2) expresses the confidence that her INGO's efforts to institutionalise strategic approach to HRM will yield desired dividends because proper foundation for improvement in HR practices had been established (5.78). Research participants value the opportunities they have to develop their skills and they are generally satisfied with their salaries, training and development opportunities (5.16 – 5.17; 5.81– 5.82). As a recent beneficiary, one participant (UK2) was very satisfied that her INGO demonstrated its commitment to women's development by implementing policies that facilitate smooth return to work from maternity leave (5.45).

The knowledge that INGOs do not pay high salaries like business organisations is not a discouraging factor for some of the research participants. They are happy with other benefits and privileges that INGOs provide such as learning about other cultures and meeting new people (5.20 . 5.22). Research participants also enjoy the opportunity to fulfil personal ambitions such as helping the needy and vulnerable (5.24; 5.29);

Statistical analysis of survey data indicates that there is a relationship between overall job satisfaction and HRM practices (Tables 5.17 – 5.18). The result suggests that research participants that are satisfied with HRM practices are more likely to report overall job satisfaction (Petrescu & Simmons, 2008; Nishii et al., 2008; Saari & Judge, 2004).

Conclusion

Overall, the finding in this research corroborates the key findings and conclusions in the first comprehensive assessment of the state of HR in INGOs that was conducted by Brewster and Lee (2006). Various criticisms leveled against HR departments and weaknesses highlighted in HRM practices in INGOs largely support the conclusion that HRM is not yet a strategic issue in INGOs (Brewster & Lee, 2006).

Few of the research participants that commented on recruitment and selection process in their INGOs identified the need to make the process discrimination free and more transparent. The expatriate –local staff dichotomy continues to be an issue for INGOs. However, it must be said that MNCs still face the same challenge even though they have better systems and processes to manage issues relating to expatriation. (Bonache et.al, 2001). Some INGOs still conduct rushed induction training that does very little to prepare expatriates for international

assignments (Suzuki, 1998). Linked to adequate pre-departure briefing and training is the need for INGOs to provide simple but clear information on expatriate assignments. Such information will minimize frustration and disappointment resulting from expatriates not preparing for the nature of tasks that they may be required to undertake to meet programme related objectives in field locations . Most of the research participants identified training and development as one of the strong points of their organizations.

Some INGOs operate in conflict zones and other environments where employees may be exposed to danger. One research participant criticised his INGO for not paying enough attention to the security concerns he raised despite following appropriate incident reporting procedures. The fact that INGOs engage in different activities means that different INGOs will have different health, safety and security concerns (Fast, 2007). The wide range of issues covered in this research means that INGO employees may suffer physical harm (5.93 – 5.94) in field operations or stress due to bureaucracy (5.89 – 5.91) or other work-related pressure (People in Aid Code, 2003). Uncertainty that surrounds the survival of some of the INGOs, introduction of change initiatives, and tension in relations between headquarters and field locations and handling ethically challenging issues are potential sources of stress for INGO employees. Employees have to cope with various demands attached to their jobs. How they cope with those demands including whether they have any input into how their work environment could be improved and availability of support mechanisms will influence or determine the level or nature of their job satisfaction (Spector, 1997; O'Neil & Arendt, 2008).

That most of the research participants are satisfied with HRM practices in their INGOs suggests that on balance INGOs' efforts to combine HRM practices driven by commitment –focused and control – focused SHRM philosophies (Nishii et al., 2008) have not had adverse effects on employees' job satisfaction. If the introduction or application of HRM practices that are based on control-focused SHRM philosophy is accepted by employees as necessary such understanding may influence a positive interpretation of those practices notwithstanding the underlying SHRM philosophy. On the other hand if employees regard HRM practices as having been imposed on them, such view may have negative influence on interpretation of the practices by employees which may affect their reactions or job satisfaction (Kinnie et al., 2005; Nishii et al, 2008).

6.4.5. What are the differences and similarities in job satisfaction perceived by INGO employees based in the United Kingdom and Africa?

Comparative analysis of data based on locations of employees considers the effects of organisational structure on employees' job satisfaction. Such comparative analysis involving INGO employees in the United Kingdom and Africa is predicated on the finding that employees in different locations will interpret their work experiences differently by using different frames of reference (Newman, 1975).

Q1. INGO Mission and Employee Job Satisfaction

Analysis of in-depth interviews demonstrated that research participants across the two locations were satisfied with their jobs and how INGOs approach the execution of corporate missions. Research participants from the United Kingdom were more satisfied with their jobs and how their organisations executed corporate missions. The predominant form of job satisfaction for research participants based in the United Kingdom was 'progressive' whilst that of field-based research participants was split between 'progressive' and 'resigned' forms of satisfaction. Research participants from African locations that manifested 'resigned' satisfaction are 'indistinctly' dissatisfied with their jobs and how their INGOs execute corporate missions. In effect, there are discrepancies between their personal aspirations and their actual experiences regarding those issues.

For the United Kingdom based participants, manifestation of progressive satisfaction means that their personal aspirations are congruent with their actual work situation or experience. They are able to increase their level of satisfaction by resolving problems relating to their jobs and how their INGOs execute missions. This analysis applies as well to research

participants from Africa that manifested 'progressive' satisfaction. The finding following analysis of forms of job satisfaction is that congruence between individual aspiration and actual work experience will lead to increase in satisfaction (Bussing et al., 1999), which in this case is with individual jobs and how INGOs execute their missions. The findings for both sets of research participants from the UK and Africa underline the importance of corporate mission as far as job satisfaction of INGO employees is concerned (Brown et al., 2004; Ridder et al, 2010).

The realisation by research participants that manifested 'resigned' satisfaction that discrepancy exists between their personal aspirations or expectations and actual work situation may make them to distance themselves from corporate missions which may no longer be 'engaging, attractive and worthwhile' (Wright & Pandey, 2007:1). Wright and Pandey (2007) argue that the more employees see corporate mission as their mission (congruence) the more they are likely to contribute to its realisation. When employees own and commit to corporate mission, they manifest affective commitment whereas lack of commitment to corporate goals and mission is likely to lead to continuance or normative commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Comparative quantitative analysis established that for both locations there is no relationship between overall job satisfaction and INGO type or mission (Table 5.19). The explanation offered in Section 6.4 is also relevant here. Increasing professionalization in the INGO sector that is characterised by recruitment of professionals from the business sector (Cunningham, 2001) may have the effect of making INGO employees output or survival driven as opposed to being mission driven (Walker, 2007). The fact was argued by Suzuki (1998) that work activities in INGOs are now so similar to those in other sectors that workers may perform their duties effectively without committing to or sharing INGO corporate values.

Q2. Principles and Values and Employee Job Satisfaction

Most research participants from both locations see their organisations' principles and values as relevant and important (Wright & Pandey, 2007). Some of the research participants in African locations believe their organisations' principles and values are outdated and should be reviewed to reflect current realities. They argue that the principles and values were developed long before their INGOs became influential global players. Research participants in Africa face more ethically challenging situations because of their involvement in delivering front-line services to beneficiaries. Some professionals in Africa believe that their organisations' values are not relevant to their jobs, which reinforces the argument about possible effects of professionalization (Cunningham, 2001; Suzuki, 1998) on the application of INGO principles and values.

Participants in both locations operate in ethical contexts that enable effective application of principles and values (Valentine et al., 2006). The implication of having supportive ethical contexts is that managers model ethical behaviour in ways that have positive influence on employees' perceptions of corporate ethical contexts (Mowles, 2008).

The suggestion that in order to be competitive INGOs should be pragmatic is consistent with the concept of functionalism by which INGOs are required to discover what a principle or value means in the context in which it is to be applied instead of defining principles and values with the mindset that they are not negotiable (Mowles, 2008). The call for pragmatism is also in line with argument that the changes taking place in the INGO operating environment are such that it would be unrealistic for INGOs to expect that they could adhere religiously to their principles (Van Woudenberg, 2005).

Statistical analysis of data for UK based survey respondents established that there is no relationship between overall job satisfaction and application of principles and values (Table 5.19). Statistical analysis of data for Africa indicated that there is a relationship between application of principles and values and overall job satisfaction.

The result obtained for Africa serves to underline the importance of applying corporate principles and values in the delivery of INGO programmes. Suzuki's (1998) argument about INGO work activities being similar to those in other sectors may not apply here because services delivered by INGO personnel in field locations or conflict zones still differentiate organizations in the sector from those in other sectors (People in Aid Code, 2003; Brewster & Lee, 2006).

Q3. INGO HQ. and Field locations working Relations and Employee Job Satisfaction

Research participants from both locations are frustrated with certain aspects of their working relations with each other. The sources of tension in their relations were difference in their priorities, the fact that their INGOs had to meet the demands of many stakeholders, perceived uncooperative attitude, poor communication, and headquarters control over resource mobilisation and allocation. Both locations depend on each other just as the effective performance of INGOs depends on the working relations between both locations (Suzuki, 1998). Despite the tensions and contradictions that characterise their relations both locations are still satisfied with working relations that they have with each other.

Analysis of forms of job satisfaction established that most of the participants in African locations manifested 'resigned' and 'fixated' dissatisfaction. Those forms of dissatisfaction indicate that the research participants in Africa are conscious of the discrepancies that exist in their working relations with their organisations' headquarters.

Statistical analysis of data (Table 5.21) established that for both locations there is a relationship between overall job satisfaction and working relations. That result underscores the critical importance of good headquarters – field-working relations for the success of INGOs (Suzuki, 1998)

Q.4 HRM Practices and Job Satisfaction

Research participants from both locations identify some weaknesses in HRM functions and contradictions in policies and practices in their organisations. The fact that research participants based in African locations were more critical of HRM practices in INGOs reinforces the view that not much progress has been made by INGOs in adopting strategic approach to HRM.

However, most of the research participants from both locations are generally satisfied with HRM practices as well as terms and conditions of service in their organisations. INGO headquarters had more research participants that manifested 'progressive' satisfaction than field locations. Statistical analysis of survey data for both locations (Table 5.19) established that there is relationship between overall job satisfaction and HRM practices. Participants in both locations derive benefits from working with INGOs that compensate for the shortcomings in HRM policies and practices (Wright, 2007). Their satisfaction could also be attributed to the positive interpretation that they give to HRM practices that are largely based on control-focused SHRM philosophy (Nishii et al., 2008; Kinnie et al., 2005).

6.5. Conclusions about Research Problem

Job satisfaction continues to attract more research attention than any other subject in the field of organisational behaviour. The environment in which all international organisations operate continues to be influenced by forces of globalisation. The compelling need to adapt to changes in their operating environment means that INGOs embark upon strategic reviews and other initiatives to ensure corporate survival. In the fast changing operating environment, institutional isomorphism reigns supreme as INGOs adopt business sector strategies and practices in order to remain relevant and competitive. In the last few years, major INGOs such as Amnesty, Tearfund and Christian Aid have reviewed either their missions or organisational structures.

The argument that the ways that INGOs respond to changes in their operating environment influences the nature and level of job satisfaction perceived by employees is well supported by the findings of this research. Seeking answers to the questions raised in this research underlined the complexity of job satisfaction as a concept.

As stated in Chapter 4, this research was designed to achieve deep understanding of job satisfaction among INGO employees in a way that enables analytic generalisation. In that regard, it is pertinent to explain why and how most of the INGO employees that participated in this research were able to achieve overall job satisfaction despite the tensions that they faced and the contradictions between corporate policies and practices.

Analysis of data supports the conclusion that the research participants were satisfied with their jobs because they demonstrated enough resilience to overcome frustrations and tensions they faced in different aspects of their jobs. As key findings of this research, the dialectical synergies derived for the research questions contribute to the understanding of job

satisfaction in INGOs. They explain job satisfaction in the INGO sector as that which is based on employee commitment to their organisations and pragmatic approach to the application of corporate principles and values in improved ethical contexts. Furthermore, most of the research participants resolved to work together despite the difficult relations between headquarters and field locations.

6.6. Contribution to knowledge

The findings of this research represent fresh insights into employee job satisfaction in INGOs. In addition this research makes independent and original contribution to knowledge in the following ways.

Conceptual Framework

This study contributes to job satisfaction literature by proposing a theoretical framework that adopts typology of qualitative forms of job satisfaction (Bussing & Bissels, 1998). The framework deploys Hegel's (1807) dialectic as overarching heuristic to investigate and explain some of the effects of organizational policies and practices on job satisfaction of employees in INGOs. A key assumption of the theoretical framework is that the policies and practices that INGOs adopt in response to changes in their operating environment are characterized by tensions and contradictions that influence how employees perceive their jobs. It is therefore essential to understand how and whether those tensions and contradictions are resolved in order to gain greater understanding of job satisfaction in INGOs.

The conceptual framework presented in this chapter takes a sophisticated view of job satisfaction. Designing the interpretation of employee accounts of their job experiences around dialectical tensions and job satisfaction typology represents a new but dynamic dimension to the study of job satisfaction. That approach is a radical departure from the listing or identification of factors that account for employee satisfaction and dissatisfaction that is a key feature of most studies on job satisfaction. The theories underpinning the conceptual framework are integrated in way that enhances its robustness and adaptability to the study of job satisfaction in other sectors.

Classification of INGOs

The INGO classification framework developed for this study from International Classification for Non-profit Organizations (ICNPO) provides a simple but logical approach that studies focusing on INGOs could adopt to categorise organisations in that sector.

Focus of Research on INGO Sector

The focus of this research on employees in the INGO sector is a significant contribution to INGO management literature considering the earlier observation that it is a field that is dominated by practitioner-oriented and atheoretical contributions (see Lewis, 2006). This research contributes in particular to the filling of the gap in job satisfaction literature that has no contribution focusing directly and extensively on job satisfaction among employees of INGOs. The cross-cultural perspective of NGO job satisfaction that this research provides represents a unique contribution to job satisfaction literature that is saturated with case studies on large organisations in the business sector.

Mixed Research Methods

The job satisfaction literature is dominated by quantitative studies that emphasise hypothesis testing. Pragmatic combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods in this research opens the door for other researchers to explore the use of different models of mixed methods research in advancing job satisfaction research.

6.7 Reflective Critique

Basing this research's conceptual framework on Hegel's dialectic enabled this researcher to adopt a creative, flexible and sophisticated approach to data analysis and interpretation. It must be noted that not all the research interview participants provided materials that fit into his conceptual framework. However, this researcher minimised the risk of exclusion or under-representation by capturing rich perspectives provided by participants whose narratives did not fit his framework in the thematic analysis of interview data.

Combining qualitative and quantitative research methods enriched the findings of this research. Examining job satisfaction from a mixed methods perspective enabled this researcher to provide insights that would have been inaccessible by simply formulating and testing hypotheses. The integrated data analysis matrix developed by this researcher facilitated the task of linking the research questions raised in this study with themes derived from research interviews and relevant aspects of the research questionnaire. This researcher however discovered that adopting a sequential approach to data collection instead of collecting qualitative and quantitative data 'concurrently' would have improved the conduct of analysis. Amending and revalidating the questionnaire used for data collection after conducting in-depth the interviews would have minimised the difficulty that this researcher faced in mapping questionnaire items with themes derived from in-depth interviews.

6.8. Suggestions for Future Research

This research focused on INGOs that operate in the United Kingdom and Africa. Future research efforts that focus on INGOs that operate in other parts of the world such as Asia and Latin America are likely to generate insights and provide credible basis for assessing the applicability of the findings from this research to other geographical locations.

This research was not designed to capture separately the views of senior managers and employees in other categories. Future research focusing on managers and employees in the same INGOs but in different locations will contribute to better understanding of job satisfaction in INGOs.

The current increase in the number of studies that adopt mixed methods is a development that will be beneficial to researchers that are interested in job satisfaction. With the progress being made by mixed methods scholars in integrating qualitative and quantitative data analysis, adopting mixed methods in studying aspects or facets of job satisfaction in INGOs will contribute to improved understanding of the concept. Such research efforts should go beyond whether employees are satisfied or dissatisfied by focusing on the types or forms of job satisfaction perceived by employees. Such shift in emphasis will improve academic understanding of job satisfaction and provide clearer basis for the improvement of policies and practices by HRM practitioners.

The agenda for further research proposed above is consistent with the position taken in this research that the concept of job satisfaction is complex and that improving academic understanding of job satisfaction requires a research philosophy that is based on pragmatism.

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**APPENDIX A1
AFRICA RESEARCH INTERVIEWS LIST**

Code	Gender	INGO Type	Age Band (yrs.)	INGO Experience (yrs.)	Role Description	Continent of Origin
AFR 1	Male	Disaster & Relief	'41 – 50	'6 - 10	Finance Specialist	Asia
AFR 2	Male	Disaster & Relief	'51 - 60	'21 - 25	Development Professional	Africa
AFR 3	Female	Disaster & Relief	'41 - 50	'6 - 10	Programme Coordinator	Europe
AFR 4	Male	Development	'41 - 50	'6 - 10	Programme Officer	Africa
AFR 5	Male	Disaster & Relief	'20 - 30	'1 - 5	HIV/AIDS Programme Officer	America
AFR 6	Female	Disaster & Relief	'31 – 40	'6 - 10	Organisation Development	Europe
AFR 7	Male	Disaster & Relief	'31 - 40	'6 - 10	Reporting Officer	Africa
AFR 8	Male	Disaster & Relief	'31 - 40	'6 - 10	Reg. Logistics Manager	Europe
AFR 9	Male	Disaster & Relief	'41 - 50	'11 - 15	Country Manager	Europe
AFR 10	Male	Disaster & Relief	'20 - 30	'1 - 5	Finance Specialist	Africa
AFR 11	Male	Human Rights & Peace	'41 - 50	'6 -10	Country Manager	Africa
AFR 12	Male	Human Rights & Peace	'31 - 40	'1 - 5	Administration	Africa
AFR 13	Male	Human Rights & Peace	20 - 30	'1- 5	Human Rights	Europe
AFR 14	Male	Disaster & Relief	31 - 40	'6 - 10	Human Rights	Europe
AFR 15	Male	Disaster & Relief	41 - 50	'11 - 15	Organisation Development	Europe
AFR 16	Male	Disaster & Relief	41-50	'16 - 20	Relief	Africa
AFR 17	Male	Disaster & Relief	20 - 30	'1 - 5	Disaster Preparedness	Europe
AFR18	Male	Disaster & Relief	31 - 40	'6 -10	Logistics	Africa

APPENDIX A2
UK RESEARCH INTERVIEWS LIST

Code	Gender	INGO Type	Age Band (yrs.)	INGO Experience (yrs.)	Role Description	Continent of Origin
UK1	Male	Human Rights & Peace	31 - 40	'6 - 10	Desk Officer	Africa
UK2	Female	Human Rights & Peace	31 - 40	'6 - 10	Human Rights	Europe
UK3	Female	Human Rights & Peace	31 - 40	'1 - 5	Development Manager	Europe
UK4	Female	Human Rights & Peace	31 - 40	'1 - 5	Programme Officer	Europe
UK5	Male	Development	51 - 60	'21 - 25	Director of Policy	Europe
UK6	Female	Development	31 - 40	'1 - 5	Programme Officer	Europe
UK7	Male	Human Rights & Peace	41 - 50	'11 - 15	Policy & Advocacy Manager	Africa
UK8	Female	Human Rights & Peace	41 - 50	'1 - 5	Divisional Administrator	Africa
UK9	Male	Human Rights & Peace	41 - 50	'16 - 20	Policy & Advocacy Manager	Europe
UK10	Female	Human Rights & Peace	20 - 30	'1 - 5	Researcher	Europe
UK11	Female	Human Rights & Peace	31 - 40	'6 - 10	Divisional Support Officer	America
UK12	Male	Human Rights & Peace	31 - 40	'6 - 10	International HR Manager	Europe
UK13	Female	Development	20 - 30	'6 - 10	Programme Officer	Europe
UK14	Female	Development	31 - 40	'6 - 10	Planning Officer	Europe
UK15	Female	Development	31 - 40	'6 - 10	Finance	Europe
UK16	Female	Development	31 - 40	'6 - 10	Monitoring & Evaluation	Europe
UK17	Female	Development	31 - 40	'1 - 5	Logistics	Europe

APPENDIX B1

Research: Effects of Organisational Policies and Practices on Job Satisfaction Among Employees in International Non-Governmental Organisations(NGOs)

Name (Optional): _____ **Organisation:** _____ **Sex :** _____
Date Joined Present Organisation: _____ **Job Title:** _____ **Location** _____
Age : (please circle applicable range from the options provided (a) 20 – 30 (b) 31-40 (c) 41- 50
 (d) 51 – 60 (e) 61 – 70 (f) 70+
Nationality : _____ **Experience in the NGO /Voluntary Sector:** _____ **Years** _____

PLEASE CIRCLE OR HIGHLIGHT (MAKE 'BOLD') THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT		Disagree very much Disagree moderately Disagree slightly Agree Slightly Agree moderately Agree very much
1	I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do	1 2 3 4 5 6
2	There is really too little chance for promotion on my job	1 2 3 4 5 6
3	My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job	1 2 3 4 5 6
4	I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive	1 2 3 4 5 6
5	When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive	1 2 3 4 5 6
6	Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult	1 2 3 4 5 6
7	I like the people I work with	1 2 3 4 5 6
8	I sometimes feel my job is meaningless	1 2 3 4 5 6
9	Communications seem good within this organisation	1 2 3 4 5 6
10	Raises are too few and far between	1 2 3 4 5 6
11	Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted	1 2 3 4 5 6
12	My supervisor is unfair to me	1 2 3 4 5 6
13	The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer	1 2 3 4 5 6
14	I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated	1 2 3 4 5 6
15	My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape	1 2 3 4 5 6
16	I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of the people I work with	1 2 3 4 5 6
17	I like doing the things I do at work	1 2 3 4 5 6
18	The goals of this organization are not clear to me	1 2 3 4 5 6
19	I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me	1 2 3 4 5 6
20	People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places	1 2 3 4 5 6
21	My supervisor shows little interest in the feelings of subordinates	1 2 3 4 5 6
22	The benefits package we have is equitable	1 2 3 4 5 6
23	There are few rewards for those who work here	1 2 3 4 5 6
24	I have too much to do at work	1 2 3 4 5 6
25	I enjoy my co-workers	1 2 3 4 5 6
26	I often feel that I do not what is going on with the organization	1 2 3 4 5 6
27	I feel a sense of pride in doing my job	1 2 3 4 5 6
28	I feel satisfied with my chances for salary Increases	1 2 3 4 5 6
29	There are benefits we do not have which we should have	1 2 3 4 5 6
30	I like my supervisor	1 2 3 4 5 6
31	I have too much paperwork	1 2 3 4 5 6
32	I don't feel my efforts are rewarded they way they should be	1 2 3 4 5 6
33	I am satisfied with my chances of promotion	1 2 3 4 5 6
34	There is too much bickering and fighting at work	1 2 3 4 5 6
35	My job is enjoyable	1 2 3 4 5 6
36	Work assignments are not fully explained	1 2 3 4 5 6

NB. Questionnaire used with full permission of Professor Paul E. Spector, Dept. of Psychology, Univ. of South Florida, USA.

APPENDIX D1

EFFECTS OF ORGANISATIONAL POLICIES AND PRACTICES ON JOB SATISFACTION AMONG EMPLOYEES IN INTERNATIONAL NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS

IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW GUIDE

1 Why did you decide to work in the NGO sector ? Why did you decide to work for your current organisation?

2. What are the principles or core values of your organisation? Please give an example or describe your personal experience in applying those principles or working according to the values in your day to day work.

OR

How do you handle a situation where adherence to your organisation's principle or acting in line with any of its values makes it difficult or impossible for you to achieve the desired results ?

3. How do you feel about the support you receive from your organisation's headquarters in doing your work?

OR

How would you describe your relationship with the field offices ? How do they perceive your role and working relationship ?

4. How do you feel about your work in your current organisation? What aspects of your work do you enjoy most

5. What aspects of your work do not meet your expectations or what aspects do you find stressful
(how and why)?

6 How do you feel about your terms and conditions of service and your organisation's personnel policies in general?

(salaries, benefits, promotion prospects, training & development opportunities, job security)

7. How would you describe your relationship with your colleagues?

8. How would describe your relationship with your supervisor ?

9. What impact does working with colleagues from different cultures and backgrounds have on your work?

10. How do you feel about your work environment ?

11. Would working under stressful or risky conditions lead to or contribute to your decision to leave your current organisation?

12. We have talked about various aspects of your work. What aspects of your work experience are important to you that we have not talked about?

APPENDIX D2

DIALECTICAL ANALYSIS OF FORMS OF JOB SATISFACTION : MISSION COMMITMENT

Codes	Thesis →	Satisfaction / Dissatisfaction	← Antithesis	Synergy →	Satisfaction / Dissatisfaction
UK1	Participant worked closely with NGOs and joined his INGO to continue his career.	constructive dissatisfaction	Frequent and unplanned official trips in previous jobs made it difficult for employee to maintain balance between work and family life	Employee's current organisation/job enables him to 'manage' official trips better. He accepts that he will continue to make official trips as long he continues in the INGO sector. He sees his job as a 'calling'.	progressive satisfaction
UK2	Joined Human Rights and Peace INGO because of her interest in human rights issues.	resigned satisfaction	Satisfied with execution of mission that she describes as 'powerful'. Cites financial pressure leading to redundancies as an issue. Believes there still work to be done to achieve desired level of performance in a changing operating environment.	Would not like to work in the business sector . Low salary is an issue that could lead to employee leaving the organisation	pseudo satisfaction
UK9	Joined INGO sector because he wanted to 'make a difference' .	progressive satisfaction	He was offered the job he wanted and considers his organisation to be fair in dealing with its employees.	Employee would only leave the organisation to face new challenges or for career development reasons. Would love to continue working in the INGO sector or as long as possible.	progressive satisfaction

Codes	Thesis	Satisfaction/ Dissatisfaction	Antithesis	Synergy	Satisfaction/ Dissatisfaction
UK10	Felt joining INGO would provide 'something extra' that was missing when she worked as volunteer in a government department. Joined her organisation based in its reputation for speaking the truth.	pseudo satisfaction	Likes her job especially conducting research that informs her organisation's advocacy activities. Finds it a bit challenging writing in English that is not her mother – tongue	Not sure whether she would have a long career in the INGO sector	pseudo satisfaction
UK11	Joined a faith-based INGO because of the values that guide the execution of its mission	progressive satisfaction	INGO works with partners and learns from partners in designing and implementing programmes. She finds being exposed to financial management interesting but getting regular reports from field based personnel is a problem.	Will continue to work in the INGO even if she leaves the UK	progressive satisfaction
UK12	His saw the advertisement for his post by 'chance'. Sharing the same religious faith with his INGO encouraged him to join the organisation.	pseudo satisfaction	INGO is compelled to respond to competition for resources and stakeholders' demand for greater accountability and strategic changes in order to ensure its survival. Employee believes the fact HR management is not strategic enough will affect corporate performance.	Recognises the need for the organisation to develop new funding opportunities whilst meeting the requirements of donor agencies.	constructive dissatisfaction

Code	Thesis	Satisfaction/ Dissatisfaction	Antithesis	Synergy	Satisfaction/ Dissatisfaction
UK13	Working for an INGO was in keeping with 'family tradition' . She is passionate about human rights and development.	pseudo satisfaction	Most senior managers in her previous INGOs did not demonstrate commitment to the values associated with NGOs or represent their organisations well enough. She is satisfied with the leadership in her current organisation.	Would remain in the INGO sector as long as there is no conflict between her career and private life such as starting a family.	progressive satisfaction
UK14	Joined her INGO to play a part in addressing the worsening health and social problems arising from the spread of HIV and AIDS.	constructive dissatisfaction	Her job gives her the opportunity to develop new skills. She would prefer to have more face-to-face contact with field based colleagues to improve working relations and performance	She is fully committed to her organisation's mission and looks forward to a long career in the INGO sector.	progressive satisfaction

Codes	Thesis	Satisfaction/ Dissatisfaction	Antithesis	Synergy	Satisfaction
UK15	Joined INGO to 'make a difference', and improve her understanding of other cultures. Likes the 'informal' work environment in the NGO sector	pseudo satisfaction	Did not have the opportunity to travel in her former organisation. Did not feel she was 'making a difference' in the lives of others and former organisation was too policy oriented in its approach. She is pleased that her new INGO has given her the opportunity to facilitate workshops overseas.	Would only consider leave her INGO if she has 'serious' personal problems or she feels she is no longer developing professionally	progressive satisfaction
UK16	She is committed to working in international development as her satisfaction lies in making tangible contributions to the improvement in living conditions of people and societies.	progressive satisfaction	She is satisfied with the approach adopted by her INGO in executing its mission and the progress the organisation is making.	She remains committed to development work but will join another INGO if in two years' time she does not have the opportunity to take on a more challenging role.	progressive satisfaction

Codes	Thesis →	Satisfaction / Dissatisfaction	← Antithesis	Synergy →	Satisfaction / Dissatisfaction
UK17	Joined INGO because she wanted to have a different experience apart from 'making money'.	pseudo satisfaction	Her role gives her the opportunity to interact with and learn from a lot of people.	UK 17's organisation is the only INGO around where she lives.	pseudo satisfaction
AFR1	Development of local capacity is central to the strategy of employee's INGO.	fixated dissatisfaction	Had to focus on reconciliation of outstanding accounts . Employee did not have the opportunity to contribute to the development of local capacity that was very important to him. Local capacity building is usually highlighted by his INGO as one of its key success factors in programme design and implementation.	Felt dissatisfied that he did not have the opportunity to contribute to local capacity development . He therefore did not see his assignment as a total success. Recognised that reconciliation of outstanding accounts was an important task that had to be completed for the local/national member of his INGO to access fresh funds for its programmes.	resigned satisfaction
AFR3	INGO's pre-assignment instructions issued to employees detail employee tasks and accountabilities.	fixated dissatisfaction	Employee felt 'cheated' and believed she was 'lured' to her post because the tasks contained in her mission instructions were different from those she was expected to perform on arriving at her field location. Believes her organisation reduces its impact and risk its reputation by doing too many things and not doing them well.	Employee accepted to carry out administrative duties as part of her programme coordinator role. She also did not perform the role of deputy to the Head of Regional office that made her consider the assignment an attractive one.	resigned satisfaction

Codes	Thesis	Satisfaction/ Dissatisfaction	Antithesis	Synergy	Satisfaction/ Dissatisfaction
AFR5	Joined his INGO because he associated with its principles	pseudo satisfaction	Felt frustrated initially with the delay in receiving his terms of reference instructions that the legal department of the organisation that sponsored his assignment	In the end employee 'had a very good feeling about ' the programme. Implementation went on smoothly as soon as initial administrative issues were resolved.	progressive satisfaction
AFR6	Employee enjoys the opportunity to work with people from different cultural backgrounds that working with an INGO provides	progressive satisfaction	Employee considers herself 'lucky' to be dealing with members of her INGO that were relatively small and less complex . She is satisfied with her contributions to the building of the capacity of INGO's member organisations.	Employee feels her personality and style make her well suited for a long career in the INGO sector.	progressive satisfaction
AFR8	Employee joined the INGO sector from the business with the aim of working abroad for one year and coming back 'richer'.	fixated dissatisfaction	Employee is clearly dissatisfied with his INGO's approach to the execution of its mission. He believes his INGO fails to capitalise on its global membership network that he sees a source of comparative advantage.	Employee planned to work in the sector for year in order to make money but continued for much longer. He cherishes the opportunity to learn about other cultures	pseudo satisfaction

SUMMARY OF DIALECTICAL ANALYSIS OF FORMS OF JOB SATISFACTION AND DISSATISFACTION (QUESTION 1)

Form of Work Dissatisfaction	No. of Cases	Forms of Work Satisfaction	No. of Cases
Constructive Work Dissatisfaction	1	Pseudo Work Satisfaction	4
		Resigned Work Satisfaction	2
		Progressive Work Satisfaction	9
Total	1		15

APPENDIX D3

DIALECTICAL ANALYSIS OF FORMS OF JOB SATISFACTION : PRINCIPLES AND VALUES

Codes	Thesis →	Satisfaction / Dissatisfaction	← Antithesis	Synergy →	Satisfaction / Dissatisfaction
UK1	Research participant shares the same religious faith with his INGO and supports its principles and values as basis for work activities.	constructive dissatisfaction	He was engaged in fund-raising activities in his former organisations that he now considers unethical. His current INGO does not have difficulty in raising funds for programmes hence no recourse to unethical practices.	He is able to apply his current INGO's principles and values without difficulty. Research participant sees his INGO as fully committed to effective application of principles and values.	progressive satisfaction
UK9	Research participant identifies with INGO's principles and values. He regards	stabilised satisfaction	He believes principles and values apply more to employees who are directly involved in advocacy and those that interact with INGO partners. Does not face any problems in applying the principles in his day to day work.	INGO encourages employees to refrain from any activities that could jeopardise its principles and values	stabilised satisfaction
UK13	INGO's commitment to its values is reflected in its personnel policies and procedures	stabilised satisfaction	INGO is committed to genuine partnership based on consultation with collaborators and programme beneficiaries.	The transparency demonstrated by INGO in the application of principles and values enhances research participant's commitment to the principles.	progressive satisfaction
UK14	INGO's values are community based and focused on empowering communities and individuals to face challenges posed by the spread of HIV and Aids	constructive dissatisfaction	Research participant is impressed with her INGO's commitment to non-discrimination in the implementation of HIV and Aids programmes. She feels some of her colleagues find dealing with various stakeholders that her INGO works with very challenging.	She recommends that all employees should be 'true' to the organisation's values regardless of the challenges involved.	progressive satisfaction

Codes	Thesis	Satisfaction/ Dissatisfaction	Antithesis	Synergy	Satisfaction/ Dissatisfaction
AFR 1	INGO expatriates attend a pre-assignment ' Basic Training Course' where the organisation's principles and values are explained to them	pseudo satisfaction	He rates the dissemination of his INGO's principles and values poorly.	Research participant does not believe principles and values are directly relevant to his role . He does not see adherence to principles and values as critical to effective expatriate performance.	pseudo satisfaction
AFR 2	Research participant believes principles and values are 'really good'.	fixated dissatisfaction	He believes INGO's HR practices that discriminate against some employees contradict its principles and values	Participant argues that principles and values in their present form are no longer relevant and should be reviewed with the involvement of all members of INGO	resigned satisfaction
AFR 3	INGO principles and values are relevant and important	pseudo satisfaction	She believes INGO makes principles and values more complicated than normal with the way it promotes them.Claims expatriates and INGO members violate the organisation's principles and values.	She believes INGO should focus more on practical application of principles and values and less on promoting them.	pseudo satisfaction
AFR 4	INGO's core values are important	constructive dissatisfaction	INGO's programmes are driven by its core values of excellence, integrity, commitment, respect and diversity.	Research participant is satisfied with INGO's progress but would like to see better application of the diversity value with the appointment of more women to management posts.	progressive satisfaction
AFR 5	INGO's principles and values are important.	pseudo satisfaction	Research participant argues that INGO's principles and values are not well disseminated. He opposes recruitment practices of INGO's members that violate its principle of non discrimination.	He suggests that principles and values should be 'implemented properly'. Field personnel especially new joiners need more support to enable them to apply INGO's principles and values effectively.	pseudo satisfaction

Codes	Thesis	Satisfaction/ Dissatisfaction	Antithesis	Synergy	Satisfaction/ Dissatisfaction
AFR 6	Research participant believes organisation's principles and values are 'key' to its activities.	pseudo satisfaction	She believes that most employees understand but do not apply the principles and values. She is concerned that INGO's use of volunteers borders on exploitation of those concerned. Also claims INGO's members violate its principles of neutrality and impartiality.	Research participant does not have problems with working according to the principles and values.	pseudo satisfaction
AFR 8	Research participant describes his organisation's principles and values as 'good'	fixated satisfaction	Cites examples of member recognition where INGO's contradicts its principles and the 'dilemma' he faced in relation to the principle of humanity or non – discrimination.	He believes the principles and values are outdated and should be reviewed. Argues that given the competitive environment that INGO's operate in 'religious' application of principles and values is detrimental to organisational survival.	constructive dissatisfaction
AFR 18	Research participant believes the principles and values are relevant	fixated dissatisfaction	He is disappointed that a member of his INGO failed to act with integrity in the management of its finances.	Not working according to INGO's principles and values creates lack of continuity and other organisational problems that affect the performance of the INGO member adversely	resigned satisfaction

SUMMARY OF DIALECTICAL ANALYSIS OF FORMS OF JOB SATISFACTION AND DISSATISFACTION (QUESTION 2)

Form of Work Dissatisfaction	No. of Cases	Forms of Work Satisfaction	No. of Cases
Constructive Work Dissatisfaction	1	Pseudo Work Satisfaction	4
		Resigned Work Satisfaction	2
		Progressive Work Satisfaction	4
		Stabilised work satisfaction	1
Total	1		11

APPENDIX D4

DIALECTICAL ANALYSIS OF FORMS OF JOB SATISFACTION : HQ. – FIELD WORKING RELATIONS

Codes	Thesis →	Satisfaction / Dissatisfaction	← Antithesis	Synergy →	Satisfaction / Dissatisfaction
UK1	Field locations should submit reports to and keep in contact with INGO headquarters .	pseudo satisfaction	Field based personnel do not deliver reports promptly due to poor communication facilities, individual circumstances and soci-cultural factors	UK1 appreciates problems with facilities but believes flimsy excuses and 'cultural attitudes' to work contribute to ineffective performance of field colleagues. Provides support to enable colleagues to achieve work objectives . Describes relationship with field colleagues as 'very good'. (Extracts 1-2)	constructive dissatisfaction
UK11	Field locations should submit reports to and keep in contact with INGO headquarters	pseudo satisfaction	UK 11 appreciates frequent power failure in field locations prevents field based colleagues from responding to messages and maintaining contact with headquarters as required.	Finds poor communication between headquarters and field locations ' a bit stressful' . Expects headquarters to show appreciation of problems faced by field colleagues. Describes relationship with field colleagues as 'OK' (page , para.)	resigned satisfaction
UK14	In working with partner organisations INGOs provide funds and other forms of support including programme implementation personnel as donors.	pseudo satisfaction	Partner organisation asserts its right to determine suitability of programme implementation personnel.	She acknowledges that the rejection of proposal by INGO appointed consultant was justified. UK 14 still sees decision by partner organisation to appoint another consultant as manifestation of 'power struggle'. (Extract 6).	resigned satisfaction

Codes	Thesis	Satisfaction/ Dissatisfaction	Antithesis	Synergy	Satisfaction/ Dissatisfaction
UK13	INGO expects partners to fulfil reporting requirements .	pseudo satisfaction	Heavy workload prevents partner organisation from meeting INGO expectation in relation to reporting on programmes.	UK 13 appreciates that partner organisation has to cope with heavy workolad. Sees the need to balance putting pressure on partner organisation to meet reporting requirement with maintaining good relations with the partner. Feels frustrated by the fact that partner does not have the same level of understanding as her INGO does on the nature of partnership that both parties should build (Extract 3).	constructive dissatisfaction
UK2	INGO provides funds for partners to implement programmes based on the 'values contract' that clarifies expectations of both parties.	progressive satisfaction	UK2 refers to the programmes as those belonging to the partners but INGO manages all programmes from its London headquarters (Extract 4).	Working relations with partner are 'generally positive'	progressive satisfaction
UK17	Officer at INGO headquarters collaborates with partners to ensure successful programme implementation.	resigned satisfaction	Finds it difficult to develop better relations with partners beacuse she lacks fluency in French. Prefers 'dealing face to face' to email and telephone contacts with partners.	Appreciates partners work under 'challenging circumstances' and describes relations with them as 'relatively good'	pseudo satisfaction
AFR2	INGO headquarters determines and formally confirms expatriate terms and conditions of service including terms of reference.	fixated dissatisfaction	Following extension of AFR2's assignment letter from INGO headquarters to regional office did not clarify his terms of reference.	AFR2 laments about poor communication between headquarters and regional office.	resigned satisfaction

Codes	Thesis	Satisfaction/ Dissatisfaction	Antithesis	Synergy	Satisfaction/ Dissatisfaction
AFR5	INGO headquarters provides programme implementation support to field based personnel	pseudo satisfaction	Attributes lack of responsiveness from regional stakeholders to failure of regional office and headquarters to optimise INGO's comparative advantage .	Adopts a proactive approach in his communication with regional office and headquarters with respect to their needs and expectations.	constructive dissatisfaction
AFR18	INGO consults its members and engages field personnel in implementing new initiatives	pseudo satisfaction	AFR18 believes INGO does not practice what it preaches. INGO does consult its members before deciding on self-evaluation as the top priority for them.	Suggests INGO headquarters should consult members before setting priorities. Cites examples of cases where consultation of stakeholders, provision of ongoing support by achieved good results.	constructive dissatisfaction
UK15	INGO expects partners to provide reports on programmes using specified templates and tools.	constructive dissatisfaction	The size and limited resources of partners make fulfilment of reporting requirements burdensome.	Put excessive pressure on partners to provide reports can cause 'tension' in relations. UK15 adopts a 'softly softly' approach in getting partners to provide required reports (Extract 7).	progressive satisfaction
AFR1	INGO headquarters provides programme implementation support to field based personnel	pseudo satisfaction	Gets good support from regional office and headquarters. Concerned that some expatriates deployed by headquarters are not as competent as their local counterparts.	AFR1 is frustrated that he is unable to contribute to the development of his local counterparts due to his workload. He feels that the headquarters may choose to ignore concerns about quality of expatriates because it has the 'power of money' (Extracts 8 & 10).	fixated dissatisfaction

Codes	Thesis	Satisfaction/ Dissatisfaction	Antithesis	Synergy	Satisfaction/ Dissatisfaction
AFR3	INGO headquarters formulates strategies to improve corporate performance and drives its implementation.	fixated dissatisfaction	The regionalisation strategy pursued by the INGO was not supported by all stakeholders. Frequent change in strategic direction and lack of consensus on implementation of regionalisation strategy affected AFR3 and others in the region.	Gets good administrative support from the Desk Officer at the headquarters. Appreciates that Desk Officer and others at the headquarters put pressure on her and others in field location because they are under pressure as well.	resigned satisfaction
AFR6	INGO headquarters provides programme implementation support to field based personnel	resigned satisfaction	Does not have much contact with technical department at the headquarters. Believes headquarters is underresourced and not familiar with operational issues.	Due to cultural differences, market oriented approach adopted by the INGO may work at the headquarters but not in field locations. Recommends that operational procedures and guidelines be simplified . (Extract 16).	resigned satisfaction
AFR8	INGO headquarters formulates strategies to improve corporate performance and drives its implementation.	fixated dissatisfaction	AFR8 is concerned that INGO's strategic direction relation to his work area is unclear.	Finds strategic uncertainty 'stressing' and concludes that headquarters 'don't listen'. Describes his relations with headquarters as 'very stressful'.	fixated dissatisfaction

SUMMARY OF DIALECTICAL ANALYSIS OF FORMS OF JOB SATISFACTION AND DISSATISFACTION (QUESTION 3)

Form of Work Dissatisfaction	No. of Cases	Forms of Work Satisfaction	No. of Cases
Fixated Work Dissatisfaction	2	Pseudo Work Satisfaction	1
Constructive Work Dissatisfaction	4	Resigned Work Satisfaction	5
		Progressive Work Satisfaction	2
Total	6		8

APPENDIX D5

DIALECTICAL ANALYSIS OF FORMS OF JOB SATISFACTION : HRM PRACTICES

Codes	Thesis →	Satisfaction / Dissatisfaction	← Antithesis	Synergy →	Satisfaction / Dissatisfaction
UK 1	INGO provides accurate financial reports to statutory bodies and relevant stakeholders	fixated dissatisfaction	Desk Officer dislikes 'paper pushing ' that meeting accountability requirements involves.	Employee is satisfied with remuneration package but believes there is scope for improvement.	progressive satisfaction
UK12	INGO faces strategic HR challenge of 'globalising' its policies and practices	pseudo satisfaction	Managers in employee's organisation are technically good but poor in people and change management.	Employee feels progress is being made. He has put in place a medical evacuation plan that covers all staff categories. Feels INGO's workforce is not diverse enough	constructive dissatisfaction
UK 2	INGO introduces new policies to improve people management	pseudo satisfaction	Organisational review carried out to reduce overhead costs affected staff morale . Employee was under pressure because her job was not secure yet she supported the redundancy management process	Employee is satisfied with INGO's maternity leave policy. She likes being able to handle a variety of tasks. Believes it will take time before employees get used to changes being introduced	progressive satisfaction
UK 9	INGO adopts a 'democratic ' approach to management	fixated dissatisfaction	Organisation has financial constraints . Having to follow too many procedures affects employee's performance	Employee gets the training she needs to do her job. Lack of opportunities for promotion remains a concern.	resigned satisfaction
UK 10	INGO offers short-term contracts tied to specific projects to conserve funds	pseudo satisfaction	Short –term contract offered does not give employee peace of mind to give best . She is conscious of the fact that her contract will soon be terminated. Enjoys her job as researcher	Employee was warned that it takes too long to finish tasks because of the number of checks take place. She accepts that is the way the INGO operates	resigned satisfaction

Codes	Thesis	Satisfaction/ Dissatisfaction	Antithesis	Synergy	Satisfaction/ Dissatisfaction
UK 13	INGO implements database system to enhance its programme monitoring capacity/performance	pseudo satisfaction	Employee is frustrated that she does not yet understand how things work in her INGO. She is struggling with how to work with a monitoring and evaluation database and has been given a short to provide what a partner needs.	Enjoys the forum where presentations are made on developments in the INGO but its size makes close interaction with colleagues difficult. Senses tension in relations with supervisor.	pseudo satisfaction
UK 14	INGO implements various initiatives to improve its performance	pseudo satisfaction	People management competence is not solid enough in the INGO especially where change management is concerned.	Employee is satisfied with remuneration package. Enjoys working in multicultural settings and believes its beneficial. Relations with manager has progressed and improved over the years.	progressive satisfaction
UK 15	INGO has introduced new policies and practices	resigned satisfaction	Found having to do mundane tasks very stressful. Not particularly pleased with supervisor's management style.	Terms and conditions of service and HR management practices have improved but more work still has to be done.	constructive dissatisfaction
UK 16	INGO implements good induction for new joiners	pseudo satisfaction	Organising meetings and have to contact about 130 is time-consuming and difficult	Employee is satisfied with remuneration package that includes training budget. Believes package contributes to staff retention at the INGO.	progressive satisfaction
AFR 3	Employee was required to combine administrative tasks with her programme coordination role	fixated dissatisfaction	Does not like too much administrative work. Was under so much at a time and was mixing up names of countries in her region.	INGO induction for field personnel should be more thorough .	resigned satisfaction

Codes	Thesis	Satisfaction/ Dissatisfaction	Antithesis	Synergy	Satisfaction/ Dissatisfaction
AFR 5	INGO attracts the most suitable persons to fill its' vacant posts	pseudo satisfaction	Criticises INGO's preference for academic qualifications to the detriment of job experience.	Happy with terms and conditions of service. Feels INGO should act to address sources of tension between expatriates and local personnel.	constructive dissatisfaction
AFR 6	INGO formulates management policies	constructive dissatisfaction	Criticises INGO for not leading by example in terms of implementing policies and having appropriate structures and systems. Dissatisfied with arrangement under which expatriates from 'rich' INGO member bodies have better terms and conditions of service. Having to devote too much time to paperwork.	Believes terms and conditions of service are generally good but would like INGO to address issue of insurance cover and pension for expatriates.	progressive satisfaction
AFR 8	HRM policies and practices are designed to enable employees to perform their duties well.	fixated dissatisfaction	Rates HR as INGO's weak area. Laments loss of talented personnel because INGO cannot afford to keep at the end of their assignments	Unhappy with lack of transparency that characterises selection process. Enjoys working in multicultural teams and maintains good working relations with INGO members	pseudo satisfaction
AFR 18	INGO formulates and implements policies to ensure safety and security of its personnel	fixated dissatisfaction	Unhappy with INGO's attitude to safety and security of field based personnel. Was once a victim of attempted mugging .	Commends the resilience of field personnel but maintains they are demoralised , 'burnt out'. Argues that INGO does not manage and care for its workforce how it should as a humanitarian organisation.	fixated dissatisfaction

SUMMARY OF DIALECTICAL ANALYSIS OF FORMS OF JOB SATISFACTION AND DISSATISFACTION (QUESTION 4)

Form of Work Dissatisfaction	No. of Cases	Forms of Work Satisfaction	No. of Cases
Constructive Work Dissatisfaction	3	Pseudo Work Satisfaction	2
Fixated Work Dissatisfaction	1	Resigned Work Satisfaction	3
		Progressive Work Satisfaction	5
Total	4		10

APPENDIX D6

« Les effets des politiques et pratiques organisationnelles sur la satisfaction professionnelle parmi les employés dans les organisations internationales non gouvernementales. » : **Ahmed Ifabua**

ENQUETE SUR LA SATISFACTION PROFESSIONNELLE: Information personnelle des participants:

Nom (facultatif):

Organisation:

Sexe :

Date du début du travail :

Poste:

Emplacement:

Age : (a) 20 – 30 (b) 31-40

(c) 41- 50

(d) 51 – 60

(e) 61 – 70

(f) 70+

Nationalité :

Expérience dans le secteur des ONGs:

..... Ans

	S'il vous plait, encerclez la réponse la plus proche qui reflète votre opinion						
		Pas du tout d'accord	Pas tout à fait d'accord	Pas d'accord	Légerement d'accord	Moyennement d'accord	Entièrement d'accord
1	Je pense qu'on me paie correctement pour le travail que je fais	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Il y a la moindre possibilité de promotion dans mon travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Mon superviseur est compétent dans son travail	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Je ne suis pas satisfait des indemnités que je reçois	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Quand je travail bien, je reçois une reconnaissance adéquate	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	La plupart de nos règles et procédures nous empêchent de faire un bon travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	J'aime mes collègues au travail	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	Des fois je ressens que mon travail n'a pas de sens	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	La communication au sein de l'organisation est bonne.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Il n y a pas régulièrement d'augmentation de salaire	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Ceux qui travaillent bien ont la chance de recevoir des promotions	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	Mon superviseur n'est pas gentil avec moi	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	Nos indemnités sont pareils dans d'autres organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	Je ne pense pas que mon travail est apprécié	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	Mes efforts pour faire un bon travail sont rarement entravés par des formalités	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	Je découvre que je dois travailler plus que dur à cause de l'incompétence des gens qui travaillent avec moi	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	J'aime faire les choses que je fais au travail	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	Les buts de cette organisation ne sont pas clairs pour moi	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	Je ne ressens pas l'appréciation de l'organisation en considérant mon salaire	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	Les employés progressent rapidement ici par rapport à d'autres organisations	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	Mon superviseur démontre très peu d'intérêt dans les sentiments des autres.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	Les avantages sociaux que nous avons sont équitables	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	Il y a très peu de compensations pour ceux qui travaillent ici..	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	J'ai trop de charge	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	Je suis à l'aise avec mes collègues	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	Des fois j'ai l'impression que je suis ignorante de ce qui se passe dans l'organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	J'ai une certaine fierté dans le travail que je fais	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	Je suis satisfaite de la régularité de haussement de salaire	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	Il y a des avantages auxquelles nous avons droit mais nous n'en avons pas.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	J'aime mon superviseur	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	Je travaille trop avec des documents	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	Je ne pense pas que mes efforts sont récompensés comme il se doit.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33	Je suis contente du rythme de promotion	1	2	3	4	5	6
34	Il y a trop de bagarres au travail	1	2	3	4	5	6
35	J'aime tellement mon travail	1	2	3	4	5	6
36	On ne donne pas assez d'explications pour les travaux à faire	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX D7

2 January 2007.

Je m'appelle Ahmed Ifabua, étudiant en doctorat à Nottingham Trent University, Angleterre.

Je voudrais solliciter votre participation volontaire dans l'enquête que j'entreprends intitulé « Les effets des politiques et pratiques organisationnelles sur la satisfaction professionnelle parmi les employés dans les organisations internationales non gouvernementales. »

En focalisant sur les organisations en Angleterre et en Afrique, l'enquête cherche à interpréter les expériences des employés dans les lieux de travail dans le secteur des ONGs.

J'aimerais vous assurer que vos réponses aux questionnaires resteront confidentielles.

La conduite de cette recherche est strictement guidée par les règles et déontologies qui gouvernent des recherches sociales. La conformité au code de conduite et règle est monitoré par mon directeur d'étude, Professeur Colin Fisher, au nom de l'Université. Il est joignable au 44 01158482822 ou à colin.fisher@ntu.ac.uk

Votre participation dans cette enquête me permettra de terminer mes études. En participant dans cette étude, vous êtes en train de donner un apport significatif à la compréhension des pratiques de management et la satisfaction professionnelle des employés dans les organisations internationales.

Recevez, cher monsieur/ dame mes salutations les meilleurs.



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APPENDIX D8

CODING SHEET FOR SPSS

	VARIABLE	VARIABLE TYPE	CODE
1	Employee	Ordinal	No. 1 – 148
2	Gender	Nominal	Male = 1, Female = 2
3	INGO Type	Nominal	Dev. Assistance Asso. = 2 Disaster & Relief Orgs. = 3 Human Rights & Peace = 4
4	INGO Experience	Interval Ratio	In years
5	Location	Nominal	Africa = 1 UK = 2
6	Age Band		20 – 30 = 1 31 – 40 = 2 41 – 50 = 3 51 – 60 = 4
7	Job Satisfaction	Interval/Ratio	Scores

APPENDIX D9

Mixed Methods Data Analysis Matrix

<u>Research Q3.</u> Hq. & Field relations & job satisfaction	<u>Research Q.1</u> Corporate mission & job satisfaction	<u>Research Q2.</u> principles & values & job satisfaction	<u>Research Q4</u> HRM practices & job satisfaction	<u>Research Q5.</u> Job satisfaction UK & Africa
<u>Job Satisfaction Facets</u> Supervision Communication	<u>Job Satisfaction Facets</u> * INGO types and job satisfaction	<u>Job Satisfaction Facets</u> Communication Supervision Salary	<u>Job Satisfaction Facets</u> Co-workers Salary Communication Promotion Supervision Fringe Benefits Cont. Rewards Operating Conditions	<u>ALL Job Satis. Facets/Overall Job Satisfaction</u> Overall JS UK Vs Overall JS Africa

NOTE: Same data apply to job satisfaction facets as they relate to the research question(s) in the matrix above.

- INGO type analysed from completed questionnaire based on adaptation of International Classification of Nonprofit Organisations (ICNPO)

APPENDIX D10

ANALYTICAL STEPS IN CHAPTER 5

STEP 1: Thematic Analysis

1a : Thematic Analysis

Narrative covering themes under which extracts from interview transcripts were coded; relevant to the research question

1b. Prepare 'dialectical' Matrix to establish participants' JS types for the research question. Matrix shows participant code number, dialectic triad and JS types for thesis – antithesis and synergy.

STEP 2 : Present Forms of Job Satisfaction and Illustrate with representative cases

INTRODUCTION : Dialectical analysis of themes derived from interview data revealed different forms of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction discussed below.

- discuss participants under relevant combinations of JS types differentiating emphasising synergy related JS
- relate analysis to themes, refer to extracts and individual cases.

STEP 3: Discussion

INTRODUCTION: JS types captured on matrix are some of the effects of (independent variable; eg. Working relations between HQ. and field locations) on employees' JS – not just whether they are satisfied or dissatisfied.

3a.

- Provide summary of JS types derived through dialectic analysis ' state percentage of participants satisfied/dissatisfied
- Comment as necessary on implications of trends/distribution of JS types
- Relate JS types in Qualitative Matrix (2a) to Quantitative results; state result Fisher's Exact Test ; provide analysis of satisfied vs dissatisfied for whole question
- Base Qual + quan analysis on
 - corroboration : 'same results' from qual. & quant.data
 - elaboration: qual. data exemplify what quant.data may mean
 - complementarity: qual. and quant.data generate insight
 - contradiction:evidence from qual. and quant. contradictory

3b. Meaning of Findings : Relate *themes* from *interview* data to *conceptual framework* and literature.

ii. Using Dialectical Matrix - relate specific issues under antithesis & **synergy** to **job satisfaction & dissatisfaction types focusing more on synergy related issues (what do the types mean in relation to the focus of the research question ?) to LITERATURE (look across themes and sections in chapter 2 to locate relevant literature and link as necessary)**

Base discussion :

- corroboration : consistent with literature including theories
- contradiction: findings contradict findings in the literature including theories

APPENDIX D11

AFRICA QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

RQ. 1 INGO TYPES – OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION

Table 5 . Relationship between Overall Job Satisfaction and INGO Type (Africa)

AFR INGO MISSION	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)	Point Probability
Pearson Chi-Square	.829(b)	1	.363	.644	.343	
Continuity Correction(a)	.192	1	.661			
Likelihood Ratio	.906	1	.341	.644	.343	
Fisher's Exact Test				.644	.343	
Linear-by-Linear Association	.819(c)	1	.365	.644	.343	.267
N of Valid Cases	84					

Source: Generated by SPSS for this research

Table 5. Cross Tabulation of Overall Job Satisfaction and INGO Type

AFR INGO MISSION		INGOType		Total
		Dev. Asst Asso	Dis & Relief	
Overall Satisfaction Dissatisfied	Count	4	1	5
	% within TotalSat	80.0%	20.0%	100.0%
Satisfied	Count	47	32	79
	% within TotalSat	59.5%	40.5%	100.0%
Total	Count	51	33	84
	% within TotalSat	60.7%	39.3%	100.0%

Source: Generated by SPSS for this research

RQ.2 PRINCIPLES/VALUES – OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION

Table 5. Relationship between Overall Job Satisfaction and Principles and Values

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2- sided)	Exact Sig. (2- sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)	Point Probability
AFR VALUES						
Pearson Chi-Square	35.769(b)	1	.000	.000	.000	
Continuity Correction(a)	23.991	1	.000			
Likelihood Ratio	14.706	1	.000	.000	.000	
Fisher's Exact Test				.000	.000	
Linear-by-Linear Association	35.343(c)	1	.000	.000	.000	.000
N of Valid Cases	84					

Source: Generated by SPSS for this research

Table 5. Cross Tabulation of Overall Job Satisfaction and Principles and Values

AFR VALUES		Values		Total
Overall Satisfaction		Dissatisfied	Satisfied	
Dissatisfied	Count	3	2	5
	% within TotalSat	60.0%	40.0%	100.0%
Satisfied	Count	1	78	79
	% within TotalSat	1.3%	98.7%	100.0%
Total	Count	4	80	84
	% within TotalSat	4.8%	95.2%	100.0%

Source: Generated by SPSS for this research

RQ.3 HQ. – FIELD RELATIONS – OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION

Table 5. Relationship between Overall Job Satisfaction and HQ. – Field Relations

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)	Point Probability
AFR HQ - FIELD Pearson Chi-Square	35.769(b)	1	.000	.000	.000	
Continuity Correction(a)	23.991	1	.000			
Likelihood Ratio	14.706	1	.000	.000	.000	
Fisher's Exact Test				.000	.000	
Linear-by-Linear Association	35.343(c)	1	.000	.000	.000	.000
N of Valid Cases	84					

Source: Generated by SPSS for this research

Table 5. Cross Tabulation of Overall Job Satisfaction and HQ. – Field Relations

AFRR HQ - FIELD		HQField		Total
Overall Satisfaction	Count	Dissatisfied	Satisfied	
Dissatisfied	3	3	2	5
	% within TotalSat	60.0%	40.0%	100.0%
Satisfied	1	1	78	79
	% within TotalSat	1.3%	98.7%	100.0%
Total	4	4	80	84
	% within TotalSat	4.8%	95.2%	100.0%

Source: Generated by SPSS for this research

RQ. 4 HRM PRACTICES – OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION

Table 5. Relationship between Overall Job Satisfaction and HRM Practices

AFR HRM	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)	Point Probability
Pearson Chi-Square	66.360(b)	1	.000	.000	.000	
Continuity Correction(a)	49.892	1	.000			
Likelihood Ratio	27.159	1	.000	.000	.000	
Fisher's Exact Test				.000	.000	
Linear-by-Linear Association	65.570(c)	1	.000	.000	.000	.000
N of Valid Cases	84					

Source: Generated by SPSS for this research

Table 5 Cross Tabulation of Overall Job Satisfaction and HRM Practices

AFR HRM		HRM practices		Total
Overall Satisfaction		Dissatisfied	Satisfied	
Dissatisfied	Count	4	1	5
	% within TotalSat	80.0%	20.0%	100.0%
Satisfied	Count	0	79	79
	% within TotalSat	.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Total	Count	4	80	84
	% within TotalSat	4.8%	95.2%	100.0%

Source: Generated by SPSS for this research

APPENDIX D12

UK QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

RQ. 1 INGO MISSIONS/SPECIALITIES – OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION

Relationship between Overall Job Satisfaction and Types of INGOs (UK)

UK INGO TYPE	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)	Point Proba bility
Pearson Chi-Square	2.272(a)	2	.321	.438		
Likelihood Ratio	1.780	2	.411	.438		
Fisher's Exact Test	2.563			.438		
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.303(b)	1	.254	.272	.272	.211
N of Valid Cases	64					

Source : Generated by SPSS for this research

Cross Tabulation of Overall Job Satisfaction and Types of INGOs (UK)

UK INGO TYPE		INGOType			Total
		Dev. Asst Asso	Dis & Relief	HR & Peace	
Overall Satisfaction Dissatisfied	Count	2	0	1	3
	% within TotalSat	66.7%	.0%	33.3%	100.0%
Satisfied	Count	51	5	5	61
	% within TotalSat	83.6%	8.2%	8.2%	100.0%
Total	Count	53	5	6	64
	% within TotalSat	82.8%	7.8%	9.4%	100.0%

Source : Generated by SPSS for this research

RQ. 2 VALUES/PRINCIPLES – OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION (UK)

Relationship between Overall Job Satisfaction and Principles and Values (UK)

UK VALUES	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)	Point Probability
Pearson Chi-Square	19.608(b)	1	.000	.009	.009	
Continuity Correction(a)	10.282	1	.001			
Likelihood Ratio	8.502	1	.004	.009	.009	
Fisher's Exact Test				.009	.009	
Linear-by-Linear Association	19.302(c)	1	.000	.009	.009	.009
N of Valid Cases	64					

Source : Generated by SPSS for this research

Table 5. Cross Tabulation of Overall Job Satisfaction and Principles & Values (UK)

UK VALUES		Values		Total
Overall Satisfaction				
Dissatisfied	Count	Dissatisfied	Satisfied	3
		2	1	
	% within TotalSat	66.7%	33.3%	100.0%
Satisfied	Count	2	59	61
	% within TotalSat	3.3%	96.7%	100.0%
Total	Count	4	60	64
	% within TotalSat	6.3%	93.8%	100.0%

Source : Generated by SPSS for this research

RQ. 3 HQ. – FIELD RELATIONS – OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION

Relationship between Overall job Satisfaction and HQ. – Field Relations (UK)

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
UK HQ. FIELD					
Pearson Chi-Square	27.063(b)	1	.000		
Continuity Correction(a)	14.465	1	.000		
Likelihood Ratio	10.194	1	.001		
Fisher's Exact Test				.004	.004
Linear-by-Linear Association	26.640	1	.000		
N of Valid Cases	64				

Source : Generated by SPSS for this research

Cross Tabulation of Overall Job Satisfaction and HQ. – Field Relations

UK HQ. - FIELD		HQField		Total
Overall Satisfaction		Dissatisfied	Satisfied	
Dissatisfied	Count	2	1	3
	% within TotalSat	66.7%	33.3%	100.0%
Satisfied	Count	1	60	61
	% within TotalSat	1.6%	98.4%	100.0%
Total	Count	3	61	64
	% within TotalSat	4.7%	95.3%	100.0%

Source : Generated by SPSS for this research

RQ4. HRM PRACTICES – OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION (UK)

Relationship between overall job satisfaction and HRM Practices (UK)

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)	Point Probability
UK HRM Pearson Chi-Square	47.213(b)	1	.000	.000	.000	
Continuity Correction(a)	31.918	1	.000			
Likelihood Ratio	19.720	1	.000	.000	.000	
Fisher's Exact Test				.000	.000	
Linear-by-Linear Association	46.475(c)	1	.000	.000	.000	.000
N of Valid Cases	64					

Source : Generated by SPSS for this research

Cross Tabulation of overall job satisfaction and HRM Practices (UK)

UK HRM Overall Satisfaction		HRM Practices		Total
		Dissatisfied	Satisfied	
Dissatisfied	Count	3	0	3
	% within TotalSat	100.0%	.0%	100.0%
Satisfied	Count	1	60	61
	% within TotalSat	1.6%	98.4%	100.0%
Total	Count	4	60	64
	% within TotalSat	6.3%	93.8%	100.0%

Source : Generated by SPSS for this research

APPENDIX D13

Date.....

Dear,

PARTICIPATION IN DOCTORAL RESEARCH

My name is Ahmed Ifabua. I am a PhD student at the Nottingham Trent University, England

I wish to solicit your voluntary participation as interviewee and/or survey participant in my research titled “**Effects of Organisational Policies and Practices on Job Satisfaction among Employees in International Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs)**”.

Focusing on organisations in the United Kingdom and Africa, the research aims to interpret work experiences of employees in the NGO sector.

I wish to assure you that your responses to interview questions and/or questionnaire statements and your identity will be kept confidential.

The conduct of this research is strictly guided by social research ethics and regulations. Compliance with relevant codes of conduct and regulations is being monitored by my Director of Studies; Professor Colin Fisher, on behalf of the University. Professor Fisher could be contacted on Tel. No. ++44 01158482822 or at colin.fisher@ntu.ac.uk.

Your kind participation in this research will enable me to complete my studies successfully. By taking part in this research, you are also making a significant contribution to the understanding of management practices and employee job satisfaction in international NGOs.

With best regards,



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APPENDIX D14

Date.....
Addressee's Job Title
Address
Dear,

PARTICIPATION IN DOCTORAL RESEARCH

My name is Ahmed Ifabua. I am a PhD student at the Nottingham Trent University.


I wish to solicit through you the voluntary participation of your organisation's employees in my research titled **"Effects of Organisational Policies and Practices on Job Satisfaction among Employees in International Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs)"**.

Focusing on organisations in the United Kingdom and Africa, the research aims to interpret work experiences of employees in the NGO sector. My data collection methods consist of in-depth interviews and administration of Job Satisfaction Questionnaire.

Should my request receive your kind approval, I plan to conduct up to 3 interviews and administer questionnaires as soon as possible. One interview session will take a maximum of one hour and the questionnaire can be completed in less than 15 minutes.

I wish to assure you that responses to interview questions and/or questionnaire statements and the identity of participants will be kept confidential. The conduct of this research is strictly guided by social research ethics and regulations. Compliance with relevant codes of conduct and regulations is being monitored by my Director of Studies; Professor Colin Fisher, on behalf of the University. Professor Fisher could be contacted on Tel. No. ++44 01158482822 or at colin.fisher@ntu.ac.uk.

I look forward to hearing from you soon.
With best regards,



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