CHAPTER – 3
AN OVERVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE

In this chapter, an attempt is made to present an overview of major efforts to study the functionaries, beneficiaries and infrastructure of NGO’s of Gujarat. It was felt necessary to acquire some information and insight into perspectives on NGO’s and their constituents. In this chapter, therefore, a discussion is presented firstly on relevance of reviewing existing literature on the basis of major works in the field of research methodology. In subsequent sections, the existing literature specifically on the significant dimensions of Knowledge, Skills, Attitudes, Values, Quality of work life, Job Satisfaction and other dimensions of functionaries as well as and some quality dimensions of functionaries as perceived by beneficiaries are summarized.

3.1 RELEVANCE OF REVIEWING LITERATURE
The Review of Literature is pre-requisite for initiating any research work. Starting from the conceptualization to the completion of the research, concurrent review of literature helps researcher a lot in many ways. Review of Literature can sensitize researcher towards the topic and he can learn from the past as to what and how the theme of the research has been studied. Researcher can learn from the mistakes committed in the past. The review of literature helps researcher to prepare a background of theme of research and to identify the researchable problem with theoretical and conceptual framework of the study. It avoids futile duplications and satisfies intellectual curiosity after careful consideration of what has been done so far. Goode and Hatt contributed a major book title Methods in Social research (1952) in which they write "An important part of the preparation for research work consists in learning how to use the resource material. It is important because all research inevitably involves the use of book, pamphlet, periodical and documentary materials in libraries. This applies to studies based upon original data gathered in a field study as well as that base entirely upon documentary sources. In both types of studies, there is the same need for using certain basic kinds of published materials".

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On the other hand, general source materials have to be consulted for the necessary background knowledge of the problem to be investigated; obviously, no research project can be undertaken without this preliminary orientation. Nor should one be undertaken without knowledge of the research that has already been done in the field. It provides further orientation to the problem and at the same time eliminates the possibility of unnecessary duplication of effort.”

Further, Goel and Singh (1996), Rubin and Babbies (1989), Jonathan (1970), have offered major explanations on role of review of literature in research. According to them, review is done to find out if the topic one has chosen is appropriately studied or not; other reason is to learn methodological procedures used by other scientists. Further, review of literature begins from selections of topic to the completion of thesis. It is necessary to show how the problem under investigation relates to previous studies. The review of Literature helps to reduce chances of selecting an irrelevant and outdated topic and increases decision making of the researcher. This helps a researcher in sharpening the focus of his study in terms of concept, objectives, method, theory and sources of data. This discussion on review of literature throughout the research period justifies the need, relevance and substance of it at various stages of research.

3.2 ABOUT THE NGOs

NGO’s have been & can be studied from various perspectives – why they exist, what role do they play in society, how are they formed, how are they managed, whom do they serve, how long do they last, how effective and efficient are they, what are they made up of? They are also studied and categorized on various criteria such as – kind of services / products they provide, people and areas they serve, people who make them up, the resources they mobilize and from where, their size and shape, their legal forms, their goals, objectives and motives to exist. It is said that ‘social organizations would vary in purpose, in constitution, in the methods and technologies through which they used to achieve their purpose. Further, they exist in different economic political and social environments and in different cultures and sub culture’ (Wool house 1988).
It is recorded by the human history that recurring events and accidents are responsible for the rise of various kinds of social organizations which are products of human action and interactions, consciously created instruments for definite purpose and goals, with means and ends, and with structure and processes. Technological inventions have played vital role for the emergence of social organizations, which are designed, directed and executed by individuals with different knowledge, skills, attitudes, values and perceptions are to some extent a reflection of the personality of those who direct shape, execute them. Social organizations in this sense are social experiments that are constantly evolved and adapted in response to dynamic changes in the social environment. There are six factors that are common for the social organizations (i). Persons (ii). Interactions (iii). Structures (iv). Personal objective (v). Participation in the organizations for achieving personal goal (vi). Organizational goals.

Social organizations may have vision, mission and plan of action, which may be well articulated but some times it can be vague too. Social organizations need competent and skilled human resources. Those who govern are called owners, the custodians, the trustees; those who manage are termed as management and those who operationalize the mission of the organizations are called functionaries or some times addressed as workforce. Those who are benefited out of the programs of the social organization are called beneficiaries some times they are addressed as clients, cases etc. Social organizations not only need human resources and structures but also need infrastructure and other resources such as land, building, machines, materials, and money etc but the supreme significance has to be attached to the knowledge, skills, attitude, value and work value and many such aspects of human resources engaged in the social organisations.

3.3 KNOWLEDGE

Gordon (1962) defined knowledge as "the picture man has of the world and his place in it". Max Siporin defines knowledge as cognitive mental content (ideas and beliefs) concerning reality that we take to be true (perceive with certainty based on adequate evidence) or that we decide is confirmable and has a high probability of truth.
Paul Reynolds identifies a scientific body of knowledge as designed to “describe things and identify why events occur.” The knowledge base used by the social workers is wide and varies coming from a variety of disciplines. To have sufficiently broad knowledge base a social worker needs the following:

(i). A broad liberal arts base; this includes knowledge of the social sciences (sociology, psychology, anthropology, history, political science, and economics) to provide explanations about the nature of human society and the human condition. Study of the natural sciences provides tools for scientific thinking and an understanding of the physical aspects of the human condition. Study of the humanities aids in the development of the creative and critical thought processes it provides and understanding of the nature of the human condition through the examination of creative endeavors and of the cultures of human society. Social worker is a person with a developed and expanded personal capacity gained by exposure to a broad liberal educational experience.

(ii) Sound foundation knowledge about persons, their interactions and the social situations within which they function. This includes knowledge about person from emotional, cognitive, behavioral and developmental point of view. Such knowledge must consider the diversity of the human condition and the effect of diversity on functioning and development. Understanding of human interaction in depth is also essential. This knowledge includes one-to-one relationships, family relationships and small-group relationships. It also includes understanding of the societal organizations and institutions that are part of contemporary society and of the social problem that affect human functioning and social functioning.

(iii) Practice & theory; with concern for the nature of helping process & interactions and of a variety of intervention, which gives strategies for appropriate situations and systems. This includes knowledge of professional and societal structures and institutions for delivery of service to individuals in need of help and methods of adopting and developing the service structure for more adequate need fulfillment.

(iv). Specialized knowledge needed to work with particular groups of clients and in particular situations the choice of knowledge each workers includes in this area is dependent on the practice situations and on career aspirations.
The capacity to be reflective, imaginative, and creative in the use of knowledge obtained from a variety of sources. It has special importance to be able to see the strengths in people and in their environment and to be able to use those strengths to build a vision for the future.

3.4 SKILLS

Skill is the practice component that brings knowledge and values together and converts them to action as a response to concern and need. A sociological definition of skill is a "complex organization of behavior (physical or verbal) developed through learning and directed toward a particular goal or centered on a particular activity. Skill is seen as technical expertise, the ability to use knowledge effectively and readily in performing competently.

Morales and Sheafor (1987) state, "The skill of social work requires both the appropriate selection of techniques for a particular situation and the ability to use techniques effectively. Betty Baer and Ronald Federico (1978) have organized the skills component of practice into four areas: (i) Information gathering and assessment, (ii) The development and use of the professional self, (iii) Practice activities with individuals, groups and communities, (iv) Evaluations. Werner W. Boeham, (1958) in his book "The nature of Social work" suggests that professional skill is expressed in the activities of the social worker. It constitutes the social workers' artistic creation resulting from three internal processes: (i) Conscious selection of knowledge Pertinent to the professional task at hand (ii). Fusion of knowledge with social work values, and (iii) Expression of this synthesis in professional relevant activity.

Professionally managed NGOs would like to have type of personnel who possess skills and abilities in the area of communication persuasion assertiveness skill in monitoring designing questioning gathering data giving and receiving of knowledge etc, which have direct bearing on interpersonal sensitivity. Further skills in counseling interviewing, building rapport, probing, exploring, resolving conflict etc. are also of tremendous significance in the management of NGOs.
The skills of the staff can be categorized in three ways (i) Administrative and managerial skills (ii) Interpersonal skills and (iii) Technical skills related to particular assignment. Guided by knowledge & value a social worker executes a series of activities within the framework of methods with clients related systems to achieve identified goal. These activities constitute the skills of the workers.

**Foundation skills for social work**

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<tr>
<th>PERSON SKILLS</th>
<th>IN SKILLS</th>
<th>ENVIRONMENT SKILLS</th>
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<tr>
<td>Relationship Skills</td>
<td>Problem-solving skills</td>
<td>Political skills</td>
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<td>Listening</td>
<td>Problem identifying</td>
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<td>Responding</td>
<td>Data collecting</td>
<td>Taking legal action</td>
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<td>Feeling/sensing</td>
<td>Assessing/goal setting</td>
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<td>Clarifying</td>
<td>Selecting and implementing</td>
<td>Organizing</td>
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<td>Information giving</td>
<td>Intervention</td>
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<td>Referring</td>
<td>Evaluating terminating</td>
<td>Demonstrating</td>
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**Professional skills**

- Recording
- Research
- Time-management
- Team work

A major distinction between professional & non-professional occupations is the possession of skill & knowledge. The social worker’s skill is expressed within the framework of one or more social work methods that traditionally encompass social case work, social group work, & community organizations but increasing relates to a generic practice method that is stated by William E. Gordon in “A critique of working definition of social work”. Gordon lists some of the techniques that may be applied in different combinations by social workers. Support, clarification, information giving, interpretation, development of insight, differentiation of the social worker from the individual or group, identification with agency function, creation and use of structure, use of activities and projects, provision of positive experience, teaching, stimulation of group interaction, limit-setting, utilization of available social resources, effecting change immediate environmental forces operating upon the individual or groups, and synthesis etc are the techniques used by the social workers. Goodman and Dooley (1976) surveyed helping relationship and developed six “response modes” (i). Questioning (ii). Adjustment (iii) Silence (iv) Interpretation (v). Reflection (vi). Self disclosure.
Helping Skills are for the understanding, for support in crisis and for positive action which can be subcategorized as follows:

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<th>Listening</th>
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<td>Paraphrasing</td>
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<td>Contacting</td>
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<td>Relaxing</td>
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<td>Changing problem to goals</td>
<td>Rewarding</td>
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<td>Consoling</td>
<td>Analyzing problem</td>
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<td>Controlling</td>
<td>Exploring Alternative and Implications</td>
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Further, defining social work skills, Gordon adds; setting the stage, the strict observance of confidentiality, encouragement, stimulation or participation, empathy, and objectivity are means of facilitating communication in social work. The individual social worker always makes his own creative contribution in the application of social work method to any setting or activity. As a means of increasing social work skill and providing guidance and controls to the social worker, Gordon indicates that case recording; supervision, case conferences, review and evaluation, and consultation etc are used.
3.5 VARIOUS SKILLS SETS REQUIRED BY NGOS ARE AS FOLLOWS

A. COMMUNITY ORGANIZING: Group dynamics - Community integration - Problem identification - Community investigation - Facilitation – Mobilization - Communication - Role-playing - Objectivity, monitoring and evaluation

B. PARTICIPATORY ACTION RESEARCH: Identification of research problem - Identification of different research tools - Data gathering - Analysis of data - Consultation with the community and validation of data - Drawing of conclusions - Making of recommendations

C. BUSINESS SKILLS: Planning - Participatory (circular) management - Accounting and bookkeeping - Marketing and purchasing - Negotiation - Monitoring and record keeping - Technical skill in micro-computers - Organizing cooperatives/credit unions - Handling labour problems - Understanding legal aspects

D. DOCUMENTATION, DISSEMINATION OF INFORMATION: Small group formation - Clarification of values and vision - Group dynamics - Different kinds of media production - Communication skills and visual aids – Concretization / sensitizing skills - Advocacy - Networking and linkages

E. TRAINING METHODS: Use of cultural forms - Use of media - On-the-job training - participant observation - Workshop organization - Group dynamics - Practice-Theory/Action-reflection - Exposure programme - Group discussion and synthesis, brain-storming - Self-learning kits and modules

F. TECHNOLOGY TRAINING - APPROPRIATE TECHNOLOGIES: Some of the examples are Agriculture, Fishing, Post-Harvest Technology, Energy, Housing, Health, Sanitation, Handicrafts, Food Technology.

Having presented some literature on the Professional Knowledge about the specific field, specific agency & specific client and application, usages skills, types of skills by social worker, it becomes necessary to describe the relationship between knowledge and skills in terms of value, work value and professional attitude.
3.6 VALUES AND WORK VALUES

Values have been conceptualized in different ways, they occupy a prominent place in the scientific and public discourse at a number of levels. Munel Pumphrey (1959) has defined values as "values are formulations of preferred behavior held by individuals or social groups. They imply a usual preference for certain means, ends, and conditions of life, often being accompanied by strong feeling."

Herbert Aptekar (1967) defines the meaning of value: as "A standard or standards held by a significant portion of a society reflected in patterns of institutionalized behavior, and predisposing the participants to act in relation to one another within the framework of commonly understood although not consciously controlled or logically consistent referential system." Milton Rokeach (1973) defines values as "an enduring belief that a specific mode or end state of existence personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode or end state of existence."

Values according to Dose (1997) are evaluative standards relating to work or the work environment, by which individuals discern what is right or assess the importance of preferences one easily generate examples to show that individuals would probably be more comfortable in an environment, that is consistent with their values. Values are usually defined as a set of generalized beliefs about what good, desirable or rights. In personality structure, they are most often defined as general and relatively stable goals that individuals consider to be important in their life (Sverko, 1987). Discussing values, we normally use the word 'should' to refer to a standard developed at the level of the cultural or personality structure. However, recent research into this phenomenon indicates that the values themselves have different cultures prohibit different hierarchies of values. (Super and Sverko, 1995).

At the most basic level theoreticians (Falling 1965; Rokeach 1973 Williams 1968) have focused on two types of values. One type is the value that an individual places on an object or outcome (the value one places on pay).
A second type of value more likely to be used to describe a person as opposed to an object (Feather 1995) These values have been further subdivided into instrumental and terminal values (Rokeach 1973) Terminal values are self-sufficient and states of existence that a person strives to achieve (e.g. honesty and helpfulness) rather than states of existence.

Rokeach (1973) has proposed a functional relationship between instrumental and terminal values wherein instrumental values describe behavior that facilitate the attainment of terminal values. The two types of values described above are often identified using terms such as the value "inherent in an object" and the values "possessed by a person" (Milton Rokeach 1973).

It is important to recognize however that object or outcomes do not possess innate value apart from the values attached to them by person. Thus the icons of both types of values are within the individual. A distinctive characteristic of values is "oughtness." This term indicates that values specify an individual's personal beliefs about how he or she "should" or "ought" to behave that is a person's values do not necessarily reflect how he or she wants or desires to behave but rather they describe his or her internalized interpretations about socially desirable ways to fulfill his or her needs (Kluckhohn, 1951) Rokeach 1973; Williams 1968, 1979) This distinction derives from values being partially influenced by culture.

A few relevant verse are presented from Shreemad Bhagwad Gita, signifying the value of the work:

"Set thy heart upon work but never on its reward. Work not for a reward; but never cease to do thy work."

"Even as the unwise work selfishly in the bondage of selfish worker let the wise man work unselfishly for the good of the world."

"When work is done as sacred work unselfishly with a peaceful mind without lust or hate with no desire for reward, then the work is pure."

"But when work is done with selfish desire or feeling it is an effort or thinking it is sacrifice then the work is impure."
“And that work which is done with confused mind without considering what may follow or one’s own powers or the harm done to other or one’s own loss is work of darkness.”

So it is evident from the above versus that how important values are in work and one should have a need to poses strong work values as well.

3.6.1 TYPES AND SOURCES OF VALUES

The values we hold, are derived from Parents, Teachers, Friends and from Individuals to whom we respect and attempt to imitate. The celebrities of entertainment, athletic, business and political communities can also influence the value system. One’s early idea of what is right and wrong were probably formulated from the view expressed by one’s parents but as one grows up, there are high alterations in the value system. Such values are relatively stable and enduring.

There are several types of values. Ultimate values are the most abstract and tend to be those most easily agreed on by large groups of people. They include such values as liberty, worth and dignity of people, progress, and justice. Proximate values are more specific as to the desired end state. Instrumental values are those values that specify the desired means to the ends, they are modes of conduct. Self-determination and confidentiality are examples of instrumental values.

Allport and his associates have done pioneering job in describing the types of values of values or classifications. They identified six types of values;

(i). Theoretical; It places high importance on the discussion of truth through a critical and rational approach; (ii). Economic; it emphasises the useful and practical aspects of economic behavior. (iii). Aesthetic; it places the higher values on form and harmony. (iv). Social; the highest value is given to the love of people. (v). Political it places emphasis on the acquisition of power and influence. (vi). Religious; It is concerned with unity of experience and understanding of the cosmos as a whole.
Numerous possibilities have been offered to explain similarities and differences in the values held by individuals. One suggestion derives from the belief that values are “founded in part upon the fundamental biological similarities of all human beings” (Kluckhohn 1951). Another proposition is that individuals in part rely on values as a means to justify their behavior (Nord 1988). Thus variance in values could be the direct result of differences in individuals' behavior.

The most frequently evoked reason for similarities and differences in values is that values are influenced by personal experiences and exposure to more formal socialization forces. (Bern, 1970; Iljonos & Geerad, 1967; Rokeach, 1973) Most value theorists see values as products of culture or social system; thus individuals learn through both formal and informal means to behave in ways that are appropriate in their social environment. Values are relevant to specific social institutions or work organizations; it primarily occurs during the organizational entry and socialization processes.

Values are relatively permanent although capable of being changed under certain conditions. It is also discovered that values can be changed using interventions that produce self dissatisfaction (Rokeach & Ball, Rokeach, 1989). A number of mechanisms have been proposed to explain value stability. Rokeach (1973) maintains that values are stable because as previously noted they are learned in isolation from each other. It is this absolute learning or values that more or less guarantees their endurance and stability. Jones and Gerald (1979) explain value stability by stating that people experience some discomfort or deprivation in acquiring values. Thus values acquire stability because individuals develop attachments to the things they have undergone discomfort to acquire.

In fact because values relate to nearly all forms of behavior, one would be hard pressed to think of a situation that did not involve value conflict at some level. Many theorists and researchers believe that a person's values are hierarchically organized according to their relative importance to the individual (Locke, 1991; Ravin & Meglino, 1989; Rokeach, 1973).
According to Chaudhary (1988) "all the values for managerial role may be classified under five basic values viz truth, righteous conduct, peace, love and non-violence". Social work as a profession draws a lot from various social sciences such as psychology, sociology, social psychology etc as its professional values it promotes the values of democracy like openness, sharing, clients autonomy, enhancement of client's power, respect for client, promoting self-realization of clients and so on

At the organizational level, values are viewed as a major component of organizational culture (O'Reilly & Chairman 1996 Schein 1985) and are often described as principles for the successful management of a number of companies (e.g Mitchell & Oneal 1994).

Organizational values are the values that individuals are supposed to follow while in the organization. These values are learnt during socialization process in a organizations through apparent and not so apparent norms and mores that one learns through day today interaction.

Woodcock and Dave (1989) have developed a framework to understand four types of organizational values namely 'Managing management' values (power, elitism and reward ) 'Managing the task ' values (effectiveness, efficiency and economy) 'Managing relationships; values (fairness, teamwork and low and order) and 'managing the environmental 'values (defense, competitiveness and opportunism).

Friedlander (1976) has classified the value of organization Development into the following three types:
- Rationalism: Values related to importance of logic, consistency & determinism.
- Pragmatism: Values related to improvement of practice on the basis of learning & experimentation. 
- Existentialism: The values that emphasize the present in terms of an individual's own, immediate, subjective experience.

Vizek-Vidovic (1984) contends that professional values are internalized early on in the socialization process and that their position within the individual's value system is relatively stable. Values are an inherent part of social work and determine and immediate goals to be attained in working with a client.
3.6.3 SOCIETAL VALUES
Like individuals, organizations and professions, each society/nation also has its own values, embedded in its culture, evolved as a result of the society's efforts to survive and grow. Hofstede (1980) is the very first researcher to have worked on work related cultural values across 50 countries. His studies revolve around the four dimensions of cultural value namely, power distance (how power is distributed) uncertainty avoidance (how societies respond to unknown future) individualism-collectivism (how the individual is related to the group of which he/she is a member) and masculinity-femininity (related to group dominant gender based value systems). Hofstede (1980) found that the societies tended to vary in terms of differences along these cultural dimensions. For instance,

- In Indian society individuals are predisposed to centralized decision making, have high tolerance for ambiguity, are little more collectivistic than individualistic, and have a strong tendency to perform, achieve, make money, show off and consider big as beautiful.
- In Austrian society, individuals feel comfortable in pursuing their interdependent relationships.
- The American society ranks highest on individualism, individuals are self-oriented and tend to look after their own self-interest, and place much emphasis on individual initiative and achievement.
- Sweden as a nation is the most feminine. Their dominant values are to be people oriented, not to show off, pay attention to the quality of life rather than making money and to consider small as beautiful.

A study was conducted by Knezevic, Mladen (1999) to examine the work values of a group of 169 fish men social work students in Croatia. It is argued that the values for self-actualization were ranker the highest, closely followed by socially oriented values. In addition it is asserted that the value of altruism was ranked differently by social work students and by other Zagreb University students. It is concluded that the findings of the survey indicate that these young people have selected their career out of commitment to the basic values that they believe in.
A study was conducted by Birnbaum-More, Philip H Wong, Gilbert Y Y. Olve, Nils-Goran (1995) to examine the proposition that as industrialization increases, managerial values converge. The four managerial values of power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity and individualism were measured by self-reports from 350 managerial trainees in the People's Republic of China (PRC) and Hong Kong. The findings provided support for the proposition that managerial values converge with increased industrialism. The most important predictor of society membership was individualism. Power distance was the next most important predictor of society membership, but it was far less significant than individualism. Uncertainty avoidance came third in importance in predicting society membership. The masculinity value was not significantly different between the two areas and was the smallest of the standardized discriminate functions. The effects of age, sex, years of education, and management level on the acquisition of managerial values in each society were explored.

### 3.6.4 RELEVANCE OF VALUES IN ORGANIZATIONAL STUDIES AND MANAGEMENT PRACTICE

Values—whether professional / personal / work have been the focus of research discussion and debate. Since NGOs are part of larger society, values have been given equal importance in their studies and practices. Individuals in organizations are from different culture familial and societal values. Hence organizations becomes a fusion point of alignment between individual values and organizational values. Burke (1982) aptly put it “peoples values evolve from their beliefs about what is good and what is bad. These are influenced by their family society and organization. Connor and Becker (1975) opined,” interest in the subject of human values has ranged from abstract contemplation by philosophers and political theorists to empirical scrutiny by quantitative psychologists. With only a few exceptions however investigators have not concerned themselves with values and the organization".
Over the years, several scholars and professional groups have developed typologies of core values in social work (see e.g., Bartlett, 1970, Biestek, 1957, Gordon, 1965, NASW, 1982, Plant, 1970; Pumphrey, 1959; Teicher, 1967; Timms, 1983, Vigilante, 1974).

Code of Ethics Revision Committee, which drafted the 1996 NASW Code of Ethics conducted a thorough review of various typologies of social work values and generated a list of six core values social justice that are now formally incorporated in the code and pertain to social welfare administration - service ("Social workers challenge social injustice"), dignity and worth of the person ("Social workers respect the inherent dignity and worth of the person"), importance of human relationships ("Social workers recognize the central importance of human relationships"), integrity ("Social workers behave in a trustworthy manner"), and competence ("Social workers practice within their areas of competence and develop and enhance their professional expertise")

3.6.5 WORK VALUES

Work values referring to a general attitude regarding the meaning that an individual attaches to his work role and attempts to study in relation with a measure of job performance. Work values may however be subject to the influence of demographic variables like occupational levels resulting in differential effects upon value hierarchies (Friedlander 1965). Such underlying values and attitudes towards work role result in work behaviours such as cooperativeness, initiative, absenteeism, tardiness, even the quality and quantity of work (Cherrington, Cordie and England 1979) result in worker effectiveness.

Work value is an important element in the world of work. Moreover, work values are important in understanding an individual's career choice (Alvi, 1980). Studies by Taylor, Covaleski (1982) indicated that values and career plans play an important role than job satisfaction as discriminating factors between those who remained in their job with those who turnover their jobs within turnover their jobs within the one year period of the research.
In a study conducted by Hard Castle (1984) it was found that there was no relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic work values in respect to personality differences. However, women seem to be more concerned over mastery achievement in respect to work values. Wolfe (1969) reported that women seem to derive a sense of accomplishment and satisfaction from their work.

### 3.6.6 MODEL OF WORK VALUES

In nearly all cultures, work values constitute an important part of work values as a set of beliefs about what is good and desirable with regard to our work role. More specifically, work values are general and relatively stable goals we wish to attain through work (Sverko and Super, 1995). Sverko & Super (1995) have postulated 19 dominant values associated with work, which are as follows:

1. Ability utilization (the opportunity to make full use of one's abilities, skills, and knowledge).
2. Achievement (the visible results of work and the related satisfaction with the successful completion of a task).
3. Personal development (the opportunity for personal development and self-realization).
4. Participation in decisions (participating in decisions relative to the work process).
5. Aesthetics (creating and enjoying the beauty of one's surroundings).
6. Creativity (inventiveness, creating new methods, objects or ideas).
7. Autonomy (independent action initiative in solving problems and decision-making).
8. Life style (the ability to behave in a special way, in accordance with one's own standards and convictions).
9. Variety (changes in the way of achieving one's functions and roles in life).
10. Altruism (helping others achieve their functions and roles in life).
11. Social interaction (contact with other people and social groups).
12. Social relations (achieving mutual understanding in relationships with the people one works with).
13. Working conditions (good physical conditions in which to work).
15. Advancement (satisfactory opportunities for career advancement and promotion).
16. Prestige (enjoying one's social status and reputation).
17. Authority (the opportunity to influence the opinions and actions of other people).
18. Risk (accepting the danger involved in one's actions).
19. Physical activity (the opportunity to develop one's body).
Asamoah (1997) has noted Values are often proclaimed as a major
distinguishing characteristic of the social work profession, perhaps more
important than its knowledge base or methodologies.

Hema Joshi (1982) conducted a study on the work values among professional
social work practitioners. She has revealed that the beliefs of the professional
social work practitioners about the work values of the profession are positive.
Almost for every work values statement, the responses are above 75% in
positive side and the gap between their beliefs and cherishing the value in
practice, is not high but in every almost statement the gap is less than 25%.

C S. Singal (1998) Age may be one of the contributing factors for work-values
and attitude. Studies on this variable have yielded generally consistent results
indicating that older employees are more satisfied, more job involved and more
committed. The positive relation between age and work attitudes has been
interpreted in three major ways:

(i) People revise their expectations and desires to fit the relations of their jobs as
they move through development stages; (ii). Age structures the work place such
that older employees occupy better jobs that the younger counter-parts and
therefore are more satisfied with and involved in the work; (iii). The age-work
attitudes relationship has been interpreted as a cohort phenomenon where
different age groups of workers receive different messages about what they can
expect from the job. The younger workers generally expect far more from their
jobs than they are getting and hence experienced tremendous discontentment. In
regard to job involvement, the view of research studies suggest that task
characteristics are more important predictors of job involvement in the early
career stages whereas personal characteristics and financial rewards are more
influential in the later career stages (Loscocco, Karya A 1991).

Meeta Yardi (2000) conducted a study on code of conduct and value of women
social work professional working in Government organizations and non-
government, which revealed that majority of the respondents, were high on self
code of conduct. It was also found that majority of the respondents were high as
well as moderate on client code of conduct & and were low on societal code of
conduct.
So far in this chapter an overview of literature on knowledge, skill, attitudes and work values of the people with NGO is presented. Now some aspects of job satisfaction and quality of work life of the people involving third sector is presented

3.7 THE CONCEPT OF JOB SATISFACTION

During the 1940s and 1950s, there was a "debate on well-being", which aimed largely at the physical work environment. Research efforts were directed at physiological and medical factors and at questions of industrial safety. In the 1950s and 1960s, sociological research broadened and the result was to supplement the concept of job satisfaction as seen from a physiological and medical point of view.

According to Oxford dictionary, job satisfaction is an “Application of effort to a purpose force in action, doing something a task of materials to be operated on doing or experience of specified kind employment, especially as a means of earning money, thing done or made a product or manifestation” Job satisfaction is set of favorable or unfavorable feelings and emotions with which, employees view their work. It is an effective attitude—a feeling of relative likes or dislikes. Job satisfaction is defined “as a combination of psychological, physiological and environment circumstances that causes a person truthfully to say I am satisfied with the job.”

Bullock (1952) “job satisfaction is an attitude that results from a balancing and summation of many specific likes and dislikes experienced in connection with the job.” “Smith (1955) has defined job satisfaction as an employee’s judgment of how well his job satisfied his various needs.” McGregor (1960) Argyns (1964) have argued that root of job satisfaction, involvement lies in the need satisfying potential of the job environment. “Vrom (1964) has defined job satisfaction as the positive orientation of an individual towards work role that he is presently holding.” Similarly, Smith, Kendall and Hullin (1969) regards job satisfaction “as feeling or affective responses to faces or the situation but in next sentence “hypothesize that these feeling are associated with perceived difference between what is expected as a fair return and what is experienced.”
Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969) have also suggested that there are five job dimensions that represent the most important characteristic of a job about which people have affective response. These are: i) The work itself—the extent to which the job provides the individual with interesting tasks, opportunities for learning, and the chance to accept responsibility, ii) Pay—the amount of financial remuneration that is received and the degree to which this is viewed as equitable vis-à-vis others in the organization, iii) Promotion opportunities—the chance for advancement in the hierarchy, iv) Supervision—the abilities of the superior to provide technical assistance and a behavioral support, v) Co-workers—the degree to which fellow workers are technical proficient and socially supportive.

Frindlander and Margulies (1969) have shown that organizational climate (OC) is a significant determinant of job satisfaction. Graneberg (1972) job satisfaction is a set of favourable or unfavourable feelings with which employees view their work.

Cawsey (1973), job satisfaction increases, as the individual perceives organizational climate as having more opportunities achievements. Roben-Kahon (1973) job satisfaction does seem to reduce absence, turnover and perhaps accident rates.

Locke (1976) gives a comprehensive definition of job satisfaction as "a pleasurable or positive emotional (affect) state resulting from the appraisal (cognition) of one's job or job experience". He reported 20 years ago that there were over 3,300 studies on the subject of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction as suggested by Ghiselli and Brown (1979) has many different points of reference and few workers indeed are satisfied with all aspects their job.

According Bloom and Taylor (1981) job satisfaction is the result of various attitudes possessed by an employee. These attitudes are related to the job and are concerned with such factors as wages conditions of work, social relation on the job steadiness of employment and other similar terms.

Kemelger (1982), job satisfaction or dissatisfaction is a function of perceived relationship between what one expects and obtains from one's job and how much importance or value be attributes to it.
According to Pastonjee (1990) 'job satisfaction can be taken as a summation of employees feelings in four important areas'. These areas are (i) Job Nature of work , fellow workers, physical environment, machines and tool etc (ii) Management supervisory treatment, participation rewards, punishments and praise etc (iii) Social relations - friend and associated neighbour participation in social activities etc. (iv) Personal adjustments Health emotionally home and living conditions finance relation with family member etc.

According to Gilmer job satisfaction or dissatisfaction is a result of various attitudes the person holds towards his job related factors and life general Krech and crutch field suggest that the causes of worker's satisfaction are not restricted to factor alone but they also run the whole gamut of man's need and aspirations. The term job satisfaction is viewed as a "positive attitude towards one's work, which is global in nature and which results from many specific job-related experiences" (Sharma and Bhasker, 1991). According to Tiffin and Mc Cormick (1992) job satisfaction in part is affected by degree to which the work situation result in fulfillment of certain values that individual possesses.

Bray-field and Crackett (1993) consider these social systems to be important in workers motivation, viz fellow workers, the company and the community. From time to time Herzberg, Mausuer, Peteron, Capell and many others have explained the following factors, which constitute job satisfaction namely Intrinsic aspect of the job, Supervision, Working condition, Images, Opportunity for advancement, Security, Company and management, Social aspect of the job, Communication. Job satisfaction is also considered with job content identification with the company, financial and job status and pride in the group performance.

H. C. Ganguli (1999) Job satisfaction refers to an individual's attitude towards his job. Two scales are prepared for measuring overall satisfaction with the job (i). long scale (ii). short scale. The SEA (Short Employee Attitude) scale has twelve items covering four dimensions—intrinsic nature of work, wage and security, supervision, company policies and practices ‘Long Employee Attitude Scale’ (LEA Scale) has 26 items covering six dimensions – work itself, pay and other financial benefits, promotional and training opportunities, job security, management / supervision, colleagues–co-workers.
The scale has a greater coverage of each dimension as compared to SEA. Job satisfaction is a result of employees' perception of how well their job provides those things, which are viewed as important. There are three important dimensions to job satisfaction.

First, job satisfaction is an emotional response to a job situation. As such, it cannot be seen but can only be inferred. Second, if organizational participants feel that they are working much harder than in the department but are receiving fewer rewards, they will probably have a negative attitude toward the work, the boss, and/or coworkers. They will be dissatisfied. On the other hand, if they feel that they are likely to have a positive attitude toward the job, they will be job-satisfied. Third, job satisfaction represents several related attitudes.

3.8 THE IMPORTANCE OF JOB SATISFACTION

The importance of job satisfaction is obvious. We should be concerned with the level of job satisfaction in an organization for at least four reasons: a) There is clear evidence that dissatisfied workers skip work more often and are more likely to resign; b) Dissatisfied workers are more likely to engage in destructive behaviors; c) It has been demonstrated that satisfied employees have better health and live longer; and d) Satisfaction on the job carries over to the employee's life outside the job. Dissatisfaction is frequently associated with high levels of complaints and work grievances. Highly dissatisfied employees are more likely to resort to sabotage and passive aggression. An often overlooked dimension of job satisfaction is its relationship to employees' health. Several studies have shown that employees who are dissatisfied with their job, are prone to health setbacks. Some research even indicates that job satisfaction is a better predictor of length of life and physical condition of any person.

The final point in support of the importance of job satisfaction is the spin-off effects that job satisfaction has for society as a whole. When employees are happy with their jobs, it improves their lives off the job, in contrast one dissatisfied employee carries the negative attitudes at home. Satisfied employees are more likely to be satisfied citizens.
These people will hold positive attitude towards the life. Satisfied workforce translates into higher productivity because of fewer disruptions, by lesser absenteeism or good employees not quitting, fewer incidences of destructive behavior. Satisfaction on the job carries over to the off-the-job hours. The goal of high satisfaction for employees can be defined in terms of both cost (currency) and social responsibility.

3.8.1 DISCREPANCY MODEL
According to this model, job satisfaction is largely determined by the discrepancy between what individuals expect to get from their jobs and what actually the job offers. This model is based on the theory of motivation developed by Vroom & others (1964). According to Adams (1963), job satisfaction is determined by the ratio of inputs (attributes brought by the worker to the exchange, such as education, intelligence, and experience) to outcomes (rewards received by an individual for services rendered, such as pay, pension, and status). This ratio is computed on the basis of expectations of what constitutes a fair relationship between inputs and outcomes. This theory views satisfaction as a function of the amount of discrepancy between real and expected outcomes.

3.8.2 REWARD PERFORMANCE MODEL
Motivation is essential for job satisfaction which influences individual behavior to achieve targets and it substantially leads to satisfaction and enhances performance. This model has suggested four indicators for motivation, which lead to job satisfaction. (1) The job (2). The organization (3). The group (4). External Environment. The reward system has to repetitive in nature that constantly incorporates competitiveness in individual that leads to achievement of satisfaction from job.

3.8.3 GROWTH COMFORT MODEL
This model provides opportunities to individual that bring out the qualities and capacities of the individual. Job satisfaction of individual is related with the availability of growth related factors. Employees who are growth oriented are utilizing their capacities to their optimum level. Growth oriented individual's efforts are directed in achieving particular tasks that brings about job satisfaction.
3.8.4 TRI-DIMENSIONAL MODEL
In this model, the employer demands best quality and optimum use of resources while employees want more salary, better facilities and good wages. The fulfillment of the expectations by both employer and employee can be related to three factors viz responsibility of employers, responsibility of employees and job ambiguity. Job can be enriched by giving workers more latitude in deciding about things like, work methods making decision and by encouraging participation of employees.

3.9 ADMINISTRATIVE PRACTICE, MANAGEMENT OF PEOPLE AND ORGANIZATIONAL THEORY
Contemporary theorizing and research within this perspective have focused on four major interrelated areas: (a) job satisfaction, (b) human resource practices management, (c) trust, and (d) leadership. Job satisfaction has been shown to be correlated with such job-related attributes as relations with supervisors, work conditions, pay and promotion opportunities, job security, coworkers’ attitudes, and personal growth (Jayaratne, 1993.)

Lewis, and Souflee (1991) picture human service management as a rational process. It includes (a) setting goals, objectives, and strategies, (b) organizing, identifying, and arranging the work needed to carry out the plans; (c) mobilizing the people to make the program work; (d) planning the use of financial resources to reach the goals; (e) supervising to enhance the skills and motivation of the service providers; and (f) evaluating the accomplishments of the program.

The relationship between human resource practices and performance, including participatory management, has been the focus of many studies (Pfeffer, 1997). Factors such as decentralization, participation, teamwork, job enrichment, autonomy and flexibility, high-level training, and performance-based rewards have been correlated with organizational performance.

Keller and Dansereau (1995) proposed that when superiors empower subordinates, subordinates reciprocate by performing in accordance with the preferences of the supervisors. Glisson (1989) showed that the more workers perceive their leaders to have power and maturity, the greater their commitment to the organization.
3.10 THEORIES IN ADMINISTRATION OF SOCIALWELFARE/DEVELOPMENT

Glisson (1992) showed in human service organization, structure determines how workers will implement the technology. That is, if the structure is centralized and formalized, the workers will treat the clients in a uniform and routine manner. The human relations model of organizations, concerned with the environment in which work is carried out, has sought to explain organizational behavior in terms of "human factors" such as personalities, motivation, job satisfaction, anxiety, attitudes, and interpersonal interactions (Argyris, 1957, Bennis, 1967, Bolman & Deal, 1997, Linkert, 1967).

3.10.1 POSITIONAL APPROACH

The classical view of organizational structure is rooted in the work of Weber (1922 / 1947), Parsons (1951), and Homans (1958). In their view, structure is the pattern of relations among positions in the organization (or in the group, community, or society).

3.10.2 RELATIONAL APPROACH

The relational approach became increasingly popular among organizational theorists during the late 1970s and early 1980s (Brass, 1984; Roberts & O’Reilly, 1978; Tichy, 1981). However, most of this work concentrated on inter-organizational networks. (Krackhardt & Brass, 1994). Size, density, distance, and components are some key indicators of structure derived from the relational view.

3.10.3 SYSTEM DYNAMICS APPROACH

In contrast to the positional and relational approaches, system dynamics assumes that each variable is linked in a circular process to both performance and to some of the other variables. Organizational performance is viewed as an ongoing, interdependent, self-sustaining, dynamic process instead of viewing it as an outcome resulting from a set of static, stimulus-response relations.

System dynamics originated in the work of Forrester (1961, 1971, 1975). In system dynamics, the emphasis shifts from the local spatial and temporal perspective of an independent variable affecting a dependent variable to a web of ongoing interdependencies.
The focus is less on the particular variables of structure and more on the rising and falling patterns of relationships among those variables.

3.10.4 QUALITY OF WORK LIFE APPROACH

The quality of work life approaches (Deci, 1975; Hackman & Oldham, 1980) argue that workers can be intrinsically motivated when their jobs are made more satisfying through a more participatory system. In particular, it proposes that motivation, satisfaction, and quality of performance all increase when the following job dimensions are present: skill variety, task identity, task significance, and feedback. They also suggest that although management sets performance targets, workers should have more autonomy in choosing the means to achieve them.

3.11 RECENT RESEARCHES RELEVANT TO MOTIVATING WORK PERFORMANCE & JOB SATISFACTION IN SOCIAL SERVICES

Arvey and Murphy's (1998) review of the work performance evaluation literature beginning in 1993 also summarizes three recent trends (1.) The Conception of work performance would be viewed as multi factorial in nature. (2) Definition of job performance are becoming less precise (3) Much has been learnt about the measurement of job performance in terms of the validity of this construct, rating accuracy and rating error, individual versus group evaluation, and issues of rating fairness and bias (Arvey and Murphy, 1998).

Recently there is substantial interest in so-called "360-degree" performance measures that incorporate evaluations from a number of different rater perspectives: supervisor, peer, subordinate, self, and even customers. These are used for feedback and / or personnel decisions (Arvey & Murphy, 1998).

Koeske and Kirk (1995) studied optimism among experienced case managers with challenging mental health clients. The authors found that "the better adjusted the worker was at the start of the job, the better the later work outcomes".

3.11.1 JOB SATISFACTION AMONG SOCIAL WORKERS

In examining the empirical research on social work job satisfaction, the framework developed by Stamps and Piedmont (1986) is useful in organizing the review of social work literature.
They identified six components as correlates, or predictors, of job satisfaction:
1) Autonomy – the amount of work-related independence, initiative, and freedom either permitted or required in daily work activities. 2) Job status - the overall importance felt about the job at the personal level as well as its importance to the organization and the community. 3) Organizational requirements – constraints or limits imposed by the organization's management. 4) Personal interaction – opportunities and requirements presented for formal and informal social and professional contacts during working hours. 5) Task requirements – those tasks that must be done as a regular part of the job. 6) Pay – dollar remuneration and fringe benefits.

The social work literature also indicates that these six factors are related to social work job satisfaction. Autonomy, operationalized as control over decision-making, has been positively correlated with social work job satisfaction (Arches, 1991). Status – in this instance the perception that the job has a positive effect on the lives of people in the organization the community is also associated with job satisfaction (Butler, 1990). Organization requirements, such as workload and workstations, are negatively correlated with job satisfaction among social workers (Barber, 1986; Kaplan, 1991).

The foregoing review of literature indicates that a wide variety of factors have been studied in relation to job satisfaction which can be grouped into two broad categories; (a) Person-related factors, and (b) organization-related factors. Studies that examined the role of both personal and organizational factors as determinants of job satisfaction have found that between the two sets of factors, organizational factors play a more decisive role in influencing job satisfaction (Sharma and Bhaskar, 1991).

P. Ramchandran (1969) studied the professional social workers in India. His findings were that the social work professionals were underutilized. Shah (1969) concluded in her research on job satisfaction and work values that (i) Overall job satisfaction depends upon the extent which specific work values are seemed to be satisfied. (ii) Satisfaction of more important and specific work values leads to overall job satisfaction. Thus, satisfaction of certain work values lead to job satisfaction.
A study of voluntary social welfare in India by D P Chowdhary (1971) is based on data collected from 6,000 voluntary agencies, 600 Mahila Mandalas and 66 National organizations. The basic objective of the study was to determine the concept, scope, extent and forms of voluntary effort and its advantages. N V Lalitha (1975) made a study of voluntary work in India which covered about 400 agencies and 856 volunteers in nine metropolitan cities. A third study is on organization in rural development by Mukherjee (1979) which covered 1,850 organizations and has done an in-depth study of 360 organizations.

Other studies of social workers have tried to use job satisfaction as a way to gather and compare attitudes possibly related to motivation and job performance as expressed in different social service settings (Jayaratne & Chess, 1985). Factors associated with job satisfaction and turnover among child welfare workers are also studied by A. Hartman & J. Laird in 1991. Another study of job satisfaction and retention of NASW members compared those employed in public and non-profit agencies, as well as in private practice (Vinokur-Kalpan 1994).

The authors found a variety of demographic workplace conditions (i.e., job security) and workplace motivators (e.g., autonomy, promotion opportunities) accounting for 37% to 40% of the variance in job satisfaction and 14% to 23% of the variance in intention to seek another job.

Although such studies have been noteworthy in giving voice to social workers' attitudes toward their jobs, they have been notably limited by the following methodological issues: (a) lack of true longitudinal studies of representative samples that could better distinguish cause and effect, (b) self-reports not accompanied by other independently obtained measures (e.g., supervisors, significant others, or agency performance data), and (c) the inadequately studied relationship between social workers' own personal levels of job satisfaction (or their intention to stay on the job) and their actual work performance.

Glisson & Durick, (1988) Job satisfaction and organizational commitment are each affected by a unique hierarchy of predictors... two job characteristics, skills variety and role ambiguity, are the best predictors of job satisfaction, while two organization characteristics, leadership and the organization's age, are the best predictors of commitment.
The findings show that organizational climate (including low conflict, cooperation, role clarity, and personalization) is the primary predictor of positive service outcomes (the children’s improved psychosocial functioning) and a significant predictor of service quality (Glisson & Hemmelgarn, 1998). Recent research from the social work management literature emphasizes that better outcomes for clients, workers, and organizations are achieved in positive organizational environments in which social workers can practice their profession with autonomy, respect, and collegiality. Research on social service organizations has shown that social workers’ perceptions of their work environment affect both their job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Glisson & Durick, 1988). Blu (1960) documented that the attitudes and behavior of social workers in social welfare systems are affected by the norms, values, and perceptions typical of their work groups.

3.11.2 GENDER AND JOB SATISFACTION
In a 1989 survey of nearly 900 NASW members, Vinokur-Kaplan, Jayaratne, and Chess (1994) reported a modest but significant correlation of gender and job satisfaction, with female workers indicating more satisfaction. McNeely (1984) also reported significantly higher intrinsic job satisfaction among female workers in one of six countries studied, although the gender difference disappeared when data were aggregated across all countries. McNeely’s (1992) study over 2000 human services employees in six countries welfare departments replicated salary differences in terms of job satisfaction.

3.11.3 AGE AND JOB SATISFACTION
Researchers have found a positive and linear relationship between age and job satisfaction (Krishnan & Krishnan, 1994; White & Spector, 1987; Lindstrom, 1988). However, some researchers have found the opposite results (Snyder & Mayo, 1991). Worker’s age has been given modest attention as a predictor of job satisfaction. McNeely’s (1988) multisided data compared three age groups of human service workers—those under 30, those 30 to 54 and those over 55—and found greater satisfaction among older workers, because age is normally confounded with tenure in a job or profession, this difference may simply reflect greater attrition in the oldest group.

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Poulin (1994) found that "increased job autonomy is associated with increased job satisfaction. [and] the strongest organizational predictor of [positive] job satisfaction change was satisfaction with professional development opportunities." He found that supervisors and administrators with high self-esteem had significantly higher job satisfaction. Jagdish Gandhi (2000) reported a significant positive correlation between job satisfaction and self-esteem. Gable and Topal (1987) have found a significant negative correlation between Machiavellians and job satisfaction. Krishnan and Knshnan (1984) found that leadership style and participation in decision-making were significant correlates of job satisfaction for American respondents, whereas recognition and advancement, innovation and change, and absence of intradepartmental as well as interdepartmental conflicts were significant correlates of job satisfaction for the Indian respondents.

Bhaskar & Sharma (1991) have found "recognition and appreciation" as important determinant of job satisfaction in their study of engineers in a public sector undertaking. In another study by Sharma and Bhaskar (1991), "objectivity and rationality" emerged as powerful determinant of job satisfaction. A vast majority Kanungo (1990) explicitly showed the irrelevance of western models in eastern organizational realities. Subsequently, Kanungo and Mendonca (1994) combined the principles of content and process theories to advance an integrated theory of motivation which in essence, postulates that employees satisfaction will be a function of the expectancy that their salient needs (irrespective of being internal or external) will be satisfied in the organization. The theory needs empirical support.

In the Indian collectivist culture (Hofstede 1980; Sinha & Verma 1987, 1994; Triandis 1994) where work life is likely to be less segregated from the life in general, the levels of life satisfaction are expected to have a strong impact on employees degrees of satisfaction with their organization. The studies have provided evidence for correlation between job satisfaction and participation (Miller & Monge, 1986, Pestonjee, 1990)

The study was conducted on the job satisfaction of NGO and government sector employees of Dhaka city Nazrul Islam department of Psychology University of Dhaka.
60 respondents were selected from three NGO’s and 60 respondents from three
government sector organizations and their level of job satisfaction were
measured by the Bangal version of the Brayfield-Rothe (1955) scale. The Data
revealed that job satisfaction of the government sector employees was
significantly higher than NGO sector employees (\( F = 5.60, p< 0.01 \)). It was also
found that the job satisfaction of the male employees was significantly higher
than female employees (\( F = 6.82, p< 0.01 \)). The job satisfaction of the respondents
of joint family was significantly higher than the respondents of single family
(\( F=7.04, p<0 1 \))

Alan G. Crake through North central University at Prescott, Arizona conducted
Job satisfaction of the employee in the Australian Overseas Aid and development
NGO sector. A sample of 416 members of a population of 1674 was selected.

The purpose of this study was firstly, to identify facet-specific and general levels
of Job Satisfaction in the Sector, and secondly, to determine the influence of
selected personal and organizational characteristics on General Job Satisfaction
This study found that employees of the Australian overseas aid and development
NGO sector were most satisfied with the social service, activity, moral values,
variety, independence, ability utilization and creativity job facets. Job facets of
relatively lesser satisfaction included compensation, company policies and
practices, and advancement. A multiple regression analysis showed that only
one variable age group was a significant source of variance in general
satisfaction. Paid employees in the Australian overseas aid and development
NGO sector experience a high degree of satisfaction with their jobs.

Vinokur-Kaplan (1991) probed variety of hygienic and motivational factors
contributing to job satisfaction and retention among human service personnel. In
a study of new child welfare practitioners, is stepwise regression predicting 43 %
of variance in job satisfaction revealed the five strongest predictors to be
dissatisfying salary, dissatisfying working conditions, feelings of accomplishment
and other dissatisfaction.
Another study of job satisfaction and retention of NASW members compared to those employed in public and non-profit agencies, as well as in private practice (Vinokur-Kaplan 1991). The authors found a variety of democratic workplace conditions (job security) and work-place motivators (autonomy, promotion, opportunities,) accounting for 37 to 40% of the variance in job satisfaction another such studies.

The Glisson and Hemmelgarn (1998) suggest that agencies with higher level of job satisfaction, fairness, role clarity, cooperation and lower level of role overload, conflict and emotional exhaustion are more likely to support caseworker's efforts. that lead to success

A study conducted by National Institute of Public Co-operation and Child Development (1977) revealed that 87% of Aganwadi workers were dissatisfied with their pay, 52% with job security, 64% from the cooperation rendered by nutrition, staff, and 24% with the child development project officer. (Planning Commission New Delhi, 1977).

Mona Amin (2000) as conducted a study on job satisfaction & stress on 94 women social work professional working in Government organizations and Non Government organizations in 4 cities i.e. Ahemedabad, Baroda, Surat and Gandhinagar of Gujarat revealed the following parameters and their relationship with job satisfaction.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameters</th>
<th>Low Frequency</th>
<th>Moderate Frequency</th>
<th>High Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Physical conditions</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remuneration &amp; benefits</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authority</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship with superior colleague &amp; subordinate</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education training skills</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social security</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A study conducted by Dr. Shalini Saxena and Achala Gakkhr in one of the 7 blocks i.e. new rural block district Tonk of Rajasthan revealed the job satisfaction of the Anganwadi workers by 5-levels rating scale ranging from minimum to maximum on following parameters: ★ Administrative factors ★ work place and congenial work environment ★ nature of the job ★ facility available to job obligation ★ community response ★ Involvement of workers in decision-making ★ facilities available for workers family.

The study reveals that majority of the anganwadi workers that is 90.03% (out of 120 anganwadi workers) in all the projects had medium level of satisfaction with their job. Only 6% and 3.97% of the respondents expressed high and low satisfaction respectively.

### COMPONENTS OF JOB SATISFACTION OF THE ANGANWADI WORKERS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No. of Components</th>
<th>High Satisfaction</th>
<th>Medium Satisfaction</th>
<th>Low Satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Administrative factors</td>
<td>2 1.66</td>
<td>110 91.6</td>
<td>8 6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Work place and Congenial</td>
<td>50 41.66</td>
<td>55 45.8</td>
<td>12 12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Nature of work</td>
<td>18 15.0</td>
<td>90 75.0</td>
<td>30 25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Facilities available to fulfill job obligations</td>
<td>56 46.0</td>
<td>60 50.0</td>
<td>4 3.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Community response</td>
<td>37 24.16</td>
<td>70 58.3</td>
<td>13 10.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Involvement of workers in decision making</td>
<td>29 24.16</td>
<td>85 70.0</td>
<td>6 5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Interpersonal relations</td>
<td>19 15.8</td>
<td>100 83.3</td>
<td>1 0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Facilities available for worker's family</td>
<td>8 6.66</td>
<td>40 33.3</td>
<td>72 60.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cullen and his colleagues conducted a national survey of wardens in 1989 that revealed a high level of job satisfaction among wardens, especially when compared to correctional officers (Cullen, Latessa, Kopache, et al., 1993).

Experiences around the world are testimony to the fact that job satisfaction of the employees has a great influence on the performance of an individual on one side and the organization another. The studies done in the areas of QWL mainly focus on relationship between working conditions and job satisfaction, new forms of organization and other aspects of humanization of work.
The essential ideas are that (1) job satisfaction must be treated as a dynamic rather than a static concept, and (2) job satisfaction must be treated as a potential cause of enhanced or diminished quality of working life, not merely as a consequence. As traditionally defined, job satisfaction has focused upon the degree to which people feel adequately rewarded and fairly treated in their work environment. This area of sociological research on work deals with the employees' attitudes to various aspects of work and work environment (external physical environment, work tasks, fellow workers, work supervision, time studies, staff policy, wages, etc. The phrase "quality of work life" suggests comprehensiveness.

3.12 QUALITY OF WORK LIFE : CONCEPTUAL VIEW


Keith Davis coins the term quality of work life QWL in 1972 in an international conference at Arden house New York. Then the term QWL has become a thought that has been traveled through to be considered as a movement, reform and policy for increased productivity in an organization (Pomonis & Baumgratel 1980). Madler & Lawler in a paper have shown that the definition QWL has undergone a progression of change over a time. Initially it was considered as a variable, later it became as an approach. By 1975 it came to be regarded as method, by 1980 it became movement and finally around 1982 it became a global concept embracing everything. In the past few years QWL has emerged as a central issue not only in India but also in other developed Nations (Herrick 1981; Deris call 1981; Greenberg & Glaster 1981; Walker - 1982; Levine - 1984; Steel - 1985; Ondrack & Evans 1986).
Quality of work life (QWL) is a process of work organization that enables its members at all levels to actively participate in shaping the organization's environment, methods and outcomes. This value-based process is aimed towards meeting the twin goals of enhanced effectiveness of organizations and improved quality of life at work for employees (Skrovon, 1980). Keith Davis (1972) refers it to favorableness and or unfavourableness of a job environment for people. J. Richard and J. Lloyd, define QWL as the "degree to which members of a work organization are able to satisfy important personal needs through their experiences in the organization". It includes work related factors influencing dedication or commitment to the job. Jenkins opines that QWL is an effort to humanize the work place through varying from participation resulting in development of skills and more job satisfaction.

Van Beinum 1974 defined QWL as the quality of the content & relationship between man & his task. According to Dey:" QWL is an indicator as how free the society is from exploitation injustice, inequality oppression and restriction on the continuity of growth of man leading to his development to the fullest." Nadler & Lawer (1985) explains: QWL as a way of thinking about people, work and organization. Carlson (1978) says QWL is essentially an individual concept and it varies from person to person.

The cross Nation experiences amply demonstrate that the improvement in QWL has definite potential and scope in improving worker's commitment to work, job satisfaction and work efficiency, reducing turnover, absenteeism, grievances and accident rate and enhancing labour productivity.

However, much can be done to further improve the Quality of Work Life in the organization. The working conditions can be improved. Improvement can be brought about by paying more attention towards keeping the work place clean, proper sitting and working arrangements, and better lighting of the place.

Johnston (1975) supports the view that workers often value factors such as job interest, flexible working hours and good working conditions above pay. Pay becomes the most important factor in job satisfaction only when it is seen as compensation for dissatisfying and alienating job situation.
The quality of work life approaches (Deci, 1975; Hackman and Oldham, 1980) argue that workers can be intrinsically motivated when their jobs are made more satisfying through a more participatory system. In particular, it proposes that motivation, satisfaction, and quality of performance all increase when the following job dimensions are present: skill-variety, task-identity, task-significance, and feedback. They also suggest that although management sets performance targets, workers should have more autonomy in choosing the means to achieve them.

Seashore (1975) pointed out that much of the research and theorizing on the concept of QWL has been primarily on the assumption that it is the individual's own personal satisfaction or dissatisfaction that defines the quality of his / her work rather than any objective criteria.

Walton (1973) views that QWL is a comprehensive phase which among other things may include factors like social relevance of work life and the total life space, that is effect of individual's work experiences on his/her family life, friend circle etc. Guest (1979) has defined QWL as a generic phase that covers a person's feelings about every dimension of work including economic rewards and benefits, security, working conditions organizational and interpersonal relationship and its intrinsic meaning in a person life.

Boisvert (1977) gave 15 dimensions for his QWL study, namely
1. control over work
2. Extent of used of one's own judgments
3. Importance of decision made.
4. Learning opportunity
5. Use of skills and abilities
6. Control over criteria of work adequacy
7. Feedback on performance
8. Challenge in the job
9. Work variety
10. Interaction with co-workers
11. recognition at work
12. Possibilities of taking pride in one's work
13. Possibilities for relating work to final products of the organization
15. Participation in organizational decision-making.

Singh (1979) gave framework of QWL which include following dimensions:
* Adequate and fare compensation
* Safe and healthy working conditions
* Security and growth opportunity
* Opportunity to use and develop system
* Response and respect for individual's personal rights
* Work and family
* Social relevance of work life
Monga & Maggu (1981) describes following dimensions of QWL: * Decision making with authority * growth and development * job security * Organizational prestige * feeling of worthwhile accomplishment * pay and allowance * promotional avenues * recognitions and appreciation.


QWL is more concerned with the overall climate of work. One analysis of QWL described it as "(1) a concern about the impact of work on people as well as on organizational effectiveness, and (2) the idea of participation in organizational problem solving and decision making." The overriding purpose of QWL is to change the climate at work so that the human technological—organizational interface leads to a better quality of work life.

Two recent events have contributed significantly for the understanding of possibilities & difficulties in improving QWL in Indian context. First was a training program organized by the public enterprise center for continuing education New Delhi on work redesign & QWL. The second was a national seminar organized by national productivity council New Delhi on improving QWL in India.

Ganguli & Joseph (1969) studied the Job satisfaction and QWL of officers in the large public sector of Iron & Steel industry. The majority officers indicated a high degree of overall Job satisfaction towards pay & working condition. But a low feeling of satisfaction towards future prospects, authority, responsibility and communication together with a system of promotion. A few other studies were on work hours, condition fatigue etc. (West 1969 Howler 1968 Alderfer 1987).
Kavnagh (1970) used the results of research to support his observation that the lack of opportunity to perform meaningful work is the root cause of frustration and dissatisfaction. Those who have more autonomy feel more satisfied.

Pestonjee (1973) described that employees under democratic supervision reported more satisfaction than under autocratic supervision.

Emery, Srivastav, Strusse, Magregor & Dutta (1975.76) in their studies stressed the fact that organization structure played a significant role in developing personality. All their studies showed that bureaucratic culture inhibits human growth and that it is inadequate for inducing commitment.

Joseph (1978) findings indicated trends (a) attitude toward nature of work is challenging and it gives a feeling of some achievement, the higher would be the QWL perception (b) associates or co-workers have the potentials to make QWL high or low and (c) attitude to supervision & pay appear to be the least associated with QWL perception.

Rosow J. M. (1979) suggested that improved QWL and productivity are related. Five aspects of productivity are pay, job security, training and development and participation. Walton and Schlesinger (1979) analyzed supervisory role within innovative work systems and improvement by emphasizing task accomplishment, to increase participation and self-made models of collaborative leadership.

Mehta (1979) found age to be a factor for importance in employees as related to satisfaction. According to him as a person becomes older, the social and family responsibility and interest increase resulting in more concern over salary and the life. Mehta & Vaccho (1980) studying the QWL as a related to satisfaction & dissatisfaction on several categories of people including government official managers & supervisory staff showed that perceived availability of influence & autonomy are the major sources of satisfaction or dissatisfaction at the work place. Singh & Maggus (1980) studies showed that QWL was considered by low across all parameters of work systems, perceived QWL being the poorest in the case of democratization of the work processes.

Sayeed & Sinha (1981) studied the relationship amongst QWL performance & job satisfaction. The result indicated that higher QWL leads to greater job satisfaction & performance.
Mishra (1985) found that QWL is the function of income, education & need fulfillment. The higher the income, education & need fulfillment, the higher is QWL perception. Mathur (1986) carried out a study of women workers in the unorganized construction industry & related QWL with background work related & other variables. Need fulfillment was significantly related to QWL & educational status. Income migration & willingness to become a skill worker.

Paranjape (1987) conducted a study on teachers of special education to correlate demographic situations & psychological variables with QWL. Age, income, educational qualification had no relationship with QWL. Sex, years of experience and physical status of respondents were found correlated with QWL.

H. Kumar & A. Shanubhogue (1996) has undertaken a study to analyse and compare the quality of work life across two universities of Gujarat: Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel University and Maharaja Sayajirao University on following ten components:


The studies presented so far reveal that QWL is increasingly affected by many individual related and organizational factors or components but many other studies also reveal definite relationship between QWL and job satisfaction.

3.12.1 QWL AND JOB SATISFACTION

A good deal of empirical work on QWL has been conducted in India (Haque, 1992). Sayeed and Sinha (1981) found in their study that there was a significant positive correlation between QWL and job satisfaction. Rahman (1984) in his study of QWL found that education and income had significant influence on the overall QWL. Lower educated and lower income subjects had significantly higher perception of QWL than the higher educated and higher income subjects. Haque (1992) found that QWL was positively correlated with job satisfaction.
He also found that there was a significant positive correlation between QWL and performance. Hossain (1997) found a significant influence of age, experience and income on the overall QWL. Brayfield and Crockett, 1955; Vroom, 1964, Locke, 1976 have positively correlated QWL and performance. Many researchers with more or less similar findings investigated Job satisfaction-performance relationship. The study was designed with a view to investigate the overall quality of working life (QWL), job satisfaction, and performance of the government hospital nurses in Bangladesh. A total number of 63 nurses were selected from three government hospitals on a stratified random sampling basis. The results revealed that there was significant positive correlation amongst QWL and job satisfaction and performance. People in the organization with greater job satisfaction and quality of work life deliver greater performance resulting in to greater quality services to the consumers or clients, which enhance their total satisfaction. This prepares the ground to describe some details on consumer/client satisfaction & quality of services of NGOs.

3.13 QUALITY OF SERVICES AND CONSUMER / CLIENT SATISFACTION

Some of the common definitions of the concept quality are; "Totality of characteristics of an entity that bear on its ability to satisfy stated and implied needs". In Dr. Juran's words, quality is "fitness for use." One widely accepted definition of quality has been "conformance to requirements." The definition, "fitness for use," brings in the customer consumer or client. "Conformance" reflects the old QC philosophy of maintenance to standards. "Fitness" says do what has to be done to satisfy the customer. "Delighting the customer," or "exceeding customer expectations." Capture in a few words what the objectives of a modern organization should be.

Thomas J Cartin (2000) Quality relates to perfection and excellence. To customers it is a value used to select products and services. In organizations of all kinds, it refers to error-free and defect-free work, products, and services. Other important quality components are dependability, consistency, safety, and meeting the needs of the customer.
Quality is the characteristic used to measure this management method. It reflects the focus on improvement in the operation of all activities output so as to be close to the ideal. Quality is much more difficult to define than is quantity. But here it can be referred in terms of the way individuals and clients are treated by the system providing services (Jain & Bruce, 1989). Using this principle Bruce has evaluated a working definitions of quality services delivered in reproductive health sector that incorporates six elements: (i) Availability of adequate choice of methods (ii). Adequate and easily understandable information given to client; (iii) Assurance of providers technical competence; (iv) Positive interpersonal relationship; (v) Provision of adequate follow up; (vi). Mechanisms to encourage continuity of use and appropriate constellation of services. The framework of quality of care given by Bruce, emphasis on the role of policy makers who are responsible for setting the scene so that the quality dimension as well as quality is planned and assessed. This framework also calls for participatory review of staff. The word satisfaction is evolved from a Latin word. It consists of two parts, satis means enough and facet means to do. So satisfaction means to do enough.

Westbrook (1986) listed a number of definitions of satisfaction but four basic units are: (a). Satisfaction is a subjective feeling or state based on a direct consumption, experience with a product or service. (b) It is an evaluative response that compares the outcome of the consumption experience with prior expectation. (c). It is an evaluation that the consumption experience is worth the value that the consumers exchange for it. (d). It is an evaluation that utility of the product or service met the need for which it was acquired. Economic theory attempts to explain consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction in terms of consumer surplus. It is assumed that consumer surplus of goods or value of specific good would lead to satisfaction and consumer shortage would lead to dissatisfaction. In a consumer satisfaction literature, the two dominant theories are Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs and Hersberg's motivation hygiene theory. According to Doran (1985) the problem of both the theories in consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction research is, that operationalization and testing has either been absent or limited.
Further more when they have been subject to empirical study, results have been generally unsupportive. Adam (1963) gives equity theory, which examines relationships in terms of inputs and outcome. The basic premises are that (i) Individual seeks to maximize outcome in relation to inputs. (ii) Outcome can be maximized equitably. In relation of consumer behavior they are said to compare the cost (inputs) of the product to the benefits received (outputs) and, if this comparison is equitable, satisfaction occurs. Research in the consumer area has indicated that satisfaction is related to fulfillment of expectance [Swan (1977)]. In particular when performance exceeds desired expectance then very high satisfaction occurs [Swan (1980)]. L. A. Tour and Peat (1980) found that experience was the main determinant of satisfaction. But when this experience is ambiguous, the experience of others can play an important role. Folkes (1984) presented an attribution theory approach for explaining when dissatisfaction will occur. This theory posits that there are three ways individuals can explain why a product would not fulfill their needs. These are (1) stability (2) focus (3) controllability. A study conducted by Hall & Doorman (1986) found out 10 specific aspects of care according to consumer (patient) satisfaction ranks. (1) Humanness (2) Competence (3) Outcome (4) Facilities (5) Continuity of care (6) Access (7) Informative ness (8) Cost (9) Bureaucracy (10) Attention to Psychosocial problems. Locke (1976) Content theory specifies the particular need that must be satisfied or the value must be attain for in individual to be satisfied.

Masterson (1991) services provide an opportunity for an interface experience, which occurs between the client and the service organization during service delivery. The experience involves a total transaction between the client (on emotional, cognitive, and physical levels) and the service provider (through personnel, physical facility, and technology). This view of quality focuses on client satisfaction, which is the operational definition of quality from a client’s perspective (Chase & Bowen, 1991).
A study by Harkness and Hensley (1991) demonstrated that clients of workers who received client-focused supervision were much more satisfied with the services they received than clients of workers who received traditional supervision. Client outcomes can facilitate identifying client outcome measures. Rapp and Poertner (1992) provide a useful typology identifying client outcomes and measures. This typology identifies client outcomes as:

- Changes in affect
- Changes in knowledge
- Changes in behavior
- Changes in environment
- Changes in status

A quality focus, however, must go beyond acknowledging quality as an organizational goal. It requires the analysis of customer satisfaction and the use of measurement tools to specifically address quality issues. Quality guru W. Edward Deming has often been quoted as saying, "If it isn’t measured, it won’t happen." Band (1991) argued for the use of value-creation project teams that seek to discover the causes of customer dissatisfaction and understand satisfaction from the customer's point of view.

3.13.1 UNDERSTANDING THE CUSTOMER'S / BENEFICIARY’S POINT OF VIEW

To understand quality one must be able to view the service from the consumer’s / Beneficiary's point of view. Customers’ perceptions of service quality are complex, and enhancing their perception requires the management of "moments of truth" (Bitner, 1991). As Albrecht and Bradford (1990) elaborated, "a moment of truth is that precise instant when the customer comes into contact with any aspect of your business and, on the basis of that contact, forms an opinion about the quality of your product". Central to the notion of service reliability is doing it right the first time (Berry & Parasuraman, 1992). Service unreliability is especially costly to a service organization and can result in loss of customer's confidence, and the added expense of replacing lost customers with new customers.

Service quality is largely the result of actions by frontline personnel (Chase & Bowen, 1991; Townsend, 1986). Because management often is unable to interact directly with clients, it must rely on indirect interaction through frontline personnel. When an organization adequately supports frontline workers, these workers are better able to respond to client's needs.
Human resource approach should be focused around the agency’s mission of quality. A agency’s mission, structure, job design, and management practices – in short, should be changed with every facets of the human resources approaches (Bowen & Lawler, 1992). Pay is another human resources issue that should be based on the creation of quality. Moore, Poertner, Gowdy, and Habacker (1991) pointed out that if quality is viewed as the product of a group effort, then rewards must be based on group performance. A commitment to quality involves embracing the continuous nature of the quality improvement process (Berry & Parasuraman, 1992) as stated:

- Understand customer expectations
- Define satisfaction standards
- Match delivery to intent
- Preach what you practice.

### 3.14 IMPLICATIONS FOR SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION

This research has several implications on theory and field work practicum of social work education and practice of social work profession. With regard to theory, the findings of this review support Herzberg’s two-factor theory. Satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not polar opposites on the same continuum. It is clearly evident that satisfied functionaries expressed reasons for dissatisfaction, and dissatisfied functionaries gave reasons for satisfaction. Moreover, the number of reasons mentioned for either satisfaction or dissatisfaction did not correlate with overall satisfaction. The review furthermore conclusively reveals that reasons for satisfaction are related to achievement and challenge (motivational factors), and reasons for dissatisfaction are related to administrative policy and interpersonal relationships with other employees in the organization.

Synthesizing the literature reviewed, it can be said that Social work education is a blend of interdisciplinary knowledge and application in which human beings and their psychosocial and behavioural aspects are of crucial significance. The multiple dimensions under the study give ample observations and inferences that social work interventions at individual, group and institutional level can offer desirable results through understanding of administrative machinery, human processes and resultant outcome in form of need satisfaction and goal attainment of beneficiaries and functionaries of NGO’s.