CRIMINAL JUSTICE VOLUNTEERISM: AN EMPIRICAL EVALUATION OF THE JOB SATISFACTION OF CORRECTIONAL VOLUNTEERS IN WINNIPEG, MANITOBA, CANADA

by

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A Thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies of the University of Manitoba in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

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ABSTRACT

The primary focus of this study is the analysis of the job facet satisfaction of volunteers in correctional service. Secondarily, the relationship of the likelihood of victimization to the fear of crime is examined. This study comprises 202 respondents, of which 190 respondents indicate through the survey instrument that they are satisfied with their volunteer job, 9 respondents are undecided, and 3 respondents indicate they are dissatisfied with their volunteer job. Although the majority of volunteers report being satisfied with their volunteer job, regression analysis reveals that reported levels of job satisfaction decrease as length of volunteer service increases. In fact, the highest levels of job satisfaction are reported by volunteers who have been in volunteer service for no longer than a year. As the length of the volunteer commitment increases beyond two years, the lowest levels of job satisfaction are identified. Through the regression analysis of twelve data set subsets, the facets sense of accomplishment and approval of supervisor emerge most frequently as the strongest predictors of volunteer job satisfaction.

In the crosstabulation analysis pertaining to fear of crime and the likelihood of victimization, an overwhelming majority of volunteers concede various types of victimization are possible as a result of their work-related interaction with offenders. Despite this concession, the majority of volunteers do not fear being victimized as a result of their work-related interaction with offenders.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

THE PLAN

In the beginning was the Plan.

And then came the Assumptions.

And the Assumptions were without form.

And the Plan was without substance.

And darkness was upon the faces of the Workers.

And they spoke among themselves, saying,
"It is a crock of shit, and it stinketh."

And the workers went unto their Supervisors and said,
"It is a pail of excrement, and none may abide by the odor thereof."

And the Supervisors went unto their Managers, saying,
"It is a container of dung, and it is very strong,
such that none may abide by it."

And the Managers went unto the Directors, saying,
"It is a vessel of fertilizer, and none may abide by its strength."

And the Directors spoke amongst themselves, saying one to another,
"It contains that which aids plant growth, and it is very strong."

And the Directors went unto the Vice Presidents, saying unto them,
"It promotes growth, and it is very powerful."

And the Vice Presidents went unto the President, saying unto him,
"This new plan will actively promote the growth
and vigor of the company, with powerful effects."

And the President looked upon the Plan, and saw that it was good.

And the Plan became Policy.

And this is how Shit Happens.

- author unknown

The process of moving from creative thought to goal achievement is often a convoluted journey. This evolutionary process embodies considerable potential to create gold for some, and garbage for others. In keeping the PLAN of this study focused, the contribution made by several individuals has kept this thesis out of the garbage.

First and foremost, this thesis is dedicated to two women: my mother Catherine, and my wife Monica. Their understanding, patience, and guidance has kept me from being a garbage-man, and has permitted me to persevere. I also thank my wife for reminding me daily that being a student is no excuse for not having a job.

Meetings which negotiated the approval of this study, aided the construction and implementation of the survey instrument, and gave access to the study population is the valued contribution offered by Nancy Barkwell, Joselyn Barnard, John Demers, Val Horner, Valerie Hutt, Gerry Sienema, Ben Thiessen, Brian Troughton, Anne Walker, and Pat White. Without their participation, and the participation of the volunteers who responded through the survey instrument, this study would not be possible. Integral to this process is the guidance offered by committee members Russell Smandych (primary advisor), Wayne Taylor (methodology), and Brad McKenzie (external) who have patiently nurtured this thesis to its successful completion.

And lastly, the contribution of two friends parallels in importance the contribution of any individual noted above. For reminding me that there are only two things in life, golf first and death last, and for properly situating the completion of my thesis in-between, I thank Jeff

Allan for his reviews of the survey instrument and his recommendations on question construction. In addition, I extend gratitude to Chez-Roy Birchwood for his suggestions pertaining to the construction of the survey instrument, his insights pertaining to crosstabulation analysis, and for reminding me that in graduate school gain and pain are inseparable.

INTRODUCTION

In order to determine the effectiveness of a criminal justice system, and to provide more rational policy decision making, and to develop greater confidence in the administration of programs, it is necessary to create an understanding of the component parts of a criminal justice system through empirical evaluation. Therefore, an empirical evaluation of the volunteer component is required.

Organizations have a vested interest in retaining their recruited volunteers as the loss of volunteers represents a loss of labour-power, and a need to devote time, energy, and money to the training of replacement volunteers. It is therefore incumbent upon organizations to properly motivate volunteers towards their volunteer tasks, and to understand the causes of volunteer job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction.

From an analysis of the Department Of Corrections volunteer component in Winnipeg, this study contributes to sociological knowledge through the following objectives: (1) the identification of job satisfaction facets; (2) the measurement of job satisfaction; (3) the development of a demographic profile; and from objectives 1-3 an increased understanding of Winnipeg's criminal justice system. The primary focus of this study is the analysis of volunteer job satisfaction.

This study argues that correctional volunteerism emerges from the practice of probation. Chapter I introduces the function of probation, and then establishes the link between the practice of probation and the emergence of volunteers in corrections by reviewing the historical development of probation in the United States, in Canada, and in Winnipeg, Manitoba. Next, the historical development of correctional volunteerism in Winnipeg from the practice of probation is examined, and some of Winnipeg's earliest correctional programs which integrate volunteer assistance are reviewed.

Chapter II develops the theoretical framework for a job satisfaction analysis from which a survey instrument is developed to facilitate the measurement and collection of attitudes expressed by correctional volunteers about their volunteer work, and secondly, to collect demographic information. As there are many aspects of work which have the potential to retard the development of job satisfaction, to facilitate discussion the aspects of work reviewed in Chapter II are organized into two central themes: (1) workplace danger, and (2) workplace job satisfaction correlates. Workplace danger is explicated for isolated consideration from other aspects of work as the likelihood of personal victimization is perhaps more acute in occupations that require workers to interact with offenders.

The literature review performed in preparation for this study failed to detect the existence of a single job satisfaction analysis which assesses the fear of crime or the likelihood of victimization in a correctional volunteer sample. This condition makes workplace danger a unique feature of this study. Workplace danger is analyzed through the

crosstabulation of the likelihood of the occurrence of particular types of victimization against the fear of crime. In addition, the standard multiple regression analysis that is performed to assess volunteer job satisfaction includes facets which pertain to victimization.

Through the theme of workplace danger, propositions and empirical findings arising from various attempts to test and formalize the routine activity and lifestyle theory are extracted to explicate the potential for workplace victimization in corrections-oriented work. A cursory review of selected literature is offered to highlight the evolution of routine activity victimization research. In addition, empirical findings presented in other research is reviewed to further establish the inherent danger which exists in work that requires workers to interact with offenders.

Through the theme of workplace job satisfaction correlates, aspects of work which are part and parcel of most work environments, (such as feedback, workload, autonomy, training, bureaucracy, accomplishment, interpersonal relations, supervisor, and orientation, for example), which researchers identify as having a potential to impede the development of worker satisfaction with the job, are reviewed. Central to this discussion is a general consideration of job satisfaction correlates, followed by an examination of aspects of work which influence job satisfaction in volunteer work.

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Chapter I

THE EMERGENCE OF CORRECTIONAL VOLUNTEERISM

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This study argues that correctional volunteerism emerges from the practice of probation. Chapter I introduces the function of probation, and then establishes the link between the practice of probation and the emergence of volunteers in corrections by reviewing the historical development of probation in the United States, in Canada, and in Winnipeg, Manitoba.

1.2 FUNCTION AND HISTORY OF PROBATION

1.2.1 What Is Probation?

The task of defining[1] probation is hampered by a myriad of definitions that have confronted the criminal justice scholar in varied form since the very inception of probation.

Charles Chute, a leading proponent[1] in the American movement which sought to implement probation service as a judicial disposition, stated in 1927 that:

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[1] Chute co-founded the National Probation Association (later the National Probation and Parole Association) and served as its executive director from 1921 to 1948 (Dressler, 1959:23-25). The National Probation Association is "a voluntary association which campaigned for probation legislation and government funding" (Oliver and Whittingham, 1987:233).

> The principles of probation are: investigation to establish the history, character, and social setting of the offender, in short to ascertain the individual causes and degree of crime before pronouncing the sentence; second, out-patient treatment under strict conditions and competent supervision, stimulating and aiding the young or unhardened offender to redeem himself if possible, without the danger and inevitable loss to him and to society resulting from unnecessary commitment (Chute, 1928:514).

In a later effort to describe the function of probation, Chute (1933) noted that probation always provides two important services for the court. Firstly, to ensure the imposition of an appropriate sentence probation provides the court with a description of the accused's past, social background, and character. Secondly, probation provides the court with an appropriate disposition for offenders deemed suitable for release into the community, and provides said offenders with guidance and supervision through contact with their probation officer.

By 1982 three definitions of probation have come to be cited most frequently in the criminal justice literature (Doeren and Hagemen, 1982). Firstly, in 1967 the President's Commission On Law Enforcement And Administration Of Justice in the United States appointed a Task Force on corrections which defined probation to be "'A legal status granted by the court whereby a convicted person is permitted to remain in the community subject to conditions specified by the court'" (in Doeren and Hagemen, 1982:50). Secondly, in 1970 the American Bar Association Project On Standards For Criminal Justice defined probation to be:

> 'A sentence not involving confinement which imposes conditions and retains authority in the sentencing court to modify the conditions of sentence or to resentence the violater if he violates the conditions. Such a sentence should not involve or require suspension of the imposition or execution of any other sentence .... A sentence to probation should be treated

> as a final judgement for the purposes of appeal and similar procedural purposes' (in Doeren and Hagemen, 1982:50).

And thirdly, in 1973 the National Advisory Commission On Criminal Justice Standards And Goals defined probation thusly:

> 'In corrections, the word 'probation' is used in four ways. It can refer to a disposition, a status, a system or subsystem, and a process. Probation as a court disposition was first used as a suspension of sentence. Under probation, a convicted offender's freedom in the community was continued, subject to supervision and certain conditions established by the court. A shift is now occurring, and probation is being used increasingly as a sentence in itself ... Probation as a status reflects the position of an offender sentenced to probation. For the offender, probation status has implications different from the status of either free citizens or confined offender. Probation is a subsystem of corrections, itself a subsystem of the criminal and juvenile justice system ... When used in this context, probation refers to the agency or organization that administers the probation process for juveniles and adults. The probation process refers to the set of functions, activities, and services that characterize the system's transactions with the courts, the offender, and the community. The process includes preparation of reports for the court, supervision of probationers, and obtaining or providing services for them' (in Doeren and Hagemen, 1982:50-51).

From their review of the various descriptions and functions of probation appearing in the literature, Doeren and Hagemen (1982) have produced this synthesized definition of probation:

> Probation is: (1) a community-based correctional alternative (2) that involves a sentence imposed by the court upon an offender a finding, verdict or plea of guilty, (3) which does not require the incarceration of the offender (4) but which allows the offender to remain in the community (5) subject to conditions imposed by the court and (6) supervision by a probation agency (Doeren and Hagemen, 1982:52).

1.2.2 The Rise Of Probation In The United States

Attempts to trace the beginnings of probation to mediaeval and early modern European law fail to ascertain the birth of probation in legislative or judicial acts, and instead discover probation to be the offspring of a shift in correctional ideology. Correctional reformers who sought to implement alternatives to the cruelty of repressive criminal law instituted measures such as the Judicial Reprieve, the Recognizance, the Benefit of Clergy, the Provisional Release On Bail, Binding Over, and the Provisional "Filing" Of Cases to either suspend the imposition of a sentence, or to suspend the execution of a sentence (Dressler, 1959; Doeren and Hageman, 1982). The Provisional "Filing" Of Cases is a procedure native to Massachusetts, while the other measures emerge in English Common Law tradition.

English common law prohibited appeals to higher courts and trials by a new court. So, the Judicial Reprieve was instituted in England as a means to either suspend the imposition of a sentence, or suspend the execution of a sentence, in cases where (Carter and Wilkins, 1970; Caldwell, 1957): the trial judge perceived the trial verdict to be unsatisfactory; in cases where the trial judge thought the evidence to be of a suspicious nature; in cases where doubts arose about the sufficiency of the indictment; and in some cases to permit an offender to apply for a pardon. A pardon that was granted resulted in the dropping of the charges and the Reprieve becoming permanent. It is thought likely that the English practice of Judicial Reprieve is a precursor to the American indefinite suspension of sentence (Newman, 1968; Rubin, 1973).

The Benefit of Clergy dates to the thirteenth century in English law. The Church maintained the position that ecclesiastical tribunals should have sole jurisdiction over the clergy. However, the reigning monarch of the period, Henry II, maintained that the clergy should be held accountable to the secular courts when secular law had been violated. As a compromise, Henry II permitted the clergy to claim Benefit of Clergy in the Crown's courts. The Benefit of Clergy is provided for by the medieval Church to permit certain offenders "... after conviction, but before judgement, to claim exemption from, or mitigation of, punishment" (Carter and Wilkins, 1970:82-83).

> When a member of the cloth, suspected of a crime, was brought into the King's Court, his bishop could claim the dispensation for him. Thereupon, the charge was read to the cleric, but no evidence was presented against him. Instead he gave his own version of the alleged offense and brought in witnesses to corroborate his testimony. With all the evidenced against the accused expunged and only favourable witnesses testifying, it is hardly astounding that most cases ended in acquittal (Dressler, 1959:07).

In the 13th century the Benefit of Clergy was extended only to monks, nuns, and ordained clerks (Rubin, 1973). In the fourteenth, fifteenth, and sixteenth centuries the Benefit of Clergy was also extended to secular employees within government (Caldwell, 1957), to "... secular members of the Church, then to women who stole goods worth between one and ten shillings, then to literate peers and finally to anyone who could read" (Smith and Berlin, 1976:74).

Eventually, with State ascendancy over the Church, the Benefit of Clergy fell into disuse and was abolished in England for commoners in 1827, and for peers in 1841. Yet in the American colonies, this plea was still entered until shortly after the revolution (Dressler, 1959). It is

thought unlikely that the Benefit Of Clergy provides direct influence upon the development of the suspension of sentence or upon any of the precursors of probation (Newman, 1968; Rubin, 1973).

The English common law practice of Recognizance required persons thought likely to violate the law to give assurance to the public, through a bond (with or without sureties), and for a specified period of time, that the person in question would not violate the law (Carter and Wilkins, 1970). This debt to the state became enforceable only when the specified conditions of the Recognizance were violated. With the passage of time the Recognizance came to be applied more to assure the court appearance of persons who were arraigned before the criminal courts (Newman, 1968) than to regulate the potential unlawful behaviour of non-offenders.

> Recognizance was extended to include persons charged with or convicted of misdemeanors. The English Criminal Consolidation Act of 1861 extended this privilege to include persons convicted of any felony that was not a capital offense. The Summary Jurisdiction Act of 1879 regulated this privilege. Magistrates asked for 'volunteers' to supervise offenders granted the right of Recognizance. This is the beginning of the first probation service (Smith and Berlin, 1979:75).

Writing in 1959, Dressler summarized the features of the Recognizance "... common to modern probation: suspension of sentence; freedom in lieu of incarceration; conditions set upon such freedom; and the possibility of revocation of liberty upon violation of the conditions" (:09).

Unlike Recognizance, which permits an offender to be released from custody on his or her own recognizance with or without sureties, the Provisional Release On Bail permits sureties to be employed with or

without the offender being released from custody on his or her own Recognizance. The Provisional Release On Bail is credited as a direct influence upon the development of probation (Newman, 1968).

The practice of Binding Over (with surety) was pioneered by Athelstane (Smith and Berlin, 1976:74), an Anglo-Saxon King who reigned from 895-940. In 1927, England's Young Offenders Committee credited Athelstane with the creation of a rudimentary probation system which Athelstane achieved by enacting that:

> '... men should slay none younger than a fifteen winters' man, and provided that, "If his kindred will not take him or be surety for him, then swear him as the bishop shall teach him, that he will shun all evil, and let him be in bondage for his price. And if he steal again, let men slay him or hang him as they do his elders"' (in Coughlan, 1963:199).

In the fourteenth century, English courts permitted offenders of good behaviour to be bound over to another person who put up surety (bail), who supervised the accused while on bail, and who returned the accused to court when the accused failed to keep the peace or good behaviour.

The Provisional "Filing" Of Cases is a practice native to Massachusetts which provides that the imposition of a sentence be suspended when "'... after verdict of guilty in a criminal case ... the Court is satisfied that, by reason of extenuating circumstances, or of the pendency of a question of law in a like case before a higher court, or other sufficient reason, public justice does not require an immediate sentence ....'" (in Carter and Wilkins, 1970:86). If a judge chose to "file" a case, proceedings against the accused were halted until either the prosecution or defense petitioned the court to resume legal action (Dressler, 1959:11).

English common law however did not permit English courts to suspend a sentence indefinitely, and in a unanimous decision handed down in 1916 in response to an appeal of the decision rendered in the "Killits" case, the United States Supreme Court similarly prohibited the American judiciary from engaging in the common law practice of suspending sentences indefinitely (Newman, 1968). The Supreme Court stated that the Federal Courts lacked the inherent power to suspend indefinitely the execution or imposition of a sentence (Killinger et.al., 1976).

The "Killits" case was tried in Ohio, and involved an accused who plead guilty to making false entries, and to embezzlement. The presiding trial judge, Justice John Killits, elected to suspend sentence because the accused lacked a prior record and had previously made restitution (Dressler, 1959). Killit's decision to suspend sentence was appealed to the Supreme Court which responded by ruling that the practice of permanently or indefinitely suspending sentence was unconstitutional as this practice had not been incorporated into legal statutes (Dressler, 1959). This ruling invalidated more than 5,000 cases in which justices had suspended sentence. To remedy this situation, the Attorney General prepared the "Proclamation Of Amnesty and Pardons" which granted a general clemency to the more than 5,000 offenders who were effected by the ruling. President Wilson signed this Proclamation on the 11th of June, 1917. The effect of "[t]his situation served but to revitalize the efforts to secure probation and a greater individualization of justice in the Federal courts" (Master, 1950:13).

The emergence of probation therefore occurs as a divergence from English and American common law traditions, and moreover, from a shift

in correctional ideology which emphasizes humanitarianism in the face of a repressive penological system. Although the inception of this shift in correctional ideology precedes the development of probation as a sentencing option, the birth of probation as a sentencing option nonetheless emerges in the mid-nineteenth century primarily as a result of the efforts of John Augustus.

In New York on July 29, 1681, a court in Albany directed that the resolution of the accused's marital difficulties required that "... two good men be named to oversee his conduct ...." (Rubin, 1973). Although these "two good men" were appointed by the court to oversee the conduct of the accused, it was instead John Augustus who captured universal recognition as the world's first volunteer probation officer (Lindner and Savarese, 1984a) when, 160 years later in 1841 in Boston, Augustus accepted into his charge a defendant who was to return to court three weeks later to be sentenced for drunkeness. This act of compassion earned Augustus the title "Father of Probation" (Dressler, 1959).

Augustus however is not the only important historical figure who strived for correctional reforms that would permit the judiciary to grant offenders a probationary disposition. In fact, John Murray Spear worked alongside Augustus for four years from March 1848 to March 1852, and two years after Augustus' death, the Reverend George Haskins founded a Catholic asylum for delinquent and neglected boys, so called the House Of The Guardian Angel (Moreland, 1940; Smith and Berlin, 1976). In 1863 the Children's Aid Society Of Boston was created to facilitate probation and aid in the prevention of juvenile delinquency, and was operated by Chaplain Rufus R. Cook and Miss L. P. Burnham (Moreland, 1940).

By the time Augustus had met his death in 1859, his eighteen years of volunteer probation officer service had brought into his charge near 2000 probationers, and of his first 1100 probationers, "only one forfeited bond" (Dressler, 1959:18; Killinger et.al., 1976:23; Smith and Berlin, 1976:77-78). By 1858 Augustus had bailed out 1,946 persons, of which 428 females and 674 males were bailed out between 1841 and 1851 (Madeley, 1965), that is, during the first ten years of Augustus' service as a correctional volunteer.

Augustus died in 1859, but had he lived another nineteen years, he would have witnessed the first probation officer statute being passed in the United States in 1878, in the state of Massachusetts. With the passing of this statute Boston's mayor appointed Henry C. Hemmenway as the first paid probation officer (Carter and Wilkins, 1970), and four months after his appointment Hemmenway was succeeded by retired police chief Captain E.H. Savage (Dressler, 1959). Massachusetts state legislation extended probation service to all of its municipalities and towns in 1880, to its lower courts in 1891, and to its superior courts in 1898 (Newman, 1968). At the close of the nineteenth century probation was implemented only prior to sentencing, but in 1900 the state of Massachusetts enacted legislation that permitted only its' lower courts, and not the Superior Court, to impose probation after sentencing (Grinnell, 1941).

The latter part of the nineteenth century also witnessed the spread of the "University Settlement Movement" (Lindner and Savarese, 1984a and 1984b). This social reform movement was initiated by English clergymen, and by professors and students at the English universities of Oxford and

Cambridge. This movement had as its primary purpose the resolution of the social ills that plague society. This movement was later transplanted in Boston and New York by American students who lobbied for social reforms to improve American quality of life, and, this fight for social change did not neglect the criminal justice system. In fact, some of the proponents of this movement also became some of the first state appointed, and state paid for, probation officers (Lindner and Savarese, 1984a and 1984b). On April 17, 1901, the state of New York passed into legislation an act that permitted probation officers to be officially appointed by the judiciary in each city in the state. This law came into effect on September 1, 1901.

In 1909 United States Attorney General George W. Wickersham recommended that a suspended sentence law be implemented, and in 1912 recommended in principle the adoption of a probation bill that was then before the Senate. However, the 1916 United States Supreme Court ruling in the "Killits" case barred the informal imposition of probation which, at that time, was occuring "... in at least 60 of the United States District Courts, located in 39 of the states, besides the Federal courts of Puerto Rico, the District of Columbia, and the Territory of Alaska" (Master, 1950:10).

In February of 1917, Congress passed an act which granted the practice of probation to the lower courts, but because this act was passed late in the session, it died by its failure to procure the president's signature because the president did not have sufficient time to consider it before the "end of the last Congress" (Grinnell, 1917:594). It is also possible that World War I, which was ongoing and

in its third year by 1917, may have served to restrict the amount of attention that the president and Congress could devote towards other matters such as the development of a Federal probation act.

The effort to achieve a Federal probation act gained fresh momentum in 1920 with Congressman Augustine Lonergan of Connecticut introducing a probation bill in the House, and also in 1920, with Senator Calder of New York introducing a companion probation bill in the Senate. Then Attorney General A. Mitchell Palmer initially resisted the notion of a Federal probation act, but after consultation with the leading proponents of this movement reversed his initial view once convinced that a Federal probation act would not impinge upon the efforts of the Federal parole system. However, prohibitionists were concerned that a Federal probation act would permit violaters of the prohibition law to escape prison by being sentenced to probation. The prohibitionists successfully stifled the growth of the Federal probation act movement by introducing a bill, named the "Prohibition Amendment," which was passed into law by Congress in 1919, and which required each and every violater of the prohibition law to be sentenced to prison.

By 1924 there still existed official opposition to a Federal probation act, and this consensus to oppose consisted most notably of the superintendent of prisons, judges in several states, an assistant to then Attorney General Daugherty, and some members of the House. Despite such opposition Senator Copeland and Representative Graham introduced a probation bill that passed the House unanimously on its third reading on May 24, 1924, and after receiving much opposition, passed by the Senate on its sixth and final reading on March 2, 1925. On March 4, 1925, with

his signature, President Calvin Coolidge passed into law the Federal Probation Act which authorized the Federal courts to impose a sentence of probation.

> Thus, success finally marked the close of the legislative campaign for a Federal probation law which had started back in 1909 with the introduction of the first bill at the 60th Congress. In all, during the course of the 16 years' struggle to secure the Federal Probation Act, 34 bills were introduced into Congress before Public Law No. 596, 68th Congress, S. 1042 became law March 4, 1925 (Master, 1950:16).

On August 4, 1926, the U.S. Civil Service Commission announced a competition for the position of paid probation officer. A list of eligible candidates was eventually prepared and ready in January, 1927, and some two years after the passing of the Federal Probation Act the United States District Court for the Southern District of New York appointed G. A. Daly as the Federal Probation Service's first full-time probation officer on April 25, 1927.

However, the passage of the Federal Probation Act permitted the federal district courts, with the exception of the District of Columbia, to appoint only one probation officer (Killinger et.al., 1976:25). It was not until 1930 that this restriction was lifted thereby permitting each of the districts to hire more than a single probation officer.

The effort to realize probation as a judicial sentencing disposition remained a slow process until efforts to reform the juvenile court system brought about probation laws that permitted youthful offenders to receive probation service. The creation of juvenile courts in several states (ie. Chicago Illinois in 1899) brought forth the appointment of paid probation officers who remained the jurisdictional

responsibility of a youth court judge. The appointment of paid probation officers was a gradual process which nonetheless served to encourage the use of probation, but by 1967 probation service for juveniles had only been made available in 74 percent of all counties in the Union. In 165 counties in four states juvenile probation service did not exist at all (Dressler, 1959).

Unlike the growth of probation in the juvenile courts[2], adult probation was unable to accelerate its rate of development. As Dressler (1959) notes, only twenty-one states and the District of Columbia had statutes which enabled the use of adult probation by 1910, twenty more states followed suit by 1950, thereby bringing the total to forty-four, and not until 1957 was probation available through statute in all fifty states and Puerto Rico. And, while probation statutes were enacted in all fifty states, only 91 percent of the Union's 3,082 counties actually had in place probation service.

1.2.3 The Rise Of Probation In Canada

> In reviewing the history of probation in Canada, two interesting factors emerge, which are probably common to all countries where probation has developed. The initial interest in probation appears to stem mainly from concern over children who have broken the law, and the initial work in probation appears to have been done by private citizens and private societies (Coughlan, 1963:199).

In Canada, the development of probation as a judicial sentencing option occured more slowly than it did in the United States. Hagan and Leon (1980) attribute this Canadian lag to Canada's inclination towards the use of a Burkean crime control model which emphasizes social control and authoritarianism over individual rights, and which employs more

intrusive informal procedures while paying less attention towards due process issues. "This difference is that Canadians are more willing than Americans to forego law reforms in favour of leaving to legal authorities the discretion to decide what accused and convicted persons require and deserve" (Hagan and Leon, 1980:248).

However, the Hagan and Leon (1980) hypothesis is rejected by Oliver and Whittingham (1987) who state that the failure of Canada to keep pace with the United States in the implementation of probation as a judicial sentencing option is attributable to Canada lacking a federal commitment to implementation, and instead favouring localism which places the responsibility for probation service, and its' financial costs, with the individual provinces. Secondarily, Canada lacks a counterpart to the influential American National Probation Association which actively lobbied for the enactment of probation legislation. Although the United States National Probation Service was in place by 1925, by 1935 Canada as yet was unable to achieve similar success and had in place "'perhaps less than twenty' probation officers in the entire country" (Jaffary, 1949 in Oliver and Whittingham, 1987:238). And unlike their American counterparts, by 1950 Canadian universities were still not devoting much interest to teaching and researching criminology; a situation which negated the potential role that Canadian universities might have performed in educating the general public about the merits of probation service.

In 1857 the "Act For The More Speedy Trial And Punishment Of Juvenile Offenders" was passed by the Provinces Of Upper And Lower Canada. This statute empowered justices to dismiss charges, with or

without sureties, for future good behaviour (Boyd, 1977). While this statute is not credited with the inception of probationary dispositions in Canada, it does however reflect movement towards a more humanitarian management of offenders. The beginning of probation in Canada occurs in 1889, with significant amendments to probation legislation in the Canadian Criminal Code occuring in 1892, 1900, 1906, 1909, and 1921 (L.R.C.C., 1976).

In 1889 the passage of "An Act To Permit The Conditional Release Of First Offenders" permitted the judiciary to release first-time youthful offenders, who were convicted of an offense that was punishable by a period of incarceration not exceeding more then two years less a day, on their own recognizance in lieu of a sentence being imposed (Gigeroff, 1968; Boyd, 1977). In essence, this Act requires the courts to extend probation only to youthful offenders who appeared unlikely to recidivate (Boyd, 1977).

In 1892 the provisions of this "Act" were incorporated into the first Criminal Code of Canada, and were revised in 1900 when the Criminal Code was amended firstly to permit adults to receive probation through section 971(1), and secondly, through section 971(2) to permit probation to be extended to offenders who were convicted of an offense that required a period of incarceration exceeding two years less a day (Boyd, 1977). Prior to 1900 probation was offered only to youthful offenders. These revisions came into effect in 1906 after being incorporated into the Revised Statutes Of Canada (Gigeroff, 1968).

In 1908 the passing of Juvenile Delinquents Act entrenched probation as a judicial sentencing alternative for youthful offenders, and empowered the provinces to create courts through provincial legislation to deal with youthful offenders (Mitchell, 1948). In 1909, section 1081(4) of the Criminal Code was enacted to further widen the probation net by permiting probation to be extended to an offender who had but a single conviction, which took place more than five years prior to a second conviction, where the first conviction "'... was not related in character to the offense in question, ...'" (Boyd, 1977:360).

In 1921 an amendment to the Criminal Code increased the court's latitude in prescribing the conditions of probation. For example, through section 1081(5) the court could require an adult probationer to report to an officer of the court, and could later vary the period of probation originally imposed (Gigeroff, 1968; Boyd, 1977); and through section 1081(6) could require an offender to pay reparation and restitution to an party injured through the commission of the offense (Boyd, 1977).

In 1927 section 1081(1) of the Criminal Code was amended to restrict probation to those offenders who had committed an offense that was punishable by a period of incarceration that did not exceed two years less a day. However, the implementation of section 1081(2) in the 1927 Code permitted a judge to suspend the sentence of an offender sentenced to more than two years less a day, but only if the Crown counsel concurred with a suspended sentence disposition (L.R.C.C., 1976). This need for Crown counsel concurrence was later abolished by the 1954 Criminal Code. The 1954 Code also permitted offenders on

probation to be supervised by a court appointed designate. Prior to this revision, this duty was restricted solely to officers of the court (L.R.C.C., 1976).

In 1947, in response to a 1946 decision by the Court of Appeal in the case of Regina vs. Cruickshanks, the same court ruled that it was not empowered to extend probation or suspended sentence to offenders (Gigeroff, 1968). Section 1081(1) of the Criminal Code subsequently was amended to reverse this deficiency (Gigeroff, 1968).

In 1954 the Criminal Code was again amended. Through section 637 a judge could bind over with sureties in lieu of the imposition of a sentence in the case of a summary offense, or, in addition to the imposition of a sentence in the case of an indictable offense (L.R.C.C., 1976).

The establishment of probation through provincial legislation occured in the province of "Ontario in 1921, Alberta in 1940, British Columbia in 1946, Saskatchewan in 1949, Nova Scotia in 1954, Manitoba in 1957, New Brunswick in 1959, the Yukon in 1964, Newfoundland in 1965, Northwest Territories in 1966, Quebec in 1967, and in Prince Edward Island in 1972" (Griffiths, Klein and Verdun-Jones, 1980:252).

In 1938 the Archambault Commission lobbied for a national probation act, and this recommendation was again voiced by the Fateux Commission in 1956, and then again in 1967 by the Canadian Corrections Association. However, by 1992 the fight to enact probation service through provincial legislation has remained unaccompanied by the enactment of a national probation act at the Federal level.

1.2.4 The Rise Of Probation In Winnipeg

In January of 1909, the Winnipeg Juvenile Court was established to operate under the auspices of the 1908 Juvenile Delinquents Act. Ten years later Manitoba's first paid probation officer was appointed in 1919. In 1926, three more paid probation officers were appointed, and with the inclusion of six more members in 1945, the number of paid probation officers in Manitoba totaled ten. Manitoba then appointed a paid probation officer in Brandon in 1947, and also in 1947 the Winnipeg Juvenile Court merged administratively with the Winnipeg Family Court. From this synthesis emerged the Winnipeg Juvenile And Family Court, and the creation of a probation unit within the Winnipeg Juvenile And Family Court structure.

In 1957 the Adult Probation Service was established with a staff of two, and by 1968 the Regional Probation Service had increased its rural paid membership to include eighteen officers. As court demand for probation service escalated, the Adult Probation Service added to its payroll five officers in 1959, eight officers in 1967, and nine officers and an Area Director Of Probation Services in 1971. And, the creation of a probation office in 1958 in St. Boniface marked the first attempt to establish a probation service facility within a particular community to serve the needs of the same community.

Between 1962 and 1971 four important structural and administrative changes took place within probation service. Firstly, in 1962 the court services of the Winnipeg Juvenile And Family Court were merged administratively with the Adult and Rural probation services under the

centralized authority of the Chief Probation Officer for the Province of Manitoba. Then, in 1964 Juvenile detention was consumed by this process of centralization after being separated administratively from Adult Detention. Thirdly, the year 1967 witnessed the transfer of the Manitoba Probation Service from the auspices of the Attorney-Generals Department to the Community Operation Division of the newly created Department Of Health And Welfare. And fourthly, in September of 1971 the Metro Probation Service was created, and within this new service were incorporated the Adult Probation Service and the Juvenile Probation Service from the Family Court. The Metro Probation Service was separated administratively from the Winnipeg Family Court and also from the Regional Probation Services.

The 1971 changes to probation administration shifted the responsibility for the development of policies and programs designed to serve the needs of the client from the top of the probation hierarchy to the individual probation officer. Prior to this reorganization of probation service responsibilities, the Juvenile Probation Service was headed by the Director Of Court Services; the Adult Probation Service was headed by the Director Of Adult Probation Services; the Director Of Adult Probation Services was responsible to Manitoba's Chief Probation Officer; the rural probation officers were each responsible to a Regional Director; and ultimate authority within probation service remained the purview of Manitoba's Chief Probation Officer. Both of these Deputy Directors are responsible to the Director Of Probation And Juvenile Corrections. Figure A.1 (Appendix A) depicts the structure of probation service in Winnipeg in 1970 (prior to reorganization in 1971).

With the reorganization of probation service in 1971 the Juvenile Probation Service was separated from the Family Court and was merged with the Adult Probation Service. This merger created the Metro Probation Service which was placed under the supervision of the Deputy Director Of Probation Service and the Deputy Director of Staff And Program. Figure A.2 (Appendix A) depicts the structure of probation service in Winnipeg just after its' reorganization in 1971.

Accompanying the creation of the Metro Probation Service came the development of district probation offices within Winnipeg communities to serve the needs of probationers in the community within which they reside.

In its present day form, the care of offenders through custody and through probation service are functions that remain separated administratively, and are both branch services of Manitoba's Department of Corrections. Figures A.3 and A.4 (Appendix A) depict the organization of these two branch services in 1988.

1.3 CORRECTIONAL VOLUNTEERISM IN WINNIPEG

In Winnipeg, the Social Opportunity And Compass Programs, Lifeline, the Volunteer Visitors, and the Chaplain's Volunteers are the earliest programs/organizations formed to facilitate the integration of volunteer assistance into the delivery of correctional services to corrections clients. By 1992 the Compass program is the primary vehicle through which the majority of volunteers enter into volunteer service in correctional facilities and institutions.

1.3.1 The Social Opportunity And Compass Programs

In 1965, Mr. Bill Dyck of the Winnipeg Youth For Christ extended to the Winnipeg Family Court his offer to assist youth that were brought before the court for judicial disposition (Johnson, 1978). With the approval of the juvenile court Mr.Dyck began to extend to youth social opportunities and his influence as a role model. Eventually, other volunteers joined with Mr.Dyck to guide delinquent youth, and from this unified effort emerged a committee that assisted the Manitoba Probation Service in the development of formal organization of correctional volunteers. This committee was named the Social Opportunity Program.

The volunteer function in the Social Opportunity Program was primarily that of a role-model in a "Big Brother" or "Big Sister" type of friendship-relationship to delinquent youth (Johnson, 1978; Dewalt and James, 1973). Ideally, it was hoped for that the friendship-relationship would persist for at least a year with the volunteer and youth meeting a least once a week primarily on a one-to-one basis, or rarely, on a one-to-two (or more) basis in cases where it was thought advisable that the delinquent youth's peer relationships be included in the relationship with the volunteer (Dewalt and James, 1973).

In 1966 Volunteer Probation Officers were officially designated as Honorary Probation Officers by section 3(2) of the Manitoba Corrections Act. In 1969, a proposal was developed by the Director of the Correctional Planning Branch and the Chief of the Correctional Consultation Center of the Solicitor General's Department which

recommended that the use of volunteers be incorporated in probation service, and, that the volunteer probation officer committee be given separate and distinct status from the Social Opportunity Program. This proposal received the approval of the Provincial Department Of Health And Welfare and was subsequently forwarded to the Department of the Solicitor General. On March 20, 1970, the Management Committee of the Manitoba Cabinet gave the proposal final approval, and this cleared the way for Compass to be implemented for a three year period ending in 1973.

As the Compass organization of volunteers in corrections moved forward from its beginning in 1971, it came to extend volunteer service to juvenile detention (Juvenile Reception / Manitoba Youth Center), to probation, and to a juvenile training school (Manitoba Home For Girls). The program also received the distinction of appointing the first paid Coordinator Of Volunteers (Johnson, 1978).

Prior to 1972 the volunteer role in probation service was strictly supplementary to the role of the professional probation officer. In 1972, twenty-nine senior social science students were recruited from the Universities of Manitoba and Winnipeg to be officially appointed as Volunteer Probation Officers with the intent to give these volunteers the responsibility of supervising their own probation clients (Dewalt and James, 1973). Manitoba's 1966 Corrections Act provided for the existence of volunteer probation officers (Parker, 1976), and under the terms of the Act, volunteer probation officers were designated as "Honorary Probation Officers" (James, Sloan, and Perry, 1977). By 1973-74 these Volunteer Probation Officers were readily accepted and put

to work by four of Winnipeg's six probation teams and by the Brandon probation team (Dewalt and James, 1973).

Compass Volunteers were recruited primarily through community groups, churches, labor unions, advertising and speaking engagements, and an annual recruiting drive at the University of Manitoba (Hjorleifson and Soroka, 1977).

> The most profitable source of volunteers has been the universities. University of Winnipeg professors of Psychology and Sociology and University of Manitoba professors of Psychology, Sociology, Law, Education, Social Work, and Home Economics, have invited staff to speak to classes each term and have encouraged their students to participate in the volunteer program to gain practical experience ... Attempts to recruit Indian and Metis volunteers were disappointing. Native organizations seem to involve in their own programs all those who were available to them, with the result that they were not available for programs such as Compass (Dewalt and James, 1973:03 in the section pertaining to "Recruiting").

The course of their duties required Compass volunteers to form "... a close one-to-one [friendship-]relationship with their clients ..." (Hjorleifson and Soroka, 1977 in Compass, 1978) under the supervision of a professional Probation Officer. Compass volunteers were permitted to "... assist in pre-court investigation, help plan and implement alternatives to fines or prison sentences for offenders or keep other conditions imposed by the courts ..." (Compass, 1978).

> Volunteers for the friendship role were frequently requested by the Intake Unit of Probation as a diversion technique for marginally delinquent children. Such cases were often not taken to Court, or were adjourned 'sine die' by the Court. While providing many of the possible benefits of formal probation, the assignment of a volunteer avoided stigmatization. Intake probation officers usually offered informal supervision of the volunteer for a few months. Compass provided support for a pre-arranged time, usually about six months (Dewalt and James, 1973:02 in the section pertaining to "Volunteer Roles").

1.3.2 Lifeline

In 1965 the executive director for Winnipeg's "The Greater Youth For Christ Incorporated" extended his personal service to "probationer or institutionalized or troubled youth" (Manitoba Department Of Health And Social Development, 1972) through the Compass program. This act of personal support for delinquent youth by the director gave birth to the Lifeline program.

This program took delinquent youth to a summer camp and matched these youth on a one to one basis with volunteers. In 1969 camp property was purchased in the Lake Of The Woods by The Greater Youth For Christ, and the opportunity for delinquent youth to receive the services of volunteers was made available to youth in this camp in both summer and winter.

The Lifeline volunteers worked closely with the Compass volunteers, and also received the bulk of their delinquent female referals from the Marymount School (The Home Of The Good Shepard). Lifeline volunteers were recruited primarily from universities (Manitoba Department Of Health And Social Development, 1972).

1.3.3 The Volunteer Visitors

The Volunteer Visitors were organized in 1965, and were sponsored by the Juvenile And Adult Offenders Committee of the Community Welfare Planning Council Of Winnipeg, and represented a coordinated effort between the Community Welfare Planning Council and Stony Mountain prison officials to encourage the participation of volunteers in correction service (Johnson, 1978).

The Volunteer Visitors extended to selected inmates at Stony Mountain Penitentiary their services as visitors to provide inmates with a "friend," and in that capacity as a "friend" helped to improve the inmate's social skills and also provided that inmate with a contact in the community.

The Volunteer Visitors program was placed under the authority of the Supervisor Of Classification at the Stony Mountain Penitentiary. The Visits And Correspondence Officer assisted the volunteer program by assuming the role of liaison between the volunteers and the inmates.

1.3.4 The Chaplain's Volunteers

Reverend Harold Bedford S.J., Stony Mountain Penitentiary's Catholic chaplain, originated the Chaplain's Volunteers "... to harness the untapped resources of laymen who will provide workers acting as an extension into the community of the ministry of the chaplains in the institutions" (Johnson, 1978:05-06).

Reverend Bedford sought to involve the laity in the care of correction clients and enlisted to aid in his work the members of Saint Anthony's Fraternity Of The Third Order Of Saint Frances. Together they took the name Catholic Prisoner's Aid Society, and obtained funding from the Knights Of Columbus. As the number of Volunteer Visitors continued to expand with the influx of other religious denominations joining the effort, the Catholic Prisoner's Aid Society was renamed to become the Ecumenical Rehabilitation Association, and finally The Chaplain's Volunteers (Johnson, 1978).

1.3.5 Contemporary Correctional Volunteers

> The objective of the [Manitoba] Corrections volunteer program is to develop partnership between Corrections and local communities in planning, implementing, and evaluating correctional programs. This is accomplished by selecting, training, and involving volunteers in the provision of services. Volunteers remain accountable to the branch in the performance of their duties (Sienema, 1990b:08).

Winnipeg's contemporary corrections volunteers work at a variety of locations including: (1) the East District Office (Gateway), (2) the East District Office (Archibald), (3) the North District Office (Redwood), (4) West District Office (Tuxedo), (5) Provincial Remand Center at the Public Safety Building (Princess), (6) Manitoba Youth Center (Doncaster), and (7) the Headingly Correctional Institution (Headingly).

Locations 1-4 are probation units, location 5 is an adult remand center, location 6 is a youth remand center, and location 7 is an adult provincial correctional institution. For purposes of this study the researcher was given access to the volunteers who work at these seven locations. To facilitate discussion, these corrections offices and facilities are grouped into these three categories: (1) Headingly Correctional Institution, (2) Remand Centers (Adult and Youth), and (3) Probation Units. This study reviews the primary functions of these corrections offices and facilities, and reviews some of the duties that the volunteers at these corrections offices and facilities perform.

1.3.5.1 Headingly Correctional Institution

Headingly Correctional Institution was constructed in 1930 at Headingly Manitoba, and is an adult corrections facility. This facility holds in custody those offenders who have been sentenced by the courts to a term of incarceration that does not exceed 2 years less a day, and those individuals who are required by the courts to remain in custody while awaiting the disposition of charges.

The primary functions of Headingly Correctional Institution are to: (1) protect the public by housing incarcerated offenders for the period of time determined by the court, and (2) to prepare offenders for their return to society as law-abiding citizens (Sienema, 1990b). The primary functions of the volunteers at Headingly Correctional Institution require volunteers to establish and maintain an interpersonal working relationship with offenders. Volunteers work under the immediate supervision of a Volunteer Coordinator, and volunteers perform a variety of functions which are designed towards the rehabilitation of the offender. Volunteer functions include, for example, providing assistance in the delivery of education-oriented services, and assisting with the delivery of activities of a social or recreational nature.

1.3.5.2 Remand Centers

The top two floors of Public Safety Building serve as Winnipeg's Adult Remand Center, while the lower four floors serve as headquarters for the Winnipeg Police Department. The occupancy of two floors facilitates the segregation of inmates by gender. The Adult Remand

Center functions as a police lockup, and holds individuals in custody who have not yet been convicted by the courts.

The Youth Remand Center holds youth in custody, and shares its' geographic locale with the Probation Service Directorate, a Youth Court, and a probation office. The duties performed at these locations require volunteers to establish and maintain an interpersonal working relationship with offenders. Volunteers work under the immediate supervision of a Volunteer Coordinator.

1.3.5.3 Probation Units

The Manitoba Corrections Act gives correctional volunteers legal status to act as "Honorary Probation Officers." Section 3(2) of this Act states that "Not withstanding subsection (1), the minister may designate certain persons to act as honorary probation officers, with power to act in that capacity at any place within the province and for such duration as the minister may consider necessary."

The corrections volunteers provide a support role to the function of the regular staff. In the course of their duties, the corrections volunteer could be required to help an offender obtain counselling in a variety of areas which include: employment, medical, personal, and financial. Volunteers are required to establish and maintain an interpersonal working relationship with offenders under the immediate supervision of a Volunteer Coordinator. Volunteer duties include (Winnipeg Corrections, 1988:05):

Share recreational and social activities with an individual or with a group. Provide formal supervision of offenders who have been placed under a court order. Become involved in victim services programs. Share everyday life skills, ie., child rearing, budgeting, gardening. Provide support to youth and adults who have a history of chemical or substance abuse. Assist in developing social skills and/or aid in employment preparation and job searches. Monitor community work orders. Develop and deliver crime prevention and other education. Assist in data collection. Provide a court monitoring service. Become involved in open custody programming. Provide a liaison between incarcerated offenders and the community. Suggest their own ideas for involvement.

1.4 THE VALUE OF CANADIAN VOLUNTEER WORK

Hawrylyshyn (1978) contributes to our understanding of volunteers being an important and valuable resource by evaluating 5,334 requests made in 1971 to the Metro Toronto Volunteer Center for volunteer aid, and by concluding that the contribution of Canadian volunteers to the Canadian economy accounts from 1% to 3% of the Gross National Product.

Hawrylyshyn's determination of the value of volunteer work from the 1971 data commences by defining the current "'market replacement cost' [which is] what it would cost to replace the performed [volunteer] services with equivalent labour hired at a current market rate" (:36).

From the 5,334 requests for volunteer aid, Hawrylyshyn examines the agencies from which the requests for volunteer service originate. He excludes the volunteer paid counterparts that receive the highest salary (ie. lawyers, doctors, and dentists), and notes that the remaining volunteer paid counterparts receive from $2,600 to $11,000 per person per annum. Hawrylyshyn then calculates an average hourly wage for each of the volunteer counterparts within all agencies, and based upon his

determination that each volunteer contributes on average 5.0 hours per week to volunteer service, computes that the "lowest paid 'equivalent' market occupation" would pay an employee $562 per annum, and, that the "highest paid 'equivalent' market occupation" would pay an employee $1,000 per annum. Based upon these two values, Hawrylyshyn determines the average equivalent market value to be $830.00 per person per annum which, he says, would be equivalent to $1,000 to $1,200 in 1979.

In an earlier study conducted by Hawrylyshyn (1975), the 1971 value of Canadian volunteer services is estimated to be $1,045 million. Hawrylyshyn states that if Carters (1975) "... approximate findings on volunteerism [were used] more boldly, ... we [could] estimate the number of EVS [economic volunteer service] volunteers in Canada at about 25% of the 1971 population aged 14+, or 3.75 million people. At an annual value of $830 per volunteer, this gives Canada a total of $3,112 million, or 3.3 per cent of GNP" (Hawrylyshyn, 1978:43).

Hawrylyshyn (in Carter, 1975) states that the economic worth of volunteer activity is not included in the calculation of the Gross National Product because volunteers are not remunerated for their work, and because volunteer services are typically extended to non-profit organizations. In addition, there is the difficulty of estimating the economic value of the work performed by volunteers: that is, uniting the qualitative work of volunteers with quantitative value (wages). As Hawrylyshyn puts it:

> 'Estimation of [the] value [of the output of volunteer work] is most easily attempted as the product of hours and wage, though some question arises as to the wage to use. Simplest to identify is the average market wage for the service being done, as opposed to the opportunity cost of the person offering the services. However, it may be that either of these two is the conceptually correct one, for the productivity of the volunteer at the given task may be lower or higher than that of the professional for the task, and different from his own productivity elsewhere. Perhaps the best approach is to use the average wage for the job with some adjustment for the volunteer's productivity differential' (in Carter, 1975:92).

Data collected through the 1980 Statistics Canada census provides additional evidence which attests to the economic value of Canadian volunteer work. Ross' (1983) analysis of this data offers a provincial breakdown of the estimated economic worth of volunteer work performed in 1979/80 (Table 1.1), and reveals that by comparison to the other Canadian provinces, Manitoba ranks 5th in the total number of hours that volunteers devote towards volunteer work, and 9th when a dollar value is assigned to these work hours. It should be noted, however, that Ross calculates the economic value of Manitoba volunteer work at a time when Manitoba ties with New Brunswick for having the third lowest provincial hourly wage.

TABLE 1.1

The Estimated Economic Value Of Volunteers Time In 1979/80

	NFLD	PEI	NS	NB	QUE	ONT
Total volunteer hours (000,000)	7.7	1.8	12.2	10.0	59.7	123.5
Estimated hourly wage[1]	4.80	3.85	4.44	4.70	5.23	5.17
Total dollar value $(000,000)[1]	37.0	6.9	52.4	47.0	312.2	638.5
Total wages and salaries $(000,000)[2]	2,098	430	3,933	3,009	37,118	60,522
Volunteer $ value as % of total	1.8	1.6	1.4	1.6	0.8	1.1

	MAN	SASK	ALTA	BC	CAN
Total volunteer hours (000,000)	23.5	25.1	42.1	68.5	374.0
Estimated hourly wage[1]	4.70	5.07	5.07	6.07	5.32
Total dollar value $(000,000)[1]	110.5	127.3	240.0	415.8	1,989.4
Total wages and salaries $(000,000)[2]	5,766	4,747	14,970	18,883	152,047
Volunteer $ value as % of total	1.9	2.7	1.6	2.2	1.3

[1]Canada wage rate and total value are derived from provincial figures due to weighting.

[2]Total wages and salaries is for all economic activity calculated for Canada and the provinces in the national accounts.

This tradition of volunteers offering their labor free of charge continues to produce a Canadian labour resource valued at millions of dollars annually. The 1987 Statistics Canada census surveys almost 70,000 persons and determines that between November 1986 to October 1987, approximately 5.3 million Canadians aged 15 years or older performed volunteer activity, that the average volunteer performs 3.7 hours of volunteer service weekly (192.4 hours per volunteer yearly), and that 1.019 billion volunteer hours were performed in total (in Ross and Shillington, 1989). Based on this figure of 5.3 million Canadians engaged in volunteer service, we may extrapolate that 26.8 percent of all working Canadians were involved in volunteer service in 1986/87. If each volunteer was remuneration at the provincially legislated minimum wage, then clearly the economic value of Canadian volunteer activity would be apparent. Using the 1987 Statistics Canada census data, Ross and Shillington (1989:07 and :29) profile the annual hourly contribution of volunteer work (Table 1.2), and depict the economic worth of volunteer work performed in 1987 (Table 1.3).

TABLE 1.2

Annual Hourly Contributions Of Volunteers In 1987

Hours	Distribution Of All Volunteers
0 - 100 hours	51 %
100 - 199 hours	22
200 - 499 hours	19
500 - 999 hours	6
Over 1,000 hours	2

TABLE 1.3

Estimated Economic Value Of Volunteer Work In 1987

	Total Annual Hours	Average Wage Rate	Economic Value
	('000)	$	($'000)
Province			
Newfoundland	22,600	12.85	290,410
PEI	4,669	8.75	40,853
Nova Scotia	40.901	11.07	452,774
New Brunswick	34,097	10.23	348,812
Quebec	206,911	12.19	2,522,245
Ontario	352,923	11.92	4,206,842
Manitoba	48,748	10.90	531,353
Saskatchewan	50,497	11.88	599,904
Alberta	121,035	11.65	1,410,058
British Columbia	135,166	11.85	1,601,717
Canada Total	1,017,548	11.79	$12,004,968

Note: Canada average wage rate is the value of the weighted provincial averages. Wage data are taken from Statistics Canada, "Employment, Earnings And Hours, May 1987."

Ross and Schillington's (1989) use of the 1987 Statistics Canada data does not include the development of a profile by which to characterize volunteers involved in correctional work. However, their analysis does indicate that there are nearly 100,000 volunteers who perform volunteer activity in "Law and Justice," and that volunteer activity in "Law and Justice" affiliates volunteers with work and organizations such as "... legal aid and education, crime prevention, and for offender and for ex-offender societies .... the Elizabeth Fry and John Howard Societies; half-way houses; Block Parents; and Crime

Stoppers", for example. The 1987 data also reveals that these 100,000 "Law and Justice" volunteers perform 1% of Canada's total of 9.2 million different volunteer experiences. The economic and personal characteristics of all persons engaged in volunteer activity in 1987 are depicted in Tables 1.4 and 1.5 respectively (in Ross and Schillington, 1989:08).

TABLE 1.4

Canadian Volunteers: Economic Characteristics In 1987

Characteristic	Rate Of Volunteering	Distribution Of All Volunteers	Distribution Of All Canadians
Canada	26.8%	100.0%	100.0%
Income Level			
0-$9,999	17.9	5.4	8.6
10-$19,999	20.7	15.3	20.9
20-$39,999	28.5	39.6	39.3
$40,000 plus	35.7	39.7	31.3
Labour Force Status			
Employed	28.1	64.2	61.4
Unemployed	23.1	4.5	5.2
Not in labour force	25.1	31.3	33.4
Employment Status[1]			
Full time	26.4	76.3	80.6
Part time	34.2	23.7	19.4

[1]Distribution of employed volunteers only.

TABLE 1.5

Canadian Volunteers: Personal Characteristics In 1987

Characteristic	Rate Of Volunteering	Distribution Of All Volunteers	Distribution Of All Canadians
Canada	26.8%	100.0%	100.0%
Age			
15 - 19 years	20.4	7.1	9.4
20 - 24	15.5	6.3	10.9
25 - 34	27.4	23.6	23.0
35 - 44	35.9	25.3	18.9
45 - 54	30.8	14.9	13.0
55 - 64	27.3	11.9	11.7
65 and over	22.3	10.9	13.2
Gender			
Female	29.6	56.5	51.1
Male	23.8	43.5	48.9
Marital Status			
Single	19.4	18.7	25.8
Married	30.5	71.9	63.1
Widow, sep, divorced	2.8	9.4	11.1
Education Level			
None or elementary	12.8	8.0	16.7
Some high school	24.3	45.6	50.3
Some post-secondary	30.7	10.0	8.7
Post-secondary diploma	35.3	17.1	13.0
University degree	46.2	19.3	11.2
Cultural Group			
English	32.8	53.1	44.4
French	21.7	22.8	29.0
Other	24.9	24.1	26.7

In 1975 an analysis of volunteerism conducted by Carter undertook interviews with 1,200 individuals who comprise a random sample drawn from these Canadian economic regions: British Columbia, Quebec, Ontario, the Prairies, and the Atlantic provinces. This sample surveys urban respondents (78%) and rural respondents (22%), and reveals 564 (50.4%) respondents currently engaged in volunteer service, 204 (18.2%) respondents formerly involved in volunteer service, and 351 (31.4%) respondents never involved in volunteer service.

Carter's (1975) analysis concludes that a "typical" Canadian volunteer does not exist. In fact, Carter's data indicates that there is about as may men (44.5%) involved in volunteer work as there are women (55.5%), that many of the volunteers are married (31.8% of males and 41.4% of females), and that volunteers come from a wide range of occupations, education, and income.

Ross and Shillington (1989) report that in 1987 Manitoba had 302,600 volunteers in general volunteer service, that these volunteers performed 48.7 million hours of work annually, and that the average number of hours contributed annually by each of these 302,600 volunteers totaled 161 hours. While the 1987 census does not provide a breakdown of the number of Manitoba volunteers involved in corrections oriented work, the 1987 census does profile the personal and economic characteristics of Manitoba volunteers collectively, as depicted in Tables 1.6 and 1.7 respectively (in Ross and Shillington, 1989:23).

TABLE 1.6

Manitoba Volunteers: Personal Characteristics In 1987

Characteristic	Rate Of Volunteering	Distribution Of All Volunteers	Distribution Of All Canadians
Manitoba	37.4%	100.0%	100.0%
Age			
15 - 19 years	33.8	8.7	9.6
20 - 24	19.6	5.7	10.9
25 - 34	42.6	25.4	22.3
35 - 44	51.5	24.3	17.6
45 - 54	40.2	12.9	12.0
55 - 64	37.1	11.6	11.7
65 and over	26.8	11.4	15.9
Gender			
Female	40.7	55.9	51.4
Male	33.9	44.1	48.6
Marital Status			
Single	28.5	19.8	60.4
Married	44.3	71.5	26.0
Widow, sep, divorced	23.7	8.6	13.6
Education Level			
None or elementary	15.8	7.1	16.7
Some high school	34.1	46.2	50.6
Some post-secondary	40.4	11.6	10.8
Post-secondary diploma	50.9	15.8	11.7
University degree	70.2	19.3	10.3
Cultural Group			
English	42.7	49.4	45.0
French	35.3	9.6	10.6
Other	35.9	41.0	44.4

Note: Totals may not add up to 100% due to rounding.
Residents are persons over the age of fifteen.

TABLE 1.7

Manitoba Volunteers: Economic Characteristics In 1987

Characteristic	Rate Of Volunteering	Distribution Of All Volunteers	Distribution Of All Canadians
Manitoba	37.4 %	100.0 %	100.0 %
Income Level			
0-$9,999	19.1	5.0	10.1
10-$19,999	26.4	16.7	24.6
20-$39,999	42.6	45.5	41.5
$40,000 plus	53.7	32.9	23.8
Labour Force Status			
Employed	40.8	67.1	61.5
Unemployed	31.4	3.8	4.5
Not in labour force	32.1	29.1	34.0
Employment Status[1]			
Full time	38.7	75.5	77.8
Part time	44.3	24.5	22.2

[1]Distribution of employed volunteers only.

1.5 SUMMARY

Since Augustus' early attempt to provide offenders with a more humane judicial disposition, volunteers have become an integral part of criminal justice systems. In Winnipeg, corrections volunteers work alongside the paid staff in a support role to facilitate the needs of the corrections client. Since 1966, when section 3(2) of the Manitoba Corrections Act gave corrections volunteers in probation service the official designation of Honorary Probation Officer, correctional volunteerism has expanded to permit volunteer service to be extended to a variety of human service organizations.

1.6 CHAPTER I ENDNOTES

[1] Lewis Diana has produced one of the most often cited reviews in literary attempts to define probation; see Lewis Diana (1960) "What Is Probation?" The Journal Of Criminal Law, Criminology, And Police Science. Vol.51. No.1. May-June. Pp.189-208; see also Doeren and Hageman (1982) "Probation" in Chapter 3 in Community Corrections. Anderson Publishing Company. Cincinnati, Ohio. Pp.50-92.

[2] For a historical review of the development of Juvenile Justice Reform, see Fox (1969-1970) "Juvenile Justice Reform: An Historical Perspective." Stanford Law Review. Vol.22. Pp.1187-1239.

Chapter II

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR A JOB SATISFACTION ANALYSIS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This study evaluates the job satisfaction of correctional volunteers by identifying job facets through factor analysis, and by then utilizing standard multiple regression to regress the identified job facets against a measure of overall job satisfaction. This procedure implies that job satisfaction is determined from a linear relationship between identified job facets and a measure of overall job satisfaction. In a comparative analysis of linear and non-linear job satisfaction models, support for the utility and superiority of the linear models is offered by Ferrat (1981) who concludes that:

> The results provide marginal support for an hypothesis that overall job satisfaction is a linear function of satisfaction with various job facets. Specifically, satisfaction with job facets explains 50-60% of overall job satisfaction based on a linear combination of job facets. The results also indicate that facet-based instruments used individually are not sufficient measures of overall job satisfaction. When facets from multiple-based instruments are combined, a marginally sufficient measure is obtained (Ferrat, 1981:463)

Job satisfaction researchers concede that previous job satisfaction inquiries fall short in identifying a sufficient number of job facets to explain adequately the variation in the overall job satisfaction (dependent) variable (ie. Conway, 1985; Gidron, 1983; Ferrat, 1981). The present study undertakes to identify additional job satisfaction facets.

While there exists a wealth of job satisfaction research studies which focus upon the job satisfaction of non-volunteer worker populations, by comparison, the attention given to empirically evaluating the job satisfaction of correctional volunteers through statistical analysis techniques is limited. It is not unreasonable to conclude therefore that what Gidron observed of volunteer research in general, in 1983, adequately describes the current state of job satisfaction research in correctional volunteer populations: that "[j]ob satisfaction from volunteer work has not been given much attention to date by researchers" (:21). In 1981 Van Groningen offered an observation of a similar nature of non-volunteer correctional populations by noting that "... to date there appears to have been very little research undertaken related to the issue of job satisfaction of uniformed correctional staff." Philliber (1987) illustrates the current climate of correctional research by stating that "... most of today's research on corrections officers centers on role conflict and its many consequences, including stress, alienation, cynicism, various unpleasant attitudes towards inmates and administrators, and job dissatisfaction." However, Veneziano (1984) suggests that the amount of attention given to examining occupational stress in corrections personnel is "limited" (:215).

Therefore, the theoretical framework formulated in this chapter, which guides the analysis of correctional volunteer job satisfaction, is rooted primarily in literature oriented towards non-volunteer worker populations. Volunteer oriented material is used where possible, and where such material is used, direct reference is made to volunteers, to corrections volunteers, or to correctional volunteers.

2.2 JOB SATISFACTION

Hoppock (1935), Brayfield and Rothe (1951), Herzberg et.al. (1959), and Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969) provide some of the earliest significant achievements in the evolution of job satisfaction research. As job satisfaction research continues to evolve from the landmark studies produced by these scholars, refinements to job satisfaction models have increased reliance upon factor analytic techniques and linear models in the evaluative process. Offered below is a short history of job satisfaction research and discussion of the integral components of this research: job satisfaction, job facets, and overall job satisfaction.

2.2.1 A Cursory Review Of Selected Job Satisfaction Research

Hoppock's (1935) Job Satisfaction monograph provides job satisfaction research with a landmark study by approaching the problem of determining the causes of job satisfaction through the identification of what Hoppock refers to as job "components." Hoppock concludes the existence of the following six components:

> The first of these is the way the individual responds to unpleasant situations ... The second component is the facility with which the worker adjusts himself to other persons both on and off the job, his ability to find in them things which he can like and respect, and so to conduct himself that they will like him ... Third is the status of the individual compared with that of others in the social and economic group with which he identifies himself ... Fourth is the nature of the work, in relation to the abilities, the interests, and the preparation of the worker ... Fifth is the quest for security, economic and social ... Finally, there is the whole question of the worker's loyalties, his devotion to interests that transcend his own immediate selfish purposes (Hoppock, 1935:279-283).

Job satisfaction research then followed a course whereby the measurement of attitude towards aspects of work were measured through questionnaires in an effort to standardize measurement. The effort to standardize the measurement of attitude was aided initially by the development of Thurston (Thurston, 1928; Thurston and Chave, 1929) and Likert (1932) scales. Later, the development of a job satisfaction scale by Brayfield and Rothe (1951), the development of the Herzberg et.al. (1959) Two Factor Theory, and the development of the Job Description Index developed by Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969) provided early significant achievement in the standardization of attitude measurement in job satisfaction research.

In 1951 Brayfield and Rothe developed the eighteen item Job Satisfaction Blank which asks respondents to reply to questions from a five item scale which offers these response choices: "strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree, strongly disagree." Brayfield and Rothe implemented their "Blank" and compared the results achieved by Hoppock's (1935) "Blank" and discovered a product-moment correlation of 0.92 which indicates that "[a]lthough the two blanks were developed by different methods and contain items which over-lap slightly they give results which are highly correlated" (Brayfield and Rothe, 1951:311).

In 1959 the Herzberg Two Factor Theory emerged to challenge a tradition of measuring job satisfaction through a one-factor approach (Russell, 1975). In the one-factor paradigm a single factor could be a source of either satisfaction, dissatisfaction, or both. The Herzberg et.al theory proposes a two-factor approach in which the factors which produced job satisfaction are viewed as

> ... separate and distinct from the factors that [lead] to job dissatisfaction. Since separate factors needed to be considered, depending whether job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction was involved, it followed that these two feelings were not the obverse of each other. Thus, the opposite of job satisfaction would not be job dissatisfaction but rather no job satisfaction; similarly, the opposite of job dissatisfaction is no job satisfaction, not satisfaction with one's job (Herzberg, et.al. 1966:75-76).

The Herzberg et.al. (1959) Two Factor theory delineates job satisfaction into these two components: (1) Job Content Factors (termed "motivators") which Herzberg et.al. state are intrinsic rewards, and which function as the worker's source of job satisfaction by satisfying the worker's need for such things as recognition, advancement, achievement, and the work itself, for example; and (2) Job Context Factors (termed "hygienes") which Herzberg et.al. state are extrinsic rewards, and which function primarily as the worker's source of job dissatisfaction as they fail to "... meet the needs of the individual for avoiding unpleasant circumstances" (Herzberg et.al., 1959). The Job Context Factors include such things as salary, interpersonal relations, physical working conditions, company administration and policy, and supervision.

For Herzberg et.al. then, dissatisfaction occurs not because of a lack of satisfiers, but rather, because of the presence dissatisfiers. Conversely, satisfaction occurs not because of a lack of dissatisfiers, but rather, because of the presence satisfiers. Herzberg et.al. conclude that the "hygienes" have the potential to produce job satisfaction but that they frequently fail to do so, and, that the primary source of job satisfaction are the "motivators."

In 1969 Smith, Kendall, and Hulin observed that prior to 1969 factor analytic approaches to measuring job satisfaction most frequently yielded "... a general factor, a pay and material-rewards factor, a factor dealing with the work itself, a supervision factor, and a factor dealing with other workers on the job." Subsequently, Smith, Kendall, and Hulin developed the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) which, in its final version, measures 72 items (pertaining to five general job facets: work, pay, promotions, supervisor, and co-workers) in three general groupings (Best Job, Present Job, Worst Job). This means that each of the 72 items appear once in each of the three general groupings, and consequently, from each application of the Job Descriptive Index, a total of 216 observations are potentially acquired.

In 1971 Hackman and Lawler developed the Yale Job Inventory to facilitate the measurement of intrinsic motivators believed to lead to more effective worker performance. Their theoretical framework imparts that meaningful job satisfaction is derived when workers perceive their work to be high on variety, autonomy, task identity, and feedback. In addition to measuring these "four core dimensions" (:265), the Yale Job Inventory also measures employee desire for the fulfillment of higher order needs, and two interpersonal job dimensions (dealing with others as a prerequisite to task completion, and the availability of friendship opportunities at the workplace). Hackman and Lawler's (1971) theoretical framework posits that "... when jobs are high on the four core dimensions, employees who are desirous of higher order need satisfaction tend to have high motivation, have high job satisfaction, be absent from work infrequently, and be rated by supervisors as doing high quality

work" (:259). The measurement of the strength of the desire for higher order need fulfillment is facilitated through such items as personal growth, and sense of accomplishment, for example. Hackman and Lawler's initial application of Yale Job Inventory offers results which

> ... show that, in general, employees with moderately high desires for higher order need satisfaction tend to work harder and be more satisfied when they perceive their jobs as being relatively high on the four core dimensions. In addition, it was shown that for the most favourable outcomes, jobs need to be at least moderately high on all four of the dimensions (Hackman and Lawler, 1971:282).

In 1975 Hackman and Oldham developed the Job Diagnostic Survey[1] to serve as a tool for assessing how jobs could be redesigned to improve the productivity and motivation of employees, and to evaluate the impact of job changes upon employees. The theoretical framework of the Job Diagnostic Survey is comprised of three major components, termed: Core Job Dimensions, Critical Psychological States, and Personal And Work Outcomes. The five Core Job Dimensions (autonomy, feedback, task identity, task significance, and skill variety) influence the creation of three Critical Psychological States (experienced meaningfulness of work, experienced responsibility for outcomes of the work, and knowledge of the actual results of the work activities) which must be present for the occurrence of Personal And Work Outcomes (high internal work motivation, high quality work performance, high satisfaction with the work, and low absenteeism and turnover). The multiplicative effect of the three major components produces a Motivating Potential Score (MPS) which reflects worker motivation towards the job. The MPS is moderated by items pertaining to Employee Growth And Need Strength.

By 1992 the measurement of job satisfaction is generally viewed as a linear function of identified job facets related to an overall measure of job satisfaction (ie. Ewen, 1967; Wanous and Lawler, 1972; Ferrat, 1981; Conway, 1985). Despite an emphasis upon linear models, it has nonetheless been argued that non-linear models have been as equally successful as the linear models in identifying job satisfaction facets (Aldag and Brief, 1978). However, Ferrat's comparison of linear and non-linear models yields this conclusion:

> Based on the finding the linear compensatory model of combining facets performs approximately as well as or better than the non-linear models investigated in this study, the results indicate that research on such an hypothesis is reasonable to pursue. Until some other function can be shown to be superior, the linear function (which explains 50%-60% of the variation in overall job satisfaction in this study) should be the standard for comparison (Ferrat, 1981:471).

2.2.2 Defining Job Satisfaction

From their review of the job satisfaction literature, Wanous and Lawler (1972) assert a lack of consensus about what constitutes an operational definition of job satisfaction[2]. They express concern about the construct validity of conceptual definitions that emerge from studies which depart from the tradition of having respondents rate aspects of their job on a Likert satisfaction scale. Wanous and Lawler add that a variety of conceptual definitions have emerged from research which measure job satisfaction in different ways, and further, that it is typically assumed that these conceptual definitions are all measures of the same thing. Wanous and Lawler (1972:95) state that "[s]ince few studies have measured satisfaction in more than one way and [have] compared the results, it is not clear that this [assumption] is

justified." Wanous and Lawler (1972) provide the following review to illustrate some of the various attempts to conceptualize job satisfaction:

1. "Ewen (1967) summed satisfaction scores from the five components of the Job Description Index (JDI) and correlated the sums with two measures of overall satisfaction ...."
2. "Job satisfaction has been conceptualized as a weighted sum of job facet satisfaction" (ie. Blood, 1971; Decker, 1955; Ewen, 1967; Mikes and Hulin, 1968; Schaffer, 1953).
3. "Job satisfaction has also been operationalized as the sum of goal attainment or need fulfillment when summed across job facets" (ie. Porter, 1961; Alderfer, 1969).
4. "Porter (1961) defines satisfaction as the difference between responses to a 'How much is there now' item and responses to a 'How much should there be' item, when these two items are asked for a number of job facets or needs."
5. Locke (1969) states that job satisfaction is determined through a comparison of dissatisfaction with unfulfilled desires and the fulfillment of desires and ideals.
6. Beer (1966), Glennon, Owens, Smith, and Albright (1960), Kuhlen (1963), Pelz and Andrews (1966), Ross and Zander (1957) measured job satisfaction from "... the discrepancy between the importance of a job facet and the perception of fulfillment from a facet."

Consistent with Ferrat (1981) and Conway's (1985) approach to measuring job satisfaction, the present study posits job satisfaction to be a function of a linear relationship between identified job facets and

overall job satisfaction. To arrive at a measure of job satisfaction, this approach identifies job facets through factor analysis, and then utilizes standard multiple regression to regress the identified job facets against a measure of overall job satisfaction.

2.2.3 Job Facet Satisfaction

There are a host of job facets which have the potential to impact upon the development of worker perceptions about job satisfaction. For example, in her analysis of a non-volunteer worker population, Conway's (1985) final job facet satisfaction model identifies these seventeen job facets in this order: supervisor, upper-management, work challenge/autonomy, work stress, physical work environment, work group, distribution of staff, organization of work tasks, organizational structure, organizational commitments, pay, merit pay, benefits, promotion, training, affirmative action, and job security. Conway notes that the facets which are common to other models are "supervision, work challenge and autonomy, pay, and promotion" (:116). And, from job facets research of volunteer worker populations, it is demonstrated that:

> ... volunteers report both content-factors (those related to the actual work performed) and context-factors (those related to the work situation) as contributing to job satisfaction. Among the content-factors are: (1) the relationship with the client/patient(s) (Hadley and Webb, 1971; Deegan and Nutt, 1975); (2) doing worthwhile work (Gandy, 1976; Deegan and Nutt, 1975); (3) use of the volunteers skills and abilities (Hillman, 1967); (4) helping and teaching (Schwartz, 1966); (5) recognition (Hillman, 1967). Principal context-factors are: (1) relationships with other volunteers (Hadley and Webb, 1971; Schwartz, 1966); (2) supervision, help from professional staff (Gandy, 1976; Hillman, 1967; Hadley and Webb, 1971; Schwartz, 1966); Yet given the limitations of the studies cited, this list of job facets related to [job] satisfaction of volunteers cannot be considered complete (in Gidron, 1983:22).

The inherent difficulty in job satisfaction research is not that of being able to identify job facets, rather, the common problem is that of identifying the facets which are relevant to the job setting and to the person in that setting, and in defending the choice of the facets identified (Wanous and Lawler, 1972). Therefore, the present study develops a survey instrument (Appendix B) to measure correctional volunteer attitudes towards a number of aspects of work, including for example: work stress, interpersonal relations, orientation and training, workload, supervisor, role ambiguity, autonomy, accomplishment, feedback, and the likelihood of victimization. With the likelihood of victimization as the exception, the other aspects of work typically appear in job satisfaction research designs (ie. Dunnette, et.al., 1967; Lee and Wilbur, 1985; Barber, 1986); in job satisfaction research designs comprised solely of correctional officers (ie. Cullen et.al., 1985; and Rogers, 1991); and in research designs comprised solely of correctional volunteers (ie. Pierucci and Noel, 1980).

2.2.4 Overall Job Satisfaction

A review of the job satisfaction literature reveals great diversity in the operationalization of the overall job satisfaction variable. Generally, the measurement of overall job satisfaction has been facilitated through either: (1) a single question approach (ie. Form and Geschwender, 1962; Meltzer and Salter, 1962; Laslett, 1971; Wanous and Lawler, 1972; Harbin, 1980; Gruenberg, 1980; Swaney and Pridger, 1985; and Gidron, 1983), or (2) through a multiple question approach (ie. Conway, 1985; Martin and Sheehan, 1989; Neil and Snizek, 1988; and Cawsey, Reed, and Reddon, 1982).

This continuing diversity in the construction of the overall job satisfaction variable, and hence removal from standardization, fosters independance and latitude in the construction of said variable. McGehee and Tullar (1979) illustrate this point through an inquiry which utilizes six questions to measure overall job satisfaction. They find that "... the percentages of workers expressing overall job dissatisfaction on [these] six different questions ranged between 14% and 51%" (:112). This finding leads McGehee and Tullar to conclude that "... in order to obtain a desired estimate of satisfaction (or its complement, dissatisfaction), one simply needs to choose the correct question" (:112).

In the present study, the construction of the overall job satisfaction variable is facilitated by a multiple question[2] approach from questions that have been tried and tested in other job satisfaction models; that is, from respondent replies to the following two questions:

1. "Do you like working as a volunteer in corrections?"
2. "If someone expressed to you their desire to become a volunteer in corrections, would you recommend the job?"

Question one is developed from Form and Geschwender (1962) who operationalize overall job satisfaction from a single question which asks "How do you like your job?" Question two is developed from Martin and Sheehan (1989:187) who operationalize overall job satisfaction from five questions, including a question which asks whether or not the

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[2] Survey questionnaires typically ask respondents to consider both statements and questions. To facilitate discussion, henceforth the term "question(s)" will be used to reference both questions and statements used in the operationalization of variables.

worker would recommend his or her job.

Historically, the terminology used in the construction of the questions which operationalize the overall job satisfaction variable has varied considerably in both the single question and multiple question approaches. To illustrate this diversity, which exists even in contemporary research, selected job satisfaction research is reviewed. A cursory review of some multiple question approaches (nos. 11-21) follows this review of some single question approaches (nos. 1-10):

1. Form and Geschwender (1962:230) measure overall job satisfaction by asking: "How do you like your job?" Respondents are asked to reply either very good, pretty good, average, not so good, or not at all.
2. Meltzer and Salter (1962:354) measure overall job satisfaction by asking: "All in all, how do you feel about your present job?" Respondents are asked to reply either very satisfied, fairly satisfied, neither satisfied nor dissatisfied, fairly dissatisfied, or very dissatisfied.
3. Laslett (1971:25) and Brief, Munro, and Aldag (1977 in Ross, 1981:316) measure overall job satisfaction by asking: "Taking all things together, how do you feel about your work as a whole?" Respondents are asked to reply either very satisfied, somewhat satisfied, somewhat dissatisfied, or very dissatisfied.
4. Wanous and Lawler (1972:98) measure overall job satisfaction by asking: "Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with my job" Respondents are asked to reply on a 7 point interval scale.

5. Gandy et.al. (1976:106) measure overall job satisfaction by asking: "Everything considered are you satisfied with your volunteer work at the prison?"
6. Glenn, Taylor, and Weaver (1977:190) measure overall job satisfaction by asking: "'On the whole, how satisfied are you with the work you do-would you say you are very satisfied, moderately satisfied, a little dissatisfied, or very dissatisfied?'"
7. Gruenberg (1980:255-56) measures overall job satisfaction by asking: "All things considered, how satisfied would you say you are with your job?" Respondents are asked to reply either completely satisfied, pretty satisfied, not very satisfied, or not at all satisfied.
8. Gidron (1983:29) measures overall job satisfaction by asking: "Taking all things into consideration, how satisfied are you with your work here?"
9. Swaney and Prediger (1985:16) measure overall job satisfaction by asking respondents to what extent their job offers a "chance to do interesting work?" Respondents are asked to reply either good, fair, or poor. Respondents who reply good are defined as indicating satisfaction, while respondents who reply fair or poor are defined as indicating dissatisfaction.
10. Lindquist and Whitehead (1986:09) measure overall job satisfaction by asking: "All in all, how satisfied would you say you are with your job? This question is taken from Quinn and Staines (1979) "The 1977 Quality Of Employment Survey."

11. Hackman and Lawler (1971:270) measure overall job satisfaction by asking: "Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with my job," "I frequently think of quitting my job," and "Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with the kind of work I have to do on my job."
12. Maimon and Ronen (1978:1023) measure overall job satisfaction by asking: "In general are you satisfied with your present place of work?" and "In general are you satisfied with your job?"
13. McGehee and Tullar (1979:114) measure overall job satisfaction by asking: "All in all, how satisfied would you say you are with your job?", "How often do you leave work with a good feeling that you've done some things particularly well?", "Knowing what you know now, if you had to decide all over again whether to take the job you now have, what would you decide?", "If a good friend of yours told you (he/she) was in working in a job like yours for your employer, what would you tell (him/her)?", "How often do you get so wrapped up in your work that you lose track of time?", and "If you were free to go into any type of job you wanted, what would be your choice?"
14. D'Arcy, Syrotuik, and Siddique (1984:607) measure overall job satisfaction by asking two questions. "The first of these items references job satisfaction directly, i.e., How happy are you with your job?, and the second referenced the company or organization for which the individual worked, ie., How would you describe the reputation in the community of the organization you work for?" Respondents are asked to respond to an 11-point interval scale for each question.

15. Conway (1985:41 and 43) measures overall job satisfaction from responses to: (1) "I can see the results of my work" (2) "I have opportunities to develop my own special abilities" (3) "This agency is a good place to work" and (4) "Overall, I am satisfied with my job."
16. Neil and Snizek (1988:206) measure overall job satisfaction from responses to: "Overall liking of the job, amount of time satisfied with the job, and enjoyment of the job compared to similar jobs ..."
17. Kalleberg (1977:126-27), Martin and Hanson (1985:96), and Martin and Sheehan (1989:187) measure overall job satisfaction by asking: "(1) How satisfied the worker is at present, (2) Whether or not the worker intends to look for another job in the near future, (3) Whether the worker would recommend her or his job, (4) Whether the worker would take the same job again or look for another job, and (5) Whether the job measures up to the worker's initial expectations."
18. Shamir and Drory (1981) measure overall job satisfaction through the use of the 5 questions which comprise the job satisfaction measure in Hackman and Oldham's (1975) Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS).
19. King, Murray, and Atkinson (1982:122) measure overall job satisfaction through a composite of four questions. Firstly, on an 11 point interval scale ranging from completely satisfied to completely dissatisfied, respondents reply to: "Overall, how satisfied or dissatisfied are you with your main job?" Secondly, respondents are asked to rate their job on a scale which ranges

from A (outstanding) to F (failing). Thirdly and fourthly, respondents are asked to reply to: "If you had the choice to make again, would you choose the same occupation or type of work you do now?" and "If you had an opportunity to take a similar job at the same pay in another organization would you take it or stay in your current job?"

20. Blau, Light, And Chamlin (1986) measure overall job satisfaction by combining responses to: (1) "How satisfied are you with your job?" (2) "It is not clear to me how I should actually perform all aspects of my job" (3) "The rules and regulations are differentially enforced by different members of the staff" (4) "Rules are poorly communicated" (5) "Directives are changing all the time" (6) "Rules don't fit the real job situation" (7) "In my position, I have little opportunity to influence how my job should be performed" and (8) "I get very little support and encouragement from my supervisor."

21. Zeitz (1990) measures overall job satisfaction by asking respondents to reply either very satisfied, somewhat satisfied, neutral, somewhat dissatisfied, or very dissatisfied to these four questions: "How satisfied are you with the persons in your work group?", "How satisfied are you with your supervisor?", "All in all, how satisfied are you with your job?", and "All in all, how satisfied are you with this organization, compared to most others?"

In 1974 Kalleberg causally modeled three independent variables (income, education, and occupational status) against four overall job

satisfaction (dependent) variables (two single items, and two scales) to determine the best approach to operationalizing the overall job satisfaction variable. The first single item is a direct indicator of overall job satisfaction, and asks respondents to reply very dissatisfied, mostly dissatisfied, neither, mostly satisfied, or very satisfied to this question: "In general, what do you think of your job? Would you say that you are....?" Kalleberg echoes the basic criticism of this question to be its naivete' in asking for a simple frank answer to what could be a vague and complex problem, its low reliability, and its ability to overestimate the actual amount of job satisfaction present.

The second single item is an indirect indicator of overall job satisfaction, and asks respondents to reply either "yes" (indicating satisfaction) or "no" (indicating dissatisfaction) to this question: "Would you rather do some other kind of work than you are now doing?" The presence of satisfaction is inferential, and this question is found to perform marginally better than the direct indicator in test-retest reliability (.41 for men and .29 for women as compared to .29 for men and .08 for women, respectively). The broader frame of reference that this question provides, moreso than the direct indicator, is cited as the reason why this question indicates "higher levels of job dissatisfaction in the work force" (in Kalleberg, 1974:302).

The two scales ask respondents to consider the same list of fourteen items. The first scale asks respondents to indicate the level of satisfaction that there "Is Now" with each item; asking respondents to reply "not much", "is some," or "great deal." The measurement of overall job satisfaction by this method is achieved by measuring

satisfaction within several job facets, and by summing the responses over the facets. Some researchers weight the facets according to their importance ratings as provided by respondents. Scale validity is dependent upon "... the assumptions that the goals and needs specified by the researcher coincide with those of the respondent and that each aspect of the respondents job is of equal importance in determining his [or her] overall job satisfaction" (Kalleberg, 1974:302). The second scale asks respondents to indicate the level of satisfaction that there "Is Now," and "Should Be," with each of the fourteen items. Overall job satisfaction is ascertained from the discrepancy between the two sets of responses. A measure of this discrepancy is achieved by computing and summing the differences between same items "... across job facets, each weighted equally or unequally" (Kalleberg, 1974:303).

Concluding this analysis, Kalleberg finds the direct and indirect indicators to be flawed by invalidity. He casts doubt upon the utility of employing single item indicators, and especially the direct indicator, in the measurement of overall job satisfaction. Clearly, Kalleberg prefers the multiple-question approach (versus the single-question approach) in operationalization of the overall job satisfaction variable.

2.2.5 Demographic Correlates And Job Satisfaction

King, Murray, and Atkinson's (1982) review of the literature considers the influence of demographic variables upon job satisfaction, and offers four observations which King, Murray, and Atkinson state are commonly found in job satisfaction analyses. Firstly, age is found to

have a positive linear association with job satisfaction. Secondly, gender does not have a direct association with job satisfaction, but is able to moderate the association between other variables and job satisfaction. Thirdly, the association between job satisfaction and education is negative and strictly linear. Fourthly, with respect to race, non-whites report less job satisfaction than whites; a finding which is rendered insignificant through the control of job rewards. "Yet such biographical characteristics, even when considered together, seldom account for more than 5% to 6% of the variance in measures of job satisfaction (Campbell et al., 1976), and they do not dramatically moderate the association between job satisfaction and job characteristics" (King, Murray, and Atkinson, 1982:120).

King, Murray, and Atkinson (1982) evaluate the job satisfaction of Canadian adults through data collected in 1977 from 3,288 respondents from five Canadian regions: British Columbia, the Prairie provinces (Alberta, Saskatchewan, Manitoba), Ontario, Quebec, and the Atlantic provinces (Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island). Their analysis identifies job satisfaction to be the lowest in British Columbia and the Prairie provinces, and highest in the Atlantic provinces. In addition, the demographic variables (age, gender, income, education, marital status, number of residential inhabitants, and geographic locale of the residence) explain only 2.7% of the variation in job satisfaction. When biographic, personality, and job characteristics are controlled, the beta coefficient for gender becomes negative and statistically significant; indicating that females report greater job satisfaction than do the males.

From an analysis of data pertaining to various occupational groups involved in human service work, McNeely (1984) identifies females as being more intrinsically satisfied with their job than are males. Female job satisfaction is best predicted by whether or not the workers perceive the expectation of the job supervisor to be excessive, while male job satisfaction is best predicted by workers being permitted to exercise their judgement. McNeely adds that female job satisfaction is also predicted by the supervisor clearly articulating expectations, soliciting the worker's ideas, and by emphasizing teamwork. In addition, a good job benefits package improves female job satisfaction, and male job satisfaction is also predicted by worker's perception of the supervisor being knowledgeable, concerned, and competent.

2.3 THE WORK ENVIRONMENT

This section establishes correctional work as dangerous, and utilizes the routine activity and lifestyle theory of victimization to explicate the potential for the occurrence of workplace victimizations in the correctional environment. Secondly, this section is attentive to considering aspects of work (ie. supervisor, and workload) which have the potential to encourage, or impede, the development of job satisfaction.

2.3.1 Workplace Danger

The present study uses the terms "fear of victimization" and "fear of crime" interchangeably to reference a single concept: fear of becoming a victim of a criminal act. A criminal act is defined as any

act, verbal or physical, through which an offender threatens a worker's life, limb, liberty, or property (or any combination thereof). The workers perceived vulnerability to a criminal act is operationalized through the workers' perception about the likelihood of being victimized from work-related contact with offenders.

Workplace victimization[3] is hypothesized to be a work-related concern for correctional workers as correctional work has the potential to elicit or heighten a workers perceived risk to crime from an awareness of the very conditions upon which the corrections worker/offender interaction is predicated: (1) the violation of law; and (2) the offender lacking the proper internal controls by which to inhibit inappropriate behaviour leading to, or constituting, law violation. As corrections work requires its' workers to interact on an interpersonal basis with violaters of law, this nature of corrections work predisposes its' workers to persons and/or situations which have the potential to be harmful. It is foreseeable then that corrections work could produce or heighten a fear of victimization in correctional workers, and as such, could retard their job satisfaction.

A review of the fear of victimization[4] literature reveals considerable effort to develop theoretical clarifications utilizing demographic information to explain fear of victimization in population subgroups (ie. by ethnicity, gender, income, and age) and within communities. By contrast, the attention given to workplace fear of crime as a theoretical construct in research designs is meagre. The literature review conducted in preparation for the present study fails to ascertain the existence of a single empirical evaluation of a correctional

volunteer population which incorporates fear of crime constructs in its job satisfaction research design[5]. Despite such neglect, the potential consequences of fear of crime are sufficient to persuade the necessity of its detection in any population:

> Research suggests that fear of crime can lead to deleterious psychological effects (such as feelings of anxiety, mistrust, alienation, and dissatisfaction with life) and to efforts to reduce fear (e.g., taking drugs), to avoid victimization (e.g., staying off the streets at night, avoiding strangers, and curtailing social activities) and to protect oneself (e.g., buying watchdogs, firearms, antiburglary equipment, and learning self defense) (Liska, Lawrence, and Sanchirico, 1982:761).

In the last decade victimization inquiries have received considerable guidance from the routine activity approach to victimization which typically is employed to explain victimization through subdimensions of routine activity and lifestyle; specifically, through such components as guardianship, attractiveness, motivation, and proximity to offenders (Cohen and Felson, 1979). Only recently have researchers become attentive to analyzing the effects of routine activity upon the potential for victimization within a specific domain such as the workplace (Lynch, 1987).

The present study evaluates the job satisfaction of persons who work within a specific domain: the correctional work environment, or more specifically, four probation offices, two remand facilities, and a correctional institution. The requirement for the application of the routine activity and lifestyle theory to domain-specific activity, such as workplace activity, to further explore the explanatory power that routine activity theory has in explaining victimization, is articulated by Lynch (1987) who states that:

> Using domain as a means of classifying victimization may produce more internally homogeneous crime classes that can increase the explanatory power of routine activity models .... Domain-specific models of victimization will also facilitate drawing the causal link between routine activity and victimization. If we know that a particular victimization occured while the victim was at work, then we can be more confident that activities attendant to work account for at least some of the differences between working and nonworking people (Lynch, 1987:285).

Since the routine activity and lifestyle theory of victimization was initially proposed, various evaluations and formalizations of the theory have refined criminologists understanding of the nature of criminal victimization. A cursory review of selected literature is offered below to highlight the evolution of routine activity victimization research, from which propositions and findings from empirical inquiries and formalizations are extracted to facilitate the explication of the likelihood of workplace victimization in the correctional environment. Following this discussion, consideration is given to aspects of volunteer work which have the potential to influence job satisfaction.

2.3.1.1 A Cursory Review Of Selected Routine Activity And Lifestyle Victimization Research

The groundwork for contemporary formalizations of the routine activities and lifestyle approach to victimization is largely attributable to the research proposed by Hindelang, Gottfredson, and Garofalo (1978), Cohen and Felson (1979), and Cohen, Kluegel, and Land (1981). These early applications of the routine activity and lifestyle approach express concern about the convergence in time and space of a victim and offender, and the conditions which permit their ensuing

interaction to escalate to victimization. Sherman, Gartin, and Buerger (1989) identify the most important contribution of the routine activity and lifestyle approach to be this theories' premise "... that crime rates are affected not only by the absolute size of the supply of offenders, targets, or guardianship, but also by the factors affecting the frequency of their convergence in space and time" (:30-31).

The lifestyle theory of victimization proposed by Hindelang, Gottfredson, and Garofalo (1978:250) states that the likelihood of victimization increases when certain conditions are satisfied. Firstly, the offender and the victim must share the same moment in time, and also the same geographic locale; that is, time and space. Secondly, a dispute must arise which leads the offender to perceive the victim as an appropriate target. Thirdly, the offender must be willing to use force or "stealth" against the victim. And fourthly, the offender must view the use of force or "stealth" against the victim as advantageous. Hindelang, Gottfredson, and Garofalo add that lifestyle can expose a person to greater numbers of risk situations which in turn can increase the likelihood of personal victimization. These risk situations can arise during "leisure activities" or during "vocational activities (ie. work, school, keeping house)." In 1981 Gottfredson reiterated the routine activity and lifestyle model by stating that:

> Briefly, we argue that variations in lifestyle, ie. the characteristic way in which individuals allocate their time to vocational activities and to leisure activities, are related differentially to probabilities of being in particular places at particular times and coming into contact with persons who have particular characteristics. Because criminal victimization is not randomly distributed ... this implies that lifestyle differences are associated with differences to exposure in situations that have a high victimization risk (Gottfredson, 1981:720).

Building upon the foundation laid by the personal victimization theory put forth by Hindelang, Gottfredson, and Garofalo (1978), Cohen and Felson (1979) develop a theory of routine activity victimization which defines routine activity "... as any recurrent and prevalent activities which provide for basic population needs, whatever their biological or cultural origins" (:593). Cohen and Felson state that routine activity patterns influence the potential to be victimized through: (1) a potential target (person or property) being perceived by an offender as a suitable target, (2) by the same offender being motivated towards victimizing the suitable target, and (3) the absence of capable persons ("guardians") to guard against the victimization of the suitable target. If these three conditions are satisfied, then there exists a potential for the occurrence of direct-contact predatory crime, but should any one of these elements be lacking, then the potential for the occurrence of direct-contact predatory crime is negated.

> Thus, change in any of the three preconditions for crime can create a situation where crime rates can be significantly increased or decreased. In addition to the additive effects, Cohen and Felson's model implies a multiplicative effect where the presence of all three conditions in a particular place at a particular time should produce an effect on crime rates over and above the additive effects. Implicitly, this is a model of crime rate change but it is also one which can be adapted to a cross-sectional argument (Stahura and Sloan, 1988:1103).

Cohen and Felson state that since World War II the number of routine activities occuring outside of the household has increased, and as persons move outside of their households to pursue nonhousehold routine activities, there is increased potential for motivated offenders to come into contact with suitable targets in the absence of capable

guardians. While not all such contacts result in criminal victimization, Cohen and Felson blame increases in the number of routine activities outside of the household as leading to increased opportunities for victimization which leads to increases in actual victimization; hence, increases in rates of crime. Cohen and Felson add that if the number of offenders in a given area remains constant, changes in daily routine could increase the likelihood of victimization from a potential target coming into contact with greater numbers of offenders.

Felson's (1987) later application of the original theory of routine activity (Cohen and Felson, 1979) incorporates three additional classifications of law breakers. The original theory applies to exploitive offenses which encompass the taking of a persons property, or damaging a person, by at least one other person. Felson classifies predatory offenses as exploitive offenses, and adds to this predatory offense classification three additional classifications: mutualistic offenses, competitive offenses, and individualistic offenses. Gambling and prostitution are examples of mutualistic offenses because they involve "two or more parties acting in a complementary role" (:912). When two parties are involved in the same role (ie. a fist fight), they are said to be committing a competitive offense. And lastly, a single individual engaged in committing a sole offense (ie. taking drugs) is said to be committing an individualistic offense. Similar to the requirements of the original theory, the commission of each of these offenses requires a suitable target, the absence of capable guardians, and the convergence in time and space of the offender and victim.

In 1981 Cohen, Kluegel, and Land proposed a formalized theory of risk to predatory criminal victimization which identifies exposure, proximity, guardianship, attractiveness, and the definitional properties of the specific crimes, as the key theoretical components. Risk to victimization is attributed to routine activities and lifestyles bringing persons and/or their property into close proximity to offenders, in the absence of capable guardians, who view these targets (persons and/or property) as attractive (or suitable) enough to victimize. The definitional properties of the specific crimes are stated to be "the features of specific crimes that act to constrain strictly instrumental actions by potential offenders" (:508). Pertaining to these five risk factors, Cohen, Kluegel, and Land (1981:508-509) offer these five assumptions:

1. "Exposure. All else equal, an increase in exposure leads to an increase in victimization risk.
2. Guardianship. All else equal, offenders prefer targets that are less well-guarded to those that are more well-guarded. Therefore, the greater the guardianship, the less the risk of criminal victimization.
3. Proximity. All else equal, the closer the residential proximity of potential targets to relatively large populations of motivated offenders, the greater the risk of criminal victimization.
4. Attractiveness. All else equal, if a crime is motivated by instrumental ends, the greater the attractiveness of a target, the greater the risk of victimization.

5. Properties of Crimes. The strength of the partial effects of exposure, guardianship, and proximity on victimization risk depends upon the degree to which properties of crimes themselves constrain strictly instrumental action. Specifically, the more constrained strictly instrumental action is, the stronger will be the effects of exposure, guardianship, and proximity on victimization risk relative to the effect of target attractiveness."

Cohen, Kluegel, and Land (1981) apply their formalized routine activity theory to a multivariate and bivariate analysis of data obtained from National Crime Surveys in 1974 and 1977 (merged) of 101,576 households reporting victimization by burglary, and 209,529 households reporting victimization by either larceny or assault. This analysis seeks to explain categories of predatory criminal victimization by race, age, and income. The bivariate analysis fails to reveal direct effects of race upon either larceny, assault, or burglary, but reveals age as being inversely related to larceny, assault, and burglary. Income was found to be related directly to larceny, parabolically to burglary, and inversely to assault. The multivariate analysis reveals that predatory victimization is influenced by the partial effects of proximity, exposure, and guardianship. Specifically, the likelihood of victimization is greater for single persons than for married persons, greater for unemployed persons than for employed persons, greater for persons living in low income areas, and greater for persons living closest to the city centre.

Miethe, Stafford, and Long's (1987) critique of previous attempts to test routine activity and lifestyle theories states that key concepts are not adequately operationalized. This inadequacy is said to persist because previous empirical inquiries accept that risk to victimization increases as time away from home increases because a potential target remains a potential target for a longer period of time, but fail to adequately consider activities outside of the home which increase guardianship and reduce target suitability. Adjustments should be made "for persons 'exposure to risk' by considering the nature and temporal patterning of these activities" (:185). Secondly, while routine activities and lifestyles are "recurrent and prevalent activities (especially formalized work, provision of food and shelter, and leisure activities) which provide for basic population and individual needs" (Cohen and Felson, 1979:593). Miethe, Stafford, and Long maintain that previous research has largely explored demographic correlates while ignoring non-household activities outside of the home. Miethe, Stafford, and Long identify a need for separate measures of lifestyle and for non-household activities to determine whether or not the potential for victimization is attributable to lifestyle, physical proximity to neighborhoods considered to be "high risk," or to some combination of factors. And thirdly, Miethe, Stafford, and Long (1987) perceive a need to "address whether variation in routine activities/lifestyles can mediate and explain the level of social differentiation in the likelihood of criminal victimization" (:185).

In 1987 Lynch applied the routine activity and lifestyle theory to workplace victimizations to determine if work activities are associated

with victimization risk when other factors are controlled. Lynch states that workplace victimization is a "relatively unexplored problem" (:283). Lynch's exploration of data collected in 1983 through the National Crime Survey: Victim Research Supplement determines that approximately 28% of victimizations occur at work. Lynch applies the routine activity and lifestyle theory to this data, only to discover that sociodemographic characteristics are not the best predictor of workplace victimization. Instead, it is activity at work which best predicts workplace victimization, and that "... the specific attributes of activities pursued at work - exposure, guardianship, attractiveness - were all related to victimizations in ways predicted by activity theory" (:294).

Lynch discovers that workplace victimization can be predicted by these work activity variables: accessibility to the public, proximity to offenders, age, mobility on the job, and the handling of money while on the job. In addition, the interactive effects of accessibility, mobility, and money-handling upon the risk to victimization are far greater than was predicted. Reviewing Lynch's findings, Collins, Cox, and Langan (1987:348) observe that Lynch demonstrates that "... it is not being away from home but rather aspects of particular jobs that elevate victimization risk." Lynch adds that the identification of activity as being more influential than victim demographic characteristics in predicting victimization underscores the importance of utilizing domain-specific models in the analysis of victimization.

In 1987 Collins, Cox, and Langan explore the hypothesis that risk to criminal victimization can be elevated by particular job activities.

These scholars concede that Lynch's (1987) failure to analyze violent victimizations independently from property victimizations negates a direct comparison of their research findings with Lynch's, but maintain that a contrast of their victimization findings pertaining to "crimes at work" may be appropriately contrasted with Lynch's research.

Collins, Cox, and Langan employ two weighted logistical regression models based upon maximum likelihood estimation to enter seven demographic characteristics and four job activity characteristics ("delivering passengers or goods, traveling out of town, dealing face-to-face with customers, and working irregular hours" (:345)) against two dichotomous variables: theft-damage victimization, and violent victimization. This analysis indicates that the only job activity variable which does not elevate the risk of violent victimization is irregular work hours, and, that the only variable which elevates the risk of theft-damage victimization is persons travelling in connection with their work. Collins, Cox, and Langan then set out to determine whether or not the four job activities performed are actually associated with victimization at work. To answer this question, a second analysis of a similar nature is undertaken with the two dichotomous variables specified as : theft-damage victimization at work, and violent victimization at work.

In summation, Collins, Cox, and Langan state that only "dealing with the public" and the "delivery of passengers or goods" are robustly associated with violent victimization. "None of the four job activities were consistently associated with theft-damage victimization risk. Additionally, when victimization variables are specified to include only

those happening at work, the relationship of demographic factors to victimization is eliminated" (:355-356).

Bennett's (1991) summary of the current state of routine activity research states that most analyses are based upon data collected from within "a single nation," employ only "unidimensional indicators" (:147), and, that "... most models are intended to explain the relationships between routine activities/lifestyles and victimization risk, and not among structural conditions, routine activities, and risk" (:159). Bennett adds that routine activity inquiries have given rise primarily to two models.

> Each model views crime or the risk of victimization as a process whereby social structural change causes a change in the nature and frequency of routine activities and, subsequently, in the levels of risk. However, while one model assumes a specific social structure (ie. proportion of single-person households, percent of women in the workforce, and amount of leisure time) and then empirically investigates the effect of routine activities on risk ... the other model investigates the empirical relationship between social structure and risk while assuming the intervening routine activities (i.e., not measuring or testing them within the model) .... (Bennett, 1991:147-148).

Bennett's (1991) application of the routine activity theory to data collected from 52 nations for the 25 years between 1960-1984 produces a model which better fits property crimes than violent crimes, and specifies a best-fitting model that is non-linear and harbours threshold effects. The threshold effects indicate that the explanatory power of a model may vary across different social structures. As an example of this Bennett points out that while routine activity theory holds that as the proximity to offenders is reduced, the likelihood of victimization increases. However, in Bennett's analysis this proposition is found to be true only for nations that do not exceed 25% urbanized.

2.3.1.2 The Dangerous Nature Of Corrections-Oriented Work

The intent of this section is not to establish how many, or to what degree, offenders are dangerous (ie. violent). Instead, this section establishes that occupations requiring work-related contact with offenders are dangerous, and therefore, harbour at least a minimal potential for the occurrence of worker victimization. This point of view is established through a review of literature pertaining to a variety of occupations[3] involved in corrections-oriented work, including for example, prison guard and probation officer.

Between July 1974 and October 1975 a questionnaire was administered by Jacobs (1978) to 929 prison guard trainees at the Illinois Correctional Training Academy. In anticipation of their future positions as correctional guards, the survey respondents rate danger (49.0%) as the greatest disadvantage of prison guard work. Table 2.1 depicts the aspects of work that these prison guard trainees identify as being the greatest disadvantages of guard work (in Jacobs 1978:190).

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[3] The sample population of this study is restricted to volunteers who work at closed-custody facilities and at probation offices, and so the discussion pertaining to the likelihood of workplace victimization is restricted primarily to occupations involved directly with work of this nature. It should be noted however that a fear of victimization is cited as a problem for other occupations as well; for example: health worker (Breakwell, 1989), teacher (Williams, Winfree, and Clinton, 1989), residential worker (Fry, 1986), social worker (Breakwell, 1989; Tonkin, 1986; and Scwartz, 1985), police and security guards (Kraus, 1987), supervisors and managers in sales and taxi drivers (Davis, 1987).

TABLE 2.1

Disadvantages Of Guard Work In 1978*

Danger	49.0%
Superior officers	32.1
Hours	27.2
The inmates	20.0
Money	15.7
Understaffing	4.4
Other officers	4.2
No disadvantages	3.3

N = 750
* Multiple Responses Permitted

Jacobs (1978) asks the guard trainees to indicate the degree of danger that they perceive to be present in guard work on a 7 point interval scale; with a 1 indicating "extremely dangerous", and a 7 indicating "not at all dangerous". Responses to this question reveal a mean score just under 3. In addition, 29% of the guards replied with a 1, thereby indicating their belief that guard work is "extremely dangerous."

In 1979 survey questionnaires mailed to 560 persons working in human service occupations asked the intended recipients to indicate the number of times, in the preceding three years, that they had suffered a personal (violent), property, or verbal (abuse) victimization at their workplace. From the 338 persons who responded to this questionnaire, Brown, Bute, and Ford's (1986) analysis of the data identifies 98 (29%) persons as victims of assault, with 62 of these persons having been assaulted more than once. In addition, 134 (40%) respondents report

being subjected to threats, with 102 of these persons having been threatened on more than one occasion.

Through data set subsetting, Brown, Bute, and Ford isolate a subset of occupations comprised almost entirely of social workers and probation officers. They term this subset "fieldworkers" and identify the "common precipitating factors" leading to the victimization of these "fieldworkers" as being the themes of "deprivation of personal liberty" and "social control" (:05). They note that workers engaged in work requiring them to limit personal freedom or to exercise social control influence over other persons increases the worker's risk to victimization. Among their proposed methods for reducing worker risk to victimization, Brown, Bute, and Ford suggest that workers should maintain a physical distance from potential victimizers, and that worker's could be made to feel more secure from victimization "for example, by the proximity of a 'stand-by' person, by pre-arranged interruptions, or by the use of verbal telephone 'codes' requesting assistance, as well as by conventional alarm systems" (:73-74).

In 1981 Lombardo conducted an inquiry at the Auburn Correctional Facility which determines that correctional worker motivation to request a particular work assignment includes "... a need to remove themselves from danger or conflict. Having experienced frustration and conflict in encounters with inmates, the prison administration and supervisors, some officers bid on jobs and shifts that effectively take them out of the action" (:46). As a consequence of Lombardo's (1981) work, sources of prison guard's dissatisfaction with their work are identified. Table 2.2 depicts that the dangerousness of the work, coupled with mental strain,

factor prominently in the production of job dissatisfaction (in Lombardo, 1981:114).

TABLE 2.2

Sources Of Job Dissatisfaction In Corrections Officers In 1981

Job Dissatisfaction Theme	Number Of Officers Mentioning: Worst Thing About Job	Biggest Problem	Most Difficult	Percent Mentioning(a) n=50
Inmate Related				
Physical danger and mental strain	17	1	11	50
Trying to treat inmates fairly	2	4	6	22
Treatment by inmates	7	9	3	28
Powerlessness				
Lack of responsibility and/or decision-making power	3	6	4	18
Lack of support from administration, supervisors, officers	6	15	10	54
Lack of opportunities for input	3	2	2	12
Inconsistencies And Communication				
Overall policies	4	8	4	28
Rules and regulations	3	3	4	20
Supervision	-	4	1	10
Work Schedules	6	-	2	14
Nothing	-	4	4	-
Others	9	3	2	-

(a) The percentage of the total sample referring to the job dissatisfaction theme at least once.

Lombardo's inquiry also reveals that prison guard perceptions that their workplace is dangerous is founded more in the unpredictability of prison violence, than in the predictability of prison violence. Predictable violence is expected, and frequently occurs between inmates who wish to "save face" or who wish to create or maintain a reputation. The consequences of unpredictable prison violence are telling only in its' aftermath. Jacobs and Retsky (1975) illustrate that a correctional officers most feared manifestation of unpredictable prison violence are the consequences of the full-scale prison riot:

> The cell house is the most dangerous place for the guard. Inside the cell house of a mega-prison guards are clearly at the mercy of the inmates. In case of emergency there is no fast exit. At any time the guard knows that he [or she] could be seized and held hostage. Not only might an unpopular cell house guard be treated roughly during a riot, he [or she] might at any time be assaulted, thrown off a gallery, or pelted with objects thrown off the upper tiers (Jacobs and Retsky, 1975:16).

In addition to violence of a physical nature, violence of a verbal nature is not uncommon in custodial settings. As Toch (1977:62) points out, "[t]oday's prison populations - particularly of young offenders - have generated norms that confer status on men who make vocal attacks on staff or refuse to obey staff orders." Interviews with some of Winnipeg's corrections volunteers and probation officers reveals that in the course of performing corrections work, it is not uncommon to be frequently subjected to verbal abuse (including threats and profanity) by offenders. Some probation officers even report being subjected to disturbing and threatening phone calls at work, and also at their personal residence.

In 1984 Block, Felson, and Block's analysis of 246 occupations from U.S. census data obtained for the period 1972 to 1981 identifies sheriffs and police as the occupations having the highest risk to assault while at work. Table 2.3 presents the portion of the Block, Felson, and Block (1984:445) analysis which pertains to workers occupying jobs which relate directly to the management of offenders, and a breakdown of the various victimizations that these workers have incurred in the course of their work.

TABLE 2.3

Crime Victimization Risk Per 1,000 Employees For 246 Occupations, The United States, 1972-81

Census Code	Name	Robbery	Assault	Burglary	Larceny	Auto Theft
031	Lawyers	5	24	49	203	14
100	Social workers	8	92	95	316	21
962	Guards and watchmen	20	120	84	234	18
964	Policemen and detectives	12	322	43	195	17
965	Sheriffs and bailiffs	6	346	34	184	5

A recent inquiry conducted by Davis (1987) into deaths occuring in Texas between 1975 to 1984 establishes work directly relating to the management of offenders as potentially worker-lethal. From an examination of death certificates for the stated period, with students and military personnel omited from the sample, Davis discovers 779

civilian males who are victims of workplace homicide, and an overall workplace homicide rate for males to be 2.1/100,000 workers per year. From Table 2.4 offered below (in Davis, 1987:1291), if we were to collapse those occupations relating directly to the management of offenders (ie. sheriffs, bailiffs, police, other law enforcement officers, and detectives) into a single category, this single category would be comprised of occupations that require persons to work on an interpersonal level with offenders; that is, by occupations that harbour a potential for worker victimization.

TABLE 2.4

Workplace Homicide Rates For The Occupations With Above-Average Risk, In Texas, 1975-84

Occupation*	# Of Workplace Homicides	1980 Texas Population At Risk	Workplace Homicide Rate/ 100,000/Year
Sheriffs, bailiffs, and other law enforcement	14	3,153	44.4
Taxicab drivers and chauffeurs	30	8,124	36.9
Police and detectives, public service	55	21,430	25.7
Supervisors and proprietors, sales	144	90,618	15.9
Garage and service station related	20	17,561	11.4
Guards and police, not public service	27	24,607	11.0
Stock handlers and baggers	40	36,522	11.0
Construction laborers	31	60,247	5.1
Managers and administrators	87	232,420	3.7
All occupations	779	3,705,550	2.1

* Only occupations with 10 or more deaths are included. Occupation was not codable for 26 cases.

Kraus' (1987) examination of 466 California workplace homicides occuring between 1979 to 1981 reveals a workplace homicide rate of 1.5 per 100,000 workers, and a male to female workplace homicide ratio of 4.2:1. At a national level, Kraus reports that the U.S. Bureau Of Labor Statistics investigation of 6,840 workplace fatalities occuring between 1983 to 1984 discovers 4% of these fatalities to have occured as a result of an assault. Kraus suggests that "[c]ontrolling exposures of high risk individuals and developing strict standards for reducing such exposures might greatly reduce assaults and thus prevent senseless loss of life in the workplace" (:1285).

Braswell and Miller (1989) observe that few studies exist which examine the perceptions that correctional workers harbour towards the seriousness of violence within prisons, and suggest that this deficiency may be attributable, at least in part, to the public perception that "street" violence is worse crime than prison violence. Braswell and Miller's examination of correctional workers perceptions about prison violence establishes support for the hypothesis that inmate violence against correctional workers is viewed by corrections workers as being more serious than violence against inmates by other inmates. The workers responding to Braswell and Miller's inquiry indicate that they believe that little can be done to prevent the occurrence of inmate violence. This finding should not surprise us if we recall that incarcerated offenders are subject to the immediate and intense effects of "prisonization" which results in "the taking on, in greater or lesser degree, of the folkways, mores, customs and general culture of [the offender population in] the penitentiary" as a means by which to rebel against the establishment (Clemmer, 1940). In addition to this,

> Many inmates in the institutions come from cultural backgrounds where norms of exploitation, toughness, and aggression prevailed. Often their institutionalization was a cumulative result of these focal concerns, and acting in accordance with these norms placed them in conflict with societal interests. Institutionalization in custodial violence-based settings may actually reinforce these negative values rather than modify them. Failure to confront inmate violence may actually amplify the success of tough and exploitive behaviour and lead to further maladjustment when inmates are released into the community (Feld, 1977:198).

In 1991 Shields and Simourd conducted an analysis of incarcerated young offenders to determine the characteristics which differentiate predatory offenders from non-predatory offenders. In this research, predatory offenders are defined as those persons who violate "certain types of institutional rules" (:189), and predatory behaviour is said to result from "an interaction between the individual and the environment" (:190).

To collect measures of young offender attitudes, Shields and Simourd apply the Level Of Supervision Inventory. This instrument assumes that criminal behaviour is learned from the interaction between the person and environment. Shields and Simourd discover that those persons most likely to engage in predatory victimizations are persons who are also more likely to have extensive criminal histories, criminal sentiments, more substance abuse, and more problems pertaining to peers, family, education, and employment. The consequences of predatory behaviour by incarcerated youth results in:

> Predatory inmates chronically seek[ing] exploitive relationships with their incarcerated peers. By means of violence or threats of violence, they may force their prey to provide them with sexual favors, to attack their enemies, to do their chores, or to hold their contraband. They may run 'protection rackets,' demanding payment from their 'clients' for not assaulting them. The violence which is inherent in predatory relationships poses a threat to the safety of the

nonpredatory population and renders a correctional facility more difficult to manage (Shields and Simourd, 1991:180-181).

2.3.1.3 Proximity To Offenders

The basic tenets of the lifestyle and routine activity theory require the convergence in time and space of an offender and a potential target (person or property), the offender perceiving the target as suitable to victimize, and the offender being motivated towards victimizing the target (Hindelang, Gottfredson, and Garofalo, 1978; Cohen and Felson, 1979; and Cohen, Kluegel, and Land, 1981).

Proximity to offenders is defined as the "physical distance between areas where potential targets of crime reside and areas where relatively large populations of potential offenders are found" (Cohen, Kluegel, and Land, 1981:507). Lynch's (1987) analysis of workplace victimization discovers proximity to offenders to be one of the strongest predictors of risk to victimization and changes in crime rates, and Hassinger's (1985:294) analysis of fear of crime in urban public environments offers additional support from respondents who identify "'many hiding places for criminals'" as the most important determinant to developing the perception that a particular geographic locale is unsafe.

Skogan and Maxfield (1981) point out that a fear of victimization does not necessarily require actual victimization as an antecedent; a view shared by Cullen, Link, Wolfe, and Frank (1985) whose analysis of a population of correctional officers determined the dangerousness of the work related statistically to job dissatisfaction, work stress, and to life stress, even though 87% of the respondents had never incurred a

workplace victimization. From an analysis of attitudes expressed by inhabitants of residential communities, evidence emerges to attest that "... many more people are fearful than have had any recent experience with crime. Moreover, many of the most fearful fall into social categories that enjoy the lowest rates of victimization" (Skogan and Maxfield, 1981:14). In fact, persons may feel more vulnerable to victimization "... due to their size, strength, and capacity to resist predations. Others are vulnerable because generally they live in close proximity to offenders" (Skogan and Maxfield, 1981:14).

The business of correctional work requires workers to establish and maintain an interpersonal working relationship with offenders. This work-related requirement places offenders and correctional workers in close proximity, and as the physical distance between the two reduces, the potential for victimization increases. The potential for victimization can be mediated through guardianship.

2.3.1.4 Guardianship

Guardianship is achieved by persons who employ skills, protective tools, or weapons (Cohen and Felson, 1979:591) to deter victimization. Lynch (1987:287) identifies alarms, professional guards, and anyone else interested in detering victimization as guardians. Cohen, Kluegel, and Land (1981:508) add that the role of guardianship is performed by objects or persons either directly, or indirectly, and cite the following as potential guardians: neighbors, pedestrians, private security guards, housewives, law enforcement officers, barred windows, burglar alarms, and locks.

Unlike residential inhabitants who perceive themselves to be persons of high physical vulnerability to crime, and who have the power to limit their risk to victimization by reducing contact with strangers, by staying away from areas perceived as dangerous, or by purchasing a gun (Skogan and Maxfield, 1981), the correctional worker's response to threatening workplace situations is limited by the size and strength of the worker which provides the worker with the initial capacity to resist client predations. In situations where the worker has the alternative of flight, and not just fight, the viability of this response choice is limited by the geography of the work environment.

In the case of the probation office, a single office doorway may be the only avenue to potential safety. In the case of the penitentiary, flight from one offender may lead to an encounter with a second offender; in both settings, the pathway to safety may be obstructed by an offender who seeks to victimize. While correctional facilities provide increased opportunities for interactions with greater numbers of offenders, by comparison, workers in probation offices may be no more secure from victimization than are workers in closed-custody facilities. Probation offices employ fewer guardians (workers), do not house weapons (guns) in ready reserve, do not possess a capacity to place offenders in closed-custody confinement, and on this basis are therefore less capable of resisting client predations. In both work environments the capacity to offer initial resistance against the predations of clients whose intent it is to victimize is dependent upon the size and strength of the worker and offender, and the speed at which guardians offer additional resistance.

2.3.1.5 Target Suitability And Motivation To Offend

For correctional work to take place, offenders and correctional workers must converge in time and place. This convergence facilitates the identification and subsequent victimization of suitable targets, and consequently has the potential to elevate worker concerns about risk to victimization. Cohen and Felson (1979:591) identify access, value, inertia, and physical vulnerability as the key components of target suitability. If a potential target is perceived by a potential offender as physically accessible, physically vulnerable, capable of providing some degree of value, and if the inertia (ie. size, weight, capacity to physically resist) of the target does not negate its potential for victimization, then the target may be considered suitable to victimize.

In corrections work, all workers are potential victimization targets, and all offenders are potential perpetrators of worker victimization. Offenders are able to realize victimization opportunities in the course of their interactions with corrections workers. Even the most confined offenders, such as those housed in solitary confinement, are able to realize an opportunity to victimize corrections workers verbally and/or physically because there exists a requirement on the part of the corrections staff to locate, transport, lockup, and release prisoners at such locations. Other offenders are able to realize physical, verbal, or property victimization opportunities in the course of their movement between locations within the institution, such as at their institutional work stations, and at the ranges and cells, for example.

In probation offices, the probation worker facilitates opportunities for physical or verbal victimization by permitting work-related interactions with offenders behind a closed office door. When the probation worker is absent from the office, guardianship is reduced, and correspondingly, the opportunity for property victimization increases.

The desire to victimize, as proposed by Cohen and Felson (1979), imparts that offenders engage in some sort of a rational selection process which gives consideration to guardianship, inertia, target suitability, and value. And yet in some applications of routine activity theory, it is simply assumed that criminals are inclined towards criminal activity (Felson and Cohen, 1980:390; Gottfredson, 1981:725; and Massey and McKean, 1985:419); an assumption which is befriended to some degree by recidivism statistics which indicate that 8 out of every 10 offenders (80%) will be inclined towards criminal activity for a second time (Friendenberg, 1980). The focus of the present study is not to explicate the motivation leading to a desire to victimize, but instead, the focus is with whether or not correctional workers perceive themselves as being at risk to workplace victimization.

Cohen, Kluegel, and Land's (1981:509) "Principle Of Homogamy" maintains that "... the degree that persons share sociodemographic characteristics with potential offenders they are more likely to interact socially with such potential offenders, thus increasing the risk factor of exposure." In corrections work, exposure to offenders is a job requirement. Cohen, Kluegel, and Land add that this sharing of sociodemographic characteristics permits potential offenders to become

better acquainted with the activity patterns of potential targets, which in turn helps the offender to decide whether or not to victimize.

The "Principle Of Homogamy" suggests that as the frequency and/or duration of contact between a worker and a potential victimizer increases, the potential for workplace victimization is also increased. Conversely then, a reduction in the frequency and/or duration of offender/worker contact should result in a reduced potential for worker victimization; a situation which is not ideal in correctional settings because "[i]nmate alienation from staff reduces staff knowledge about the workings of the inmate subculture and precludes ... effective control on inmate deviance and violence" (Feld, 1977:200). Correctional bureaucratic (custodial and rehabilitative) ideology requires that interpersonal working relationships between workers and offenders be established and maintained. In essence then, the worker is constrained by a bureaucracy that requires that workers be placed in working relationships which potentially compromise worker safety.

Through the "Principle Of Dependence Of Guardianship On Inequality Dimensions" Cohen, Kluegel, and Land (1980, in Cohen, Kluegel, and Land, 1981:510) suggest that "... the degree that a person's lifestyle places her/him and related others (through primary group ties) in routine contact with a potential target (property or person), that person and the related others will provide stronger guardianship for the target."

In correctional work, the "Principle Of Dependence Of Guardianship On Inequality Dimensions" is mediated by staffing (or budgetary) constraints which can reduce the number of guardians within a given

area, and also, by a worker's capacity to resist offender predations which is determined by the size and strength of the worker, and the speed at which guardians offer additional resistance.

2.3.1.6 Demographic Correlates And Fear Of Victimization

> Age, sex, race, and income are among the most consistent correlates of all measures of fear of crime, reflecting (we argue), the underlying measures of physical and social vulnerability to crime. In rough order of the strength of those correlations, females are more fearful than males, older persons are more fearful than young people, blacks are more fearful then whites, and poor people are more fearful than the well-to-do. Further, these effects are generally linear and additive: fear 'accumulates' claiming successively vulnerable groups, but not without significant interaction effects. Thus, simple multiple regression can adequately capture their independent significance and cumulative importance as predictors of fear of crime (Skogan and Maxfield, 1981:74).

2.3.2 Workplace Job Satisfaction Correlates

The nature of the workplace is reflected in the interactions that take place between employees and their peers, subordinates, and with persons in authority as the workplace shapes, fulfills, and denies employee needs. In the course of the employee struggle to achieve personal and workplace objectives, factors in the workplace which influence a worker's satisfaction with the job become apparent. Barber's (1986:26-27) review of the literature identifies twelve factors as the factors most frequently identified by researchers as job satisfaction correlates:

1. The work itself - refering to the attribute(s) which make the work pleasurable; for example: task complexity.

2. Achievement - refering to the sense of achievement that is derived from tasks which the worker finds challenging.
3. Responsibility - closely related to achievement.
4. Recognition - refering to the satisfaction that workers derive from having their effort to complete tasks recognized.
5. Advancement - refering to the opportunity to ascend to higher levels of pay and responsibility from recognition of job performance.
6. Pay - refering to the economic value that the employer attributes to the work performed by the worker.
7. Job security - refering to security from termination of employment or being reduced to part-time work.
8. Good working conditions - can refer to physical conditions, for example.
9. Supervisor - refering primarily to technical supervision or to the manner in which the supervisor interacts with the workers (ie. friendliness).
10. Co-workers - refering to group cohesiveness which is achieved from such things as similar philosophy and similar attitudes, for example.
11. Company - refering to the company's nature, and includes such things as policy, role conflict, and role ambiguity, for example.

Correlates of job satisfaction operationalized through the research instrument of the present study include: job stress, role conflict, role ambiguity, workload, supervisor, decision-making, and orientation and training. After these aspects of work are considered, the discussion shifts to consider factors pertinent to satisfaction in volunteer work.

2.3.2.1 Job Stress

As a health concern, unchecked levels of stress are linked to a variety of problems, including: cancer, liver and gall bladder disease, heart disease, digestive disease, intestinal disease, rheumatic disease, diabetes, and nervous and mental disorders (Tracy, 1965). As a financial concern, stress-related illness results in organizations losing billions of dollars annually (Matteson, and Ivancevich, 1982 and 1987). Although there exists a wealth of research which explores the relationship between stress and health, the accumulation of this data has largely ignored the workplace (Schwartz, 1980).

Job stress is a necessary prerequisite to the development of job burnout[6], and job burnout is a consequence of too much job stress. However, as volunteers are accorded the luxury of casual work hours, and as interpersonal contact with the correctional environment and its clientele is less frequent for volunteers than it is for paid personnel, the present study does not expect volunteers to be burned-out. Instead, it is thought more likely that volunteers may be stressed-out.

Accompanying the evolution of research into job stress is a lack of consensus about operational definitions[7] of what constitutes job stress (Newton, 1989; and Dewe, 1989), and of the quantification of stress (Veneziano, 1984; Turner, 1987). Dewe (1989) observes that conceptual definitions of job stress have a long-standing tradition of being oriented towards stimulus-response to the stress producing process, but are evolving towards greater consideration of the person-environment fit. The interactive view of the person-environment

fit holds that the production of stress is not attributable solely to an individuals social or physical environment. Instead, stress is a "... combination of the particular situation and an individual, with his [or her] specific personality, behavioral pattern, and life situation circumstances, that result in a stress producing imbalance" (McMichael, 1978:128).

While a consensus about defining and quantifying stress is lacking, there is widespread agreement about the physiological and psychological effects of stress upon individuals. Stress is capable of producing altered states in the chemical balance of the body, elevated levels of anxiety, permanent disability, and even death (McLean, 1979). In the correctional workplace, stress in correctional workers emerges from a variety of sources, including: a belief that a guard could be attacked at any moment, the implication being that the job is very unsafe (Jacobs and Grear, 1977); an unruly inmate population (Dahl, 1980); a lack of control over the work environment (Lombardo, 1981); a lack of influence in the decision-making process governing organizational objectives (Fox, 1982); interpersonal conflicts with the supervisor and with the inmates (Veneziano, 1984); and a lack of support from the supervisor (Cullen, Link, Wolfe, and Frank, 1985). Clearly, the negative effects of job stress in correctional work is established:

> It is commonly accepted that a correctional institution is one of the most stressful environments created by society. It is also commonly accepted that the effects of stress are not confined to inmates but also impact upon the employees who work within the institution ... In short, professions which include inordinate amounts of stress as part of the job environment result in the dehabilitation of many individuals working within the profession. This employee stress also causes severe unrest in the inmate population (Dahl, 1980:207-208).

In correctional workers[8], the production of stress (which may lead to burnout) is promoted not only by factors such as those reviewed above, but also from factors that are intrinsic to the discipline. In studying probation officers for example, Bartollas (1981) discovers that factors such as inadequate community resources, little training, and large caseloads can cause frustration leading to disillusionment; and Thomson and Fogel (1980) find that burnout can result from high caseloads, and from paperwork being overemphasized. The intrinsic nature of correctional work to produce burnout in some workers is not suggestive that burnout is unique to correctional work, rather, that correctional work predisposes its' workers to factors which may produce burnout because its' workers:

> ... are intimately involved with the psychological, social and/or physical problems of troubled human beings. This close, continuous contact with clients involves a chronic level of emotional stress, and it is the inability to cope successfully with this stress that is manifested in the emotional exhaustion and cynicism of burnout (Maslach and Jackson, 1978 in Whitehead, 1983:17).

In 1983 Cheek and Miller investigated 143 New Jersey correctional officers to determine the factors which produce job stress. These officers identify "officer-inmate interaction" (:105) as the situation producing the greatest job stress, and attribute this situation as being the most stress producing because the prison bureaucracy limits their power to enforce rules, and yet appears to require them to project a macho image to ensure order maintainance. High levels of role conflict have been found to result in corrections workers (guards) projecting negative and even hostile attitudes towards the prison and its' inmates (Shamir and Drory, 1981:247). Table 2.5 summarizes the aspects of

correctional work that Cheek and Miller (1983:115) identify as producing the highest levels of job stress.

TABLE 2.5

Most Stressful Aspects Of Working In Corrections In 1983*

1. Lack of clear guidelines for job performance
2. Facility policies not being clearly communicated to all staff members of the facility
3. Crisis situations
4. Getting conflicting orders from your supervisors
5. Having to do this against your better judgement
6. Having your supervisor give you things to do that conflict with other things that you have to do
7. Not being treated as a professional
8. Low morale of other officers
9. Other personnel putting things off
10. Lack of training
11. Officers in the department not being quickly informed about policy changes
12. Criticism from supervisors in front of inmates
13. Poor physical conditions and equipment
14. Having too little authority to carry out the responsibilities assigned to you
15. Your immediate supervisor not keeping you well informed
16. Not having pretty good sharing of information among the officers on all three shifts
17. Not receiving adequate pay
18. Not having a chance to develop new talents
19. Having feelings of pressure from having to please too many bosses
20. Lack of training in riot control and the use of firearms
21. Lack of opportunity to participate in decision making

*In descending order of stressfulness.

2.3.2.2 Role Conflict

Role conflict may be defined as "the simultaneous occurrence of two or more sets of inconsistent expected role behaviours for an individual" (Schwab and Iwanicki, 1982:62), or as "the extent to which a person experiences pressures within one role that are incompatible with the pressures that arise within another role" (Kopelman, Greenhaus, and Connolly, 1983). Role conflict is said to arise when task allocation does not include an appropriate regard for minimizing role conflict and ambiguity through proper management of work overload or underload, bureaucratic constraints, workers receiving conflicting managerial direction, and workers being required to perform tasks that the worker views as contravening "... the role-player's motives, abilities, or moral values" (Cherniss, 1980b).

2.3.2.3 Role Ambiguity

Role ambiguity may be defined as "the lack of clear, consistent information regarding rights, duties and responsibilities of a person's occupation and how they best can be performed" (Schwab and Iwanicki, 1982:62). Role ambiguity is said to arise when a worker is not provided with the information required to perform the work role adequately; that is, when the organization fails to communicate concrete organizational objectives to a worker, when an organization fails to provide a worker with clear directives, and when feedback about client progress is lacking (Cherniss, 1980b). Kahn et.al. (1964 in Cherniss, 1980b:91) identifies these six sources of role ambiguity as potential contributors to the production of job stress: specifically, a lack of:

1. "Information concerning the scope and responsibilities of a job;
2. Information about co-worker's expectations;
3. Information required to perform the job adequately;
4. Information about opportunities for advancement;
5. Information about supervisor's evaluations;
6. Information about what is happening in the organization."

An organization's role structure can deprive the worker of feeling that the work tasks are stimulating and meaningful. If the role structure is such that the worker's tasks lack variety, or if the tasks are so highly specialized that the worker cannot see the results of the tasks performed, or if there is a lack of worker opportunities for learning, or if there is a lack of feedback about client progress, or if there is a lack of supervisory feedback about worker performance, then it is Cherniss' view that the role structure contributes towards the production of stress (which can lead to burnout).

2.3.2.4 Workload

In addition to such factors as role ambiguity, role conflict, a lack of involvement in decision-making, and other factors such as boredom, work-overload, and understimulation, work-underload is also found to be capable of producing "excessive and prolonged levels of job stress" (emotional overload) which can lead to workers becoming detached, "apathetic, cynical, and rigid" (Cherniss, 1980b).

> ... this condition of 'underload' may contribute to burnout as often as does 'overload.' Recent work on burnout (for example, Maslach, 1976) has tended to neglect the contribution of boredom to burnout in the human services. However, research and theory concerning psychological stress, as well as the experience on many who work in the field, suggest that lack of

> challenge, under utilization of abilities and skills, and a paucity of intellectual stimulation are potentially important causes of burnout in mental health and related fields. Thus, in searching for causes of burnout in a work situation, one should look for factors that limit stimulation and challenge as well as those that produce overload (Cherniss, 1980b:45).

2.3.2.5 Job Supervisor

Cherniss (1980b) concludes that the best job supervisor is one that is able to provide the worker with the appropriate amount of supervision and direction without depriving the worker from having a sense of autonomy and control. This need for worker autonomy and control must be mediated by the supervisor who must provide to the worker the appropriate amount of constructive, tactful, and timely feedback pertaining to task performance.

> In attempting to communicate criticisms to a subordinate the superior usually finds that the effectiveness of the communication is inversely related to the subordinate's need to hear it. The more serious the criticism, the less likely is the subordinate to accept it. If the superior is insistent enough, he [or she] may be able to convey his [or her] negative judgements to a subordinate, but when this happens the supervisor often finds that [he or she] has done serious damage to the relationship between them (MacGregor, 1960:84).

The job supervisor is able to reduce worker stress by communicating to the worker a sense of caring about the workers interests, and by acting as a buffer between the worker and upper-level management.

> Unfortunately, most human service work, compared with other types of work, offers little feedback of any kind. Even with the current emphasis upon accountability and program evaluation in the human services, there still is little in the way of ongoing evaluation that provides frequent relevant feedback to the practitioner. So often the helper must work in the dark, not knowing how much his or her efforts are succeeding (Cherniss, 1980b:52).

The flow of communication between the worker and supervisor should not flow exclusively in a dominate to subordinate direction. While there is onus upon the job supervisor to effectively communicate the organizational ideology, goals, and values to the workers, the job supervisor must also effectively communicate the needs and concerns of the workers to upper-management. This is the crux of appropriate policy formulation, and if fails to function appropriately, then it also serves as an impediment to the formulation of policy.

> ... one of the major problems has been the relative isolation of the front-line staff from the formulation and elaboration of policy at the upper organizational levels and the attempts by management to implement unilaterally newer policies without interacting with front-line personnel in any significant way (Duffee, 1980:238).

2.3.2.6 Decision-making

The process of decision-making is another organizational activity about which the job supervisor must be concerned. The degree to which a job supervisor involves workers in decision-making is directly related to the reported level of worker job satisfaction. In six studies reviewed by Yukl (1971) there was evidence present which demonstrated that the worker's level of job satisfaction increased as the worker's freedom in decision-making increased. However, the level of job satisfaction reported may be related to the worker's need for independance. Vroom (1959) found that workers who needed a higher degree of independance reported higher levels of satisfaction when they were accorded higher degrees of involvement in decision-making, and, that the level of job satisfaction reported by workers who needed a lower degree of independance remained unaffected by their level of involvement in decision-making.

2.3.2.7 Orientation And Training

The job supervisor also has the responsibility of training staff. This requires that the job supervisor properly motivate the volunteer staff towards the organizational ideals, towards the other staff, and towards the clients that the organization serves. The training of staff is not necessarily an easy task to complete. Scherier (1978) cautions that:

> There is a flaw here too: the presupposition of a desire to learn on the part of the staff. Staff motivation must precede staff learning; otherwise we are assuming staff support of volunteers is purely a matter of technique to be learned. On the contrary, the problem is purely attitudinal, motivational, and even emotional and this must be dealt with first.

The job supervisor who effectively communicates the organizational ideology to the prospective employee prior to hiring does much to avoid forming a potentially harmful relationship between the organization and worker. For example, if a worker enters into correctional work harbouring a control orientation, and later finds that this control orientation must then be subordinated to a treatment orientation, the worker may feel detached from the goals of the organization. The business of corrections will be easier for the worker to manage in settings where the goals and values of the organization are clearly articulated to the worker. Thus, an adequate orientation to the system is required if a mismatch between worker and organization is to be avoided. However,

> [p]erfect integration of organizational requirements and individual goals and needs is, of course, not a realistic objective. In adopting this principle, we seek that degree of integration in which the individual can achieve his goals best by directing his efforts towards the success of the organization. 'Best' means that this alternative will be more attractive than the many others available to him [or her]:

> indifference, irresponsibility, minimal compliance, hostility, sabotage It means that he [and she] will continuously be encouraged to develop and utilize his [or her] voluntary capacities, his [or her] knowledge, his [or her] skill, his [or her] ingenuity in ways which contribute to the success of the enterprise (MacGregor, 1960:55).

2.3.3 Volunteer Work Correlates

The degree to which a volunteer becomes committed to a particular organization can be predicted from a multiplicity of factors. For example, research indicates that commitment is positively related to: job feedback, job autonomy, achievement motivation, and Protestant Work Ethic (Saal, 1978); task variety (Rabinowitz, Hall and Goodale, 1977); ambition, independance, self control, and accomplishment (Ruh et.al., 1975); and, satisfaction with the orientation process (Pierucci and Noel, 1980). Research also shows that organizational climate is related to the intent to remain with an organization and to the turnover behaviour (Bateman and Strasser, 1984), and, that commitment to an organization is also a predictor of job satisfaction (Hall and Schneider, 1972; Bateman and Strasser, 1984).

Satisfaction with factors such as those identified in the preceding paragraph encourage a volunteer to remain motivated. Dissatisfaction with such factors can lead to a volunteer choosing to discontinue the volunteer commitment. Howell's (1986) study of 940 Calgary-area volunteers identifies 590 respondents who chose to leave their volunteer work at some point in their past. The respondent replies to a 17 item list of "Reasons for Leaving" produces these facts:

1. 33.7% stated that their volunteer work was in "Conflict with personal commitment to self."
2. 22.7% stated that they "Felt that my contribution was not appreciated."
3. 21.5% stated a "Conflict with organization goals."
4. 21.5% stated that they had a "Conflict with others in organization."

The Calgary-area volunteer study also identifies 521 respondents as indicating that they were experiencing on-the-job frustration that was traceable to the type of "organization" (40.3%) that they worked for, and to "other volunteers" (12.7%). However, despite being subjected to sources of frustration, only 3.5% and 0.9% of the total of 940 respondents indicated that they were dissatisfied or very dissatisfied (respectively) with their volunteer service. In addition, the volunteers cite "Nature of the Volunteer Organization" as the category containing the greatest number of causes of their dissatisfaction with their volunteer commitment leading to discontinuing their volunteer service. Included in this category are such things as "lack of training for volunteers," "dealing with bureaucracy," "being under utilized," and dissatisfaction with the "treatment of clients." These dissatisfied volunteers also indicate through the "Other Volunteers" category their dissatisfaction with "lack of knowledge among volunteers" and with "other volunteers [who] do not perform adequately."

Gidron's (1983) study of job satisfaction among human service volunteers discovers evidence to confirm that volunteer satisfaction correlates highly with the need to be given responsibility, and that

volunteer satisfaction is affected positively by a job that is challenging, interesting, permits independance, and makes use of the volunteers knowledge and skills. Gidron's research also indicates that volunteers perceive other volunteers as their friends, and Hadley and Webb (1971) too found interaction between volunteers to be related to volunteer job satisfaction.

Volunteer job satisfaction is also affected by volunteers perceiving their work to be worthwhile (Deegan and Nutt, 1975; Gandy, 1976), that their skills and abilities are being utilized (Hillman, 1967), that their efforts are being recognized (Hillman, 1967), that they are receiving an appropriate amount of help and teaching (Schwartz, 1966), and that they acquire from their volunteer work a sense of achievement (Barber, 1986). However, when a volunteer is subjected to unrealistic expectations, to supervision or training that is inadequate, is not provided with an adequate amount of feedback and rewards, or is required to perform too much (or too difficult) work, the volunteer may experience a loss of motivation and a reduced commitment to the organization and its' goals (Howell, 1986).

Although volunteers generally have the prerogative in deciding the type of work or organization to which they will volunteer their service, this power to choose is not sufficient in and of itself in producing a satisfied volunteer. Once a member of an organization, volunteers can find themselves consumed by a bureaucracy that can diminish their satisfaction with their work and workplace. The bureaucratic requirements of prison work, for example, require the correctional worker to "... provide impersonal stereotyped responses to individual

problems, adhering to strictly formal procedures. Thus, while the officers' 'people work' role involves treating inmates individually, his [or her] official bureaucratic role pulls him [or her] in the opposite direction" (Lombardo, 1981:07).

2.4 SUMMARY

As an extension of other research (Ferrat, 1981; Conway 1985) this study posits job satisfaction to be a linear relationship between identified job facets and a measure of overall job satisfaction. This chapter provides the theoretical framework for an analysis of correctional volunteer job satisfaction by arguing that volunteer job satisfaction can be effected by factors in the workplace which this study subsumes and discusses in two general themes: specifically, workplace danger, and workplace job satisfaction correlates.

2.5 CHAPTER II ENDNOTES

[1] For an evaluation and review of the psychometric properties of the JDS, see Taber and Taylor (1990) "A Review And Evaluation Of The Psychometric Properties Of The Job Diagnostic Survey." Personnel Psychology. Vol.43. Pp.467-500.

[2] For literature which addresses the measurement and meaning of job satisfaction, see: Locke (1969) "What Is Job Satisfaction?" Organizational Behaviour And Human Performance. Vol.4. Pp.309-336; and Wanous and Lawler (1965) "Measurement And Meaning Of Job Satisfaction." Journal Of Applied Psychology. Vol.56. No.2. Pp.95-105.

[3] This study measures volunteer perceptions about the likelihood of victimization that arise from interpersonal contact between offender and volunteer in the correctional workplace. The term workplace victimization is adopted to reference these perceptions to emphasize that these perceptions arise from workplace interactions between offenders and correctional workers. However, the term work-related victimization may approximate more closely the nature of some of the victimizations inquired about through the survey instrument which do not necessarily occur in the workplace (ie. receiving obscene phone calls at the volunteer's residence).

[4] For a test of three fear of crime models: the Disorder Perspective, the Community Concern Perspective, and the Indirect Victimization Perspective; see Taylor and Hale (1986) "Testing Alternative Models Of Fear Of Crime." The Journal Of Criminal Law & Criminology. Vol.77. No.1. Pp.151-189.

[5] Fear of crime and the likelihood of workplace victimization in populations comprised of teachers is a relatively unexplored phenomenon. For literature pertaining to this victimization perspective, see: Williams, Winfree, and Clinton (1989). "Trouble In The Schoolhouse: New Views On Victimization, Fear Of Crime, And Teacher Perceptions Of The Workplace." Violence And Victims. Vol.4. No.1. Pp.27-44; and also Gottfredson, G., and Gottfredson, D. (1985). Victimization In Schools. Plenum Press. New York.

[6] For a review of job burnout literature for the period of 1974-1980, see Perlman and Hartman (1982) "Burnout: Summary And Future Research." Human Relations. Vol.35. No.4. Pp.283-305.

[7] For a discussion of the definitional issues surrounding the concept of stress, see Martin (1984) "A Critical Review Of The Concept Of Stress In Psychometric Medicine." Perspectives In Biology And Medicine. Vol.37. No.3. Pp.443-464.

[8] For a review of correctional officer literature, see Philliber (1987) "Thy Brother's Keeper: A Review Of The Literature On Correctional Officers." Justice Quarterly. Vol.4. No.1. March. Pp.9-37.

Chapter III

METHODOLOGY

3.1 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

This study is initiated to achieve the following objectives through the analysis of a corrections volunteer population in Winnipeg, Manitoba: (1) the identification of job facets, (2) the measurement of job satisfaction, (3) the development of a demographic profile, and (4) from objectives 1-3 an increased understanding of Winnipeg's criminal justice system. The primary focus of this study is the evaluation of job satisfaction.

This study achieves its' objectives through the implementation of a mail-out survey questionnaire (Appendix B) designed to collect respondent attitudes towards aspects of correctional work, including for example: job stress, job supervisor, workload, autonomy, training, orientation, sense of accomplishment, feedback, interpersonal relations, and the likelihood of workplace victimization. The questionnaire is also constructed to collect demographic information pertaining to items such as gender, age, education, religion, marital status, and nationality.

The job satisfaction of the correctional volunteers who respond through the survey instrument is determined through the factor analysis of independent variables which produces job facets that are subsequently regressed against a measure of overall job satisfaction. While the

determination of job satisfaction through this technique is far from new, the application of this technique to assessing the job satisfaction of a correctional volunteer population with the inclusion of scales in the survey instrument that are designed to measure volunteer perceptions about the likelihood of workplace victimization is previously untried. This new direction in sociological inquiry provides a stepping stone from which future research of a similar nature will find guidance and roots for comparative analysis.

In addition, this study adds to the body of literature that expresses a concern for the identification of job facets and for the measurement of job satisfaction. This body of literature is comprised primarily of the analyses of workers who occupy paid (non-volunteer) positions. The present analysis offers an analysis of non-paid (volunteer) workers. And lastly, the completion of this study is preceded by recognition of its value by members of the Department Of Corrections who have requested that the study be replicated.

Permission to undertake the study is granted through contractual agreement (Appendix C) with "Manitoba Community Services, Corrections Division."

3.2 INSTRUMENT

The construction and implemention of the survey instrument is guided by the Dillman (1978) "Total Design Method." The instrument is a 5 sheet (20 page) mail-out survey questionnaire containing 97 close-ended Likert style questions, 4 fill in the blank questions, 7

check the blank questions, 2 ranking questions, and an open-ended section (one page) reserved for respondent comments. The survey questionnaire is titled: "Criminal Justice Volunteerism: An Empirical Evaluation Of The Job Satisfaction Of Correctional Volunteers In Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada" (Appendix B).

3.3 VARIABLES

Measures of the independent variables, the dependent variable, and the demographic variables are drawn from the data collected by the mail-out survey from general categories such as: work stress, victimization, supervisor, accomplishment, feedback, autonomy, orientation and training, workload, interpersonal relations; and, from demographic categories such as: nationality, religion, gender, age, education, employment, and marital status.

The selection of the questions which operationalize the dependent, independent, and demographic variables are acquired from, or influenced by, a variety of sources, including: empirical evaluations of workers engaged in correctional practice (ie. Gandy, 1976; Herman, 1986; Howell, 1972; McLean, 1979; and Whitehead, 1983); survey research instructional material (Dillman, 1978); survey research course material (Currie, 1989); interviews with corrections personnel in Winnipeg (Sienema, 1990a; Troughton, 1990; Horner, 1990), and from job satisfaction research (ie. Blau, Light and Chamlin, 1986; Conway, 1985; Ferrat, 1981; Brayfield and Rothe, 1951; Hoppock, 1935; Carlson, 1962; Smith, Kendall, and Hulin, 1969; Neil and Snizek, 1988; Martin and Sheehan, 1989; and Form and Geschwender, 1962).

3.3.1 Independent Variables

To ensure that a minimum 5:1 case to variable ratio is maintained, which is recommended for a factor analysis (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1989), 35 independent variables are selected for use in the job satisfaction analysis. The 35 variables selected for analysis most closely approximate the primary components of the theoretical framework which is formulated in Chapter II to guide the job satisfaction analysis, and secondly, because the majority of these 35 questions have been tried and tested in other research designs. Appendix D contains a listing of the sources from which many of the questions contained in the research instrument have been acquired.

As the research population consists of volunteers, questions pertaining to items such as pay and promotion are omitted from the research instrument. Pay and promotion questions typically appear in job satisfaction surveys where the sample population consists of paid employees.

3.3.2 Dependent Variable

The operationalization of the overall job satisfaction variable is facilitated from respondent replies to the following two questions:

1. "Do you like working as a volunteer in corrections?"
2. "If someone expressed to you their desire to become a volunteer in corrections, would you recommend the job?"

3.3.3 Demographic Variables

The demographic variables are measured on interval scales, check the blank, and on fill in the blank. Information pertaining to such categories as age, education, religion, gender, marital status, and nationality are solicited in order to develop control variables.

3.4 SAMPLE POPULATION

The correctional volunteers who form the sample population offer their volunteer service at one or more of the seven locations listed below:

1. East District Office (1513-A Gateway; Winnipeg, Manitoba)
2. East District Office (675 Archibald; Winnipeg, Manitoba)
3. North District Office (77-A Redwood; Winnipeg, Manitoba)
4. West District Office (139 Tuxedo; Winnipeg, Manitoba)
5. Provincial Remand Center at the Public Safety Building (151 Princess; Winnipeg, Manitoba)
6. Manitoba Youth Center (172 Doncaster; Winnipeg, Manitoba)
7. Headingly Correctional Institution (Headingly, Manitoba)

The population sampled consists of 271 volunteers, of which 267 volunteers are eligible for inclusion in this study. The reasons for the ineligibility of 4 respondents cannot be stated in full herein as to do so would identify the ineligible respondents. Suffice it to say that they did not meet the criteria of the "Volunteer Working Definition."

From the total of 267 eligible respondents, 202 (75.65%) respondents replied with a completed questionnaire, 58 (21.72%) volunteers chose not to respond, and 7 (2.62%) questionnaires were returned undelivered due to intended recipients changing residence. The intended recipients of the undelivered questionnaires were not located.

Of the total respondent sample of 202, 176 (87.1%) volunteers received their questionnaire by mail, and 26 (12.9%) volunteers received their questionnaire by hand delivery.

3.4.1 Volunteer Working Definition

Winnipeg's corrections personnel are currently engaged in negotiation, through their union, with corrections administration to settle a variety of issues. The issue of particular importance to this study is the attempt by these parties to arrive at a working definition that answers the question: "What is a volunteer?" This issue is not yet resolved.

To facilitate the need for criteria by which to determine respondent eligibility for inclusion in this study, the following definition of what constitutes a volunteer is created: "Volunteers are individuals who come to the correction authority to offer to correction clients their personal services, without remuneration for this service from the Department of Correction, and who come into direct (interpersonal) contact with corrections personnel and corrections clients for this purpose."

3.5 DATA COLLECTION

Each respondent who received the mail-out survey package received a nine and one-half by twelve inch manila envelope which contained: (1) a cover letter which explained the research, and which solicited the cooperation of the respondent, (2) a nine and one-half by six inch manila envelope with return postage and return-addressed mailing label affixed, and (3) the questionnaire.

Each respondent who received the hand-delivery package received a nine and one-half by twelve inch manila envelope which contained: (1) a cover letter which explained the research, and which solicited the cooperation of the respondent, (2) a nine and one-half by six inch manila envelope with return postage and return-addressed mailing label affixed, and (3) the questionnaire.

3.5.1 Data Collection Protocol

The Dillman (1978) "Total Design Method" provides this study with a protocol for disseminating the survey questionnaire. Dillman's protocol advocates following the initial mailing of the survey questionnaire and appropriate materials (cover letter, return envelope and postage) with a one week reminder postcard. The three week reminder letter follows, and precedes the seven week reminder letter which is the last effort to solicit a respondent reply (Appendix E).

Rather than risk offending through persistence, this study omits the seven week reminder letter but follows the other portions of the protocol as outlined herein. Appendix E contains a draft of what would

have served as the seven week reminder letter should the Dillman protocol have been followed to its full extent. And, this study adds a data collection termination postcard which heralds the end of the data collection phase of the study.

The correctional volunteers who comprise the sample received mail-out package on the 24th of May, 1990, and the one week reminder postcard on the 31st of May, 1990. The third week reminder letter was received by non-respondents on the 14th of June, 1990, and on the 15th of November, 1990, to all members of the sample was mailed the data collection termination postcard. Prior to the mailing of the one week reminder postcard, and the three week reminder letter, the three digit identification number stamped on each questionnaire was inspected (on returned questionnaires only) to identify respondents in order to facilitate their deletion from the mailing list.

3.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

As in any research, a potential for error exists from: (1) sampling, (2) measurement, and (3) instrument. To present the research findings appropriately, consideration of the limitations posed by these sources of error is offered below.

3.6.1 Sampling Error

The sample consists of 202 respondents. Future research studies could consider increasing the sample size to strengthen the data analysis (ie. correlation coefficients). Comrey (1973) provides the

necessary guidance to selecting an appropriate sample size by identifying a sample size of 50 respondents as very poor, 100 as poor, 200 as fair, 300 as good, 400 as very good, and 1000 as excellent. Comrey adds that for most factor analytic analyses a sample size of 100 to 200 respondents is adequate when factors are well defined and do not contain a large number of variables. Tabachnick and Fidell (1989) state that the sample size required for factor analytic purposes depends also on "... the magnitude of population correlations and number of factors. If there are strong reliable correlations and a few, distinct factors, a sample size of 50 may even be adequate, as long as there are notably more cases than factors" (:603).

Secondly, the sample is defined by volunteers who meet the criteria of the volunteer working definition. Included in the sample then are volunteers who work at either a probation office, a correctional facility, or at a remand center. Sampling in future research could expand to include other criminal justice volunteers such as those volunteers involved in offender/victim mediation, or in parole, for example. Future sampling might also include volunteers working for organizations other than the corrections-oriented organizations.

3.6.2 Instrument Error

The potential for the occurrence of instrument error is in the length of time required to complete the questionnaire. Too long a questionnaire could result in respondent fatigue and loss of frame of reference. However, complaints of this nature have not been conveyed to the researcher. Complaints could have been stated on last page of the

questionnaire which is reserved for respondent comments. Should respondents have required a more personal means to convey length of questionnaire dissatisfaction, the researchers telephone number appears on the inside cover of the questionnaire, on the initial contact letter which accompanies the questionnaire, on the first week reminder postcard, and on the third week reminder letter. As not a single complaint about questionnaire length was conveyed to the researcher, the inferential conclusion drawn is that instrument error is not problematic in this study.

3.6.3 Measurement Error

Measurement error bias is concerned with the possibility of respondents recording misleading or false responses. It is possible that spurious relationships could emerge if volunteers chose to record socially desirable responses. The possibility of socially desirable responses occuring in the present study is subsequently explored.

Based upon 193 respondent replies, and omitting no responses and ineligible responses (ie. additional interval scale response categories added to the questionnaire by respondents) from the analysis, when asked if volunteer experience was necessary to get a well paying job, 50.3% of the sample indicate agreement, 29.5% indicate disagreement, and 20.2% are undecided (Table 3.1). This finding indicates that the majority of respondents view volunteer work as a necessary prerequisite to procuring a job.

TABLE 3.1

Necessity Of Volunteer Work To Job Acquisition In 1990

Volunteer Experience Required?	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	38	19.7	38	19.7
Agree	59	30.6	97	50.3
Undecided	39	20.2	136	70.5
Disagree	47	24.4	183	94.9
Strongly disagree	10	5.1	193	100.0

In a different question, respondents are asked to identify their top three reasons for becoming a corrections volunteer. From 188 eligible responses, with no responses and ineligible responses deleted, and using only those reasons offered in the "number 1 reasons" category, the response "to get a better job" was ranked by 19.7% of the respondents as the second most important determinant in formulating a volunteers desire to become a corrections volunteer (Table 3.2). This finding is not inconsistent with the findings presented in Table 3.1 which establish a link between volunteer work and the procurement of a job. Although purely speculative, it is possible that those respondents whose reply fell into either the "learn of the justice system" (12.8%), "course requirement" (4.3%), or "learn a new skill" (3.7%) category (Table 3.2) may be more than passively pursuing volunteer work, but as yet are reluctant to state a definitive intent to procure a career in corrections. Put differently, while the volunteers may possess some foresight related to the determination of their career aspirations, these aspirations may be less than concrete.

TABLE 3.2

Number 1 Reason For Volunteering In Corrections In 1990

Number 1 Reason For Volunteering	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
A need to help others	38	20.2	38	20.2
To get a better job	37	19.7	75	39.9
Appeared interesting	31	16.5	106	56.4
Learn of justice system	24	12.8	130	69.2
To help the community	16	8.5	146	85.2
Course requirement	8	4.3	154	89.5
To learn a new skill	7	3.7	161	93.2
Other	27	6.8	188	100.0

Winnipeg's present day economy is one of increasing unemployment. It is not a well kept secret that when paid positions are unavailable (ie. in cases of zero attrition or hiring freeze), volunteer experience becomes a strategy which provides a "shoe-in-the-door" which permits volunteers to obtain work experience, to get to know the staff (and vice-versa), and to show off work-related skills; in essence, to get in line early for a job.

This utility of volunteer work relative to achieving individual career aspirations clearly establishes correctional volunteerism as an important activity. In light of this finding, future research should question the degree to which volunteers wish to represent aspects of correctional volunteer work in a positive light so as not to offend. Follow-up inquiries would be well advised to consider incorporating a scale, such as Crowne and Marlowe's (1960) Scale of Social Desirability (ie. Melvin, Gramling, and Gardner, 1985), to detect "socially desirable" responses.

The present study also asks whether or not volunteers were in school while working as a corrections volunteer, and if so, to identify the course or program in which they were enrolled. From the sample of 202 respondents, 101 did not reply to the question, and 5 respondents offered ineligible responses. Based then on a sample of 99 respondents, with no responses and ineligible responses deleted, 76 (76.7%) respondents indicated that they were enrolled in a program related to human service work, and 23 (23.3%) indicated enrollment in a program not related to human service work (Table 3.3).

TABLE 3.3

Volunteers In Human Service Oriented Education In 1990

Human Services	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Social work	13	13.1	13	13.1
Criminology	35	35.4	48	48.5
Psychology	4	4.0	52	52.5
Sociology	2	2.0	54	54.5
Criminology/psychology/ and sociology	14	14.2	68	68.7
Corrections	4	4.0	72	72.7
Residential youth worker	2	2.0	74	74.7
Pastoral counselling	1	1.0	75	75.7
Child-care/foster-care	1	1.0	76	76.7
Other (non-human service)	23	23.3	99	100.0

This subset of 76 volunteers, who are pursuing human service-oriented education, was further inspected to determine the number 1 reason that lead this group of volunteers to pursue volunteer

work. Six volunteers chose not to respond to this question, and so the frequencies reported in Table 3.4 are based upon a sample of 70 respondents, and indicate that "to get a better job" was the category identified most frequently as the number 1 reason which motivates these volunteers to offer their volunteer service to corrections.

TABLE 3.4

Human Service Students No.1 Reason For Volunteering In 1990

No.1 Reasons Why Human Service Students Want Volunteer Work	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
To get a better job	24	34.29	24	34.2
Learn of justice system	14	20.00	38	54.2
Personal interest	9	12.86	47	67.1
Course requirement	8	11.43	55	78.5
A need to help others	5	7.14	60	85.7
To learn a new skill	4	5.71	64	91.4
To help the community	2	2.86	66	94.2
Christian opportunity	1	1.43	67	95.7
My mother's encouragement	1	1.43	68	97.1
Gods calling	1	1.43	69	98.5
To help prevent others from making my mistakes	1	1.43	70	100.0

In addition to the analysis offered by the present study, the attitude that volunteers harbour about the relationship of volunteer work to the procurement of a job is similarly explored in Ross' (1990) analysis of 1987 Statistics Canada census data which reports that 43.6% of volunteers consider their volunteer work to be "... a means of improving their job opportunities," and that "46% (353 thousand)

indicate that they had learned skills that could be directly transferred to their current jobs" (:27). Tables 3.5 and 3.6 depict these findings (in Ross, 1990).

TABLE 3.5

Volunteers Acquiring Skills That Apply To Their Paid Job In 1987

Characteristic	Does Volunteer Skill Apply? Yes	No
Canada	46.2	53.8
Age		
15 - 19 years	46.7	53.2
20 - 24	53.7	46.3
25 - 34	53.8	46.2
35 - 44	41.8	58.2
45 - 54	45.3	54.7
55 - 64	27.8	72.2
65 and over	7.5	92.4
Gender		
Female	45.2	54.8
Male	47.0	53.0
Education Level		
None or elementary	40.6	59.4
Some high school	39.7	60.3
Some post-secondary	34.0	66.0
Post-secondary diploma	50.4	49.6
University degree	57.5	42.5
Income Level		
0-$9,999	49.2	50.8
10-$19,999	59.1	40.9
20-$39,999	45.9	54.1
$40,000 plus	43.1	56.9
Not stated	47.9	52.1

TABLE 3.6

Importance Of Acquiring Skills Through Volunteer Work In 1987

Characteristic	Important	Not Important
Canada	70.3 %	29.7 %
Age		
15 - 19 years	90.8	9.2
20 - 24	85.0	15.0
25 - 34	76.4	23.6
35 - 44	71.2	28.8
45 - 54	65.6	34.4
55 - 64	57.5	42.5
65 and over	45.5	54.5
Gender		
Female	72.0	27.9
Male	68.0	31.9
Education Level		
None or elementary	70.9	29.8
Some high school	73.8	26.2
Some post-secondary	74.5	25.5
Post-secondary diploma	69.5	30.5
University degree	60.7	39.3
Income Level		
0-$9,999	78.3	21.7
10-$19,999	70.2	29.8
20-$39,999	72.9	27.1
$40,000 plus	67.1	32.9

In other research, the relationship between volunteer work and the achievement of career aspirations is similarly recognized. Smith, et.al.'s (1978) survey of 2,544 university students reports that 70.2% of the students undertook volunteer service to acquire career experience and that 15.8% of the students were using their volunteer work to obtain job contacts.

In 1980 Chapman asked university students why they chose to enter into volunteer service, and discovered that a university students desire to become a volunteer is largely motivated by work-oriented needs (in Chapman, 1980:42):

TABLE 3.7

University Student Motivation To Volunteer In 1980

	Number	Percent
Course Requirement		
No	113	72.436
Yes	43	27.564
Career Interest		
No	24	15.384
Yes	131	84.516
No response	1	
Work Experience		
No	24	15.384
Yes	131	84.516
No response	1	

3.7 SUMMARY

In the present study it is apparent that volunteers, and especially volunteers who are also students, perceive the utility of volunteer experience as a means by which to achieve career aspirations. This relationship is similarly present in other research (Smith, 1978; Chapman, 1980; and Ross, 1990). Future inquiries of a similar nature should give appropriate attention to identifying "socially desirable" responses.

Chapter IV

DATA ANALYSIS

4.1 JOB SATISFACTION ANALYSIS

Inspection of the data through SAS 6.03 and SPSS 4.1 reveals that the minimum and maximum values, means, standard deviations, and ranges are plausible and not indicative of data entry inaccuracies. Four variables have missing values, but only the variable LENTHSER (length of volunteer service) is employed later in regression analysis. LENTHSER has 7 missing values which represent 3.46% of the total number of cases for this variable.

TABLE 4.1

Factors Produced From Principle Components Analysis

Factor	Eigenvalue	Pct Of Var	Cumulative Pct Of Var
1	7.82805	22.4	22.4
2	2.91783	8.3	30.7
3	2.31751	6.6	37.3
4	2.16096	6.2	43.5
5	1.88586	5.4	48.9
6	1.51063	4.3	53.2
7	1.44275	4.1	57.3
8	1.28062	3.7	61.0
9	1.12464	3.2	64.2
10	1.00697	2.9	67.1

A total of 35 variables are subjected to SPSS principle components analysis and varimax rotation (eigenvalue cutoff for rotation = 1.0; cumulative variation explained = 67.1%). The principle components analysis determines presence of 10 factors (Table 4.1). The factor loadings are reported in Tables 4.2 and 4.3.

TABLE 4.2

Principle Components Analysis And Varimax Rotated Factor Loadings (a)

Variable Name	Facet 1 Approval Of Supervisor	Facet 2 Role Ambiguity	Facet 3 Likelihood Of Victimization Through Crimes Of A More Serious Nature	Facet 4 Workload
NOPEN	.80258			
NCARES	.76810			
NUTILIZE	.69474			
NANSWER	.68241	.35525		
NBLAME	.64244			
NRECENT	.59669	.35094		
NREVIEW	.39684			
NPREDICT	.32387	.75037		
NEXPECT		.71683		
NSCOPE		.67242		
NJUDGE		.64473		
NCONFLIC		.63999		
NIDEADIF	.34275	.48480		
NAUTHORT		.46175		
NWWATTAC			.84979	
NHOSTAGE			.84157	
NNWATTAC			.75222	
NAMOUNT				.85374
NHOURS				.79805
NDEMANDS				.76302

TABLE 4.3

Principle Components Analysis And Varimax Rotated Factor Loadings (b)

Variable Name	Facet 5 Interpersonal Conflict	Facet 6 Stress	Facet 7 Adequacy Of Orientation And Training	Facet 8 Likelihood Of Victimization Through Crimes Of A Less Serious Nature
NCONFLIC	.30736			
NIDEADIF			.31077	
NAUTHORT			.31026	
NVPERCON	.86207			
NSTAFCON	.77845			
NVOLCON	.68833	.35630		
NOBCPHON				
NREVIEW				
NVOLCON				
NNWATTAC				.39839
NPERSONA		.80322		
NBURNED		.68079		
NSTRESS		.62322		
NTRANAD			.82511	
NORIENAD			.79607	
NACCOMP				
NPROUD				
NLANGUAG				.75773
NMISREP				.73078
NOBCPHON	.30393			.44926

Variable Name	Facet 9 Sense Of Accomplishment	Facet 10 Risk Of Victimization
NACCOMP	.80845	
NPROUD	.70172	
NREVIEW	.35262	
NKNOWIN		.88493
NVICTIM		.59999

Variables which load onto a common factor are combined to form a scale, and each scale represents a particular facet of the job. Only unique variance is used in the construction of each scale. Thus, a variable which loads onto multiple factors is attributed to the factor which captures the highest (numeric) loading for the variable. Each facet is an additive scale of variables that are weighted by their factor loadings, and each facet remains constructed in this manner for all regression analyses. The questions appearing in the survey instrument which correspond to each of the 10 facets (scales) are reported in Appendix F. The reliability of each of the 10 scales is computed through chronbach's alpha (Table 4.4).

TABLE 4.4

Reliability Of Facets Produced From Principle Components Analysis

Facets	Number Of Variables	Chronbach's Alpha
1. Approval of supervisor	7	.8355
2. Role ambiguity	7	.8447
3. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a more serious nature	3	.8205
4. Workload	3	.7916
5. Interpersonal conflict	3	.7945
6. Stress	3	.6827
7. Sense of accomplishment	2	.6536
8. Adequacy of orientation and training	2	.7445
9. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a less serious nature	3	.5725
10. Risk of victimization	2	.4920

The scoring of the facets using only unique variance (shared variance excluded) necessitates that the factor solution be evaluated to assess the extent to which the orthogonality of the solution is compromised. Correlating (2-tailed) the facets affirms the orthogonality of the factor solution (Table 4.5).

TABLE 4.5

Pearson Correlations For Discriminant Validity Of The Facets

	Facet 1	Facet 2	Facet 3	Facet 4	Facet 5
Facet 1	1.0000				
Facet 2	.5583**	1.0000			
Facet 3	.0675	.1854**	1.0000		
Facet 4	.3538**	.2788**	.1656*	1.0000	
Facet 5	.3435**	.4455**	.0738	.2164**	1.0000
Facet 6	.2499**	.3715**	.1098	.3130**	.3334**
Facet 7	.3162**	.2031**	.1046	.2046**	.0212
Facet 8	.2324**	.3860**	-.0016	.0955	.1042
Facet 9	.0869	.2357**	.4070**	.0311	.2120**
Facet 10	-.0822	-.0582	.0072	.0102	.0052

	Facet 6	Facet 7	Facet 8	Facet 9	Facet 10
Facet 6	1.0000				
Facet 7	.0981	1.0000			
Facet 8	.2458**	.1735*	1.0000		
Facet 9	-.0017	.1387*	.2528**	1.0000	
Facet 10	-.1335	.0567	.0280	.1156	1.0000

* - Signif. LE .05 ** - Signif. LE .01 (2-tailed)

The overall job satisfaction (dependent) variable is an additive scale of respondent replies to these two questions: "Do you like working as a volunteer in corrections?" and "If someone expressed to you their desire to become a volunteer in corrections, would you recommend the job?" Originally measured on 7 point interval scales, the 2 and 3 responses have been combined to form a single category ("satisfied") as have the 5 and 6 responses ("dissatisfied"). Thus, the dependent variable is a combination of two 5 point interval variables, each recoded as: 1="very satisfied" with the job, 2="satisfied" with the job, 3="undecided", 4="dissatisfied" with job, and 5="very dissatisfied" with the job. These two recoded variables comprise an additive scale which serves as a measure of overall job satisfaction. These variables correlate at 0.6190 (2-tailed, p=.01), and cronbach's alpha for this scale is 0.7596.

A multiple classification analysis is performed to assess measures of association among five demographic variables (gender, marital status, level of education, motivation leading to becoming a volunteer, and length of volunteer service) with overall job satisfaction (Table 4.6 and 4.7). Multiple classification analysis is a multivariate technique which facilitates an examination of the interrelationships between a single dependent variable and several predictor variables within an additive model. The requirements of this technique specify that: the dependent variable be either a dichotomous variable, or an interval variable that is not strongly skewed; and, that the independent variables are measured on interval, ordinal, or nominal scales (Andrews, Morgan, Sonquist, and Klem, 1967).

As an additive scale, the range of values for the overall job satisfaction scale far exceed 5 points. To ease interpretation, the overall job satisfaction scale is divided by the total number of variables comprising this scale (N=2) to produce a Grand Mean which ranges from 1 to 5 (conforming to the range of the recoded variables). The Grand Mean is interpreted as follows: 1="very satisfied" with the job, 2="satisfied" with the job, 3="undecided", 4="dissatisfied" with the job, and a 5="very dissatisfied" with the job. The value of the Grand Mean (1.67) indicates that the reported level of volunteer job satisfaction is between "satisfied" with the job and "very satisfied" with the job. Positive values in the column labelled "Dev'n" under the "Adjusted For Independents" category indicate reported levels of job satisfaction to be above the Grand Mean (that is, less than 1.67), while negative values in the same column indicate reported levels of job satisfaction to be below the Grand Mean (that is, greater then 1.67). The values for Beta indicate which demographic categories are the strongest predictors of job satisfaction, and the R-square value indicates how much variation in the dependent variable is accounted for by the demographic categories.

The multiple classification analysis determines statistically significant two-way and three-way interactions among some demographic variables. The collective influence of these interactions on predicting job satisfaction is negligible as the value for r-square indicates that the demographic variables account for only 1.1% of the variation in overall job satisfaction. The limited variability accounted for in the dependent variable by the demographic categories imparts that the

standardized regression coefficients associated with each of the demographic categories do not predict much change in overall job satisfaction.

TABLE 4.6

Multiple Classification Analysis For Measures Of Association Of Demographic Variables And Job Satisfaction

Grand Mean = 1.67

Variable + Category	N	Unadjusted Dev'n	Unadjusted Eta	Adjusted for Independents Dev'n	Adjusted for Independents Beta
Gender					
Males	85	.05		.06	
Females	100	-.04		-.05	
			.06		.07
Marital Status					
Single	100	.04		.04	
Married	85	-.05		-.04	
			.06		.05
Level Of Education					
Non-university educated	54	-.04		-.02	
University educated	131	.02		.01	
			.03		.02
Motivation To Volunteer					
Intrinsically motivated	71	-.02		-.01	
Extrinsically motivated	114	.01		.00	
			.02		.01
Length Of Volunteer Service					
1 year	74	.05		.05	
1-2 years	56	-.02		-.02	
2+ years	55	-.05		-.05	
			.06		.05

Multiple R Squared = .011
Multiple R = .106

202 cases were processed. 17 cases (8.4 pct) were missing.

TABLE 4.7

Multiple Classification Analysis For Interaction Effects

Source of Variation			Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects			1.217	6	.203	.359	.903
Gender			.499	1	.499	.884	.349
Mstatus			.230	1	.230	.408	.524
Educate			.035	1	.035	.061	.805
Motive			.006	1	.006	.011	.916
Length			.309	2	.155	.274	.761
2-Way Interactions			10.034	14	.717	1.270	.233
Gender	Mstatus		.101	1	.101	.179	.673
Gender	Educate		.467	1	.467	.827	.365
Gender	Motive		3.394	1	3.394	6.015	.015
Gender	Length		1.921	2	.960	1.702	.186
Mstatus	Educate		.509	1	.509	.902	.344
Mstatus	Motive		.580	1	.580	1.029	.312
Mstatus	Length		2.499	2	1.250	2.214	.113
Educate	Motive		2.442	1	2.442	4.327	.039
Educate	Length		1.804	2	.902	1.598	.206
Motive	Length		.099	2	.050	.088	.916
3-Way Interactions			12.807	16	.800	1.418	.140
Gender	Mstatus	Educate	2.523	1	2.523	4.471	.036
Gender	Mstatus	Motive	.166	1	.166	.295	.588
Gender	Mstatus	Length	1.198	2	.599	1.061	.349
Gender	Educate	Motive	.417	1	.417	.739	.392
Gender	Educate	Length	2.487	2	1.243	2.203	.114
Gender	Motive	Length	3.611	2	1.805	3.199	.044
Mstatus	Educate	Motive	.007	1	.007	.013	.911
Mstatus	Educate	Length	.451	2	.226	.400	.671
Mstatus	Motive	Length	1.858	2	.929	1.646	.196
Educate	Motive	Length	.028	2	.014	.025	.975
Explained			24.058	36	.668	1.184	.240
Residual			83.521	148	.564		
Total			107.578	184	.585		

202 cases were processed. 17 cases (8.4 pct) were missing.

To determine which volunteers express the greater job satisfaction, Least Squares Means are calculated through SAS (Table 4.8). In this analysis, the overall job satisfaction scale is divided by the total numbers of variables comprising the scale (N=2) to produce a Grand Mean which ranges from 1 to 5 (conforming to the recoding of this scale).

TABLE 4.8

Least Squares Means For The Five Demographic Categories And Job Satisfaction

Demographic Categories	Least Squares Means
Grand Mean = 1.5569459	
Gender	
Males	1.57251186
Females	1.53051542
Marital Status	
Single	1.55245177
Married	1.55057551
Level Of Education	
Non-university educated	1.54077520
University educated	1.56225208
Motivation To Volunteer	
Intrinsically motivated	1.53162768
Extrinsically motivated	1.57139960
Length Of Volunteer Service	
1 year	1.53995785
1-2 years	1.54681948
2+ years	1.56776359
Multiple R Squared = .003	

202 cases were processed. 17 cases (8.4 pct) were missing.

The Least Squares Means reveal that respondents in all five demographic categories (and subgroups) are satisfied with their volunteer job; and, that: (1) female volunteers express greater job satisfaction than do male volunteers, (2) married volunteers express greater job satisfaction than do single volunteers, (3) non-university educated volunteers express greater job satisfaction than do university educated volunteers, (4) intrinsically motivated volunteers express greater job satisfaction than do extrinsically motivated volunteers, and (5) in terms of length of volunteer service, as the length of volunteer service increases, the reported level of job satisfaction decreases. The volunteers who express the greatest amount of job satisfaction are those volunteers who have been in volunteer service for no longer than a year. The volunteers who express the least amount of job satisfaction are those volunteers who have been in volunteer service for 2 years or longer.

While the demographic variables perform poorly as predictors of job satisfaction, SPSS standard multiple regression is employed to assess which facets are salient to producing a satisfied volunteer. The introduction of the 10 facets into a standard regression analysis comprising the total sample confirms the presence of 7 influential outliers (cases: 186, 93, 108, 124, 90, 55, and 24) which are deleted from the analysis. This regression generates a model which explains 55.63% (p=0.000) of the variation in overall job satisfaction (Table 4.9). The facets sense of accomplishment, approval of supervisor, and role ambiguity are the only statistically significant predictors of job satisfaction identified in this model. Each of these facets have a

positive relationship to the dependent variable. The facet pertaining to sense of accomplishment is identified as the strongest predictor of job satisfaction.

TABLE 4.9

Facets Entering The Job Satisfaction Model

Facets	B	Beta	T	Sig T
1. Sense of accomplishment	.719278	.464454	8.592	.0000
2. Approval of supervisor	.130349	.257568	4.132	.0001
3. Role ambiguity	.116086	.204287	3.008	.0030
4. Adequacy of orientation and training	.113454	.086093	1.550	.1230
5. Risk of victimization	.062462	.052324	1.034	.3024
6. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a less serious nature	-.055105	-.062743	-1.097	.2742
7. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a more serious nature	.037778	.044780	.803	.4231
8. Workload	.046517	.045990	.826	.4100
9. Interpersonal conflict	-.033163	-.032494	-.576	.5653
10. Stress	-.010904	-.011834	-.208	.8358

4.1.1 Gender

The regression procedure outlined above for the total sample is repeated for the male and female subsets. The standard regression detects the presence 4 influential outliers in the male subset (cases: 108, 186, 124 and 24), and 5 influential outliers in the female subset (cases: 200, 93, 90, 58, and 138). In both subsets, the outliers are deleted from the analysis.

In the male subset, the facets identified as statistically significant predictors of job satisfaction are: sense of accomplishment, role ambiguity, and approval of supervisor. The regression for the male subset explains 55.09% (p=.000) of the variation in overall job satisfaction (Table 4.10). Each of these facets have a positive relationship to the dependent variable. The facet pertaining to sense of accomplishment is identified as the strongest predictor of job satisfaction.

TABLE 4.10

Facets Entering The Male Job Satisfaction Model

Facets	B	Beta	T	Sig T
1. Sense of accomplishment	.666680	.384109	4.473	.0000
2. Role ambiguity	.178889	.301053	2.762	.0072
3. Approval of supervisor	.142768	.278306	2.685	.0089
4. Risk of victimization	.178700	.131189	1.574	.1196
5. Stress	-.102145	-.094102	-1.026	.3078
6. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a more serious nature	.076744	.081448	.814	.4183
7. Interpersonal conflict	-.076577	-.070986	-.781	.4369
8. Adequacy of orientation and training	.072856	.057765	.660	.5109
9. Workload	.027816	.024595	.253	.8008
10. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a less serious nature	-.010836	-.011813	-.121	.9037

In the female subset, the facets identified as statistically significant predictors of job satisfaction are: sense of accomplishment, adequacy of orientation and training, and approval of supervisor. The regression for the female subset explains 66.39% (p=.000) of the variation overall job satisfaction (Table 4.11). The facets sense of accomplishment, adequacy of orientation and training, and approval of supervisor are the only statistically significant predictors of job satisfaction identified in this model, and each of these facets have a positive relationship to the dependent variable. The facet pertaining to sense of accomplishment is identified as the strongest predictor of job satisfaction.

TABLE 4.11

Facets Entering The Female Job Satisfaction Model

Facets	B	Beta	T	Sig T
1. Sense of accomplishment	.832537	.598380	8.757	.0000
2. Adequacy of orientation and training	.238610	.162540	2.425	.0172
3. Approval of supervisor	.108069	.216891	2.784	.0065
4. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a less serious nature	-.080526	-.095651	-1.385	.1694
5. Stress	.058167	.073031	.999	.3202
6. Role ambiguity	.048277	.088292	1.050	.2966
7. Risk of victimization	-.044497	-.042125	-.669	.5053
8. Interpersonal conflict	-.025146	-.026153	-.377	.7073
9. Workload	-.009690	-.010563	-.158	.8752
10. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a more serious nature	-.002049	-.002718	-.041	.9676

The order in which the facets enter into the standard multiple regression models comprising the total sample, male subset, and female subset, are summarized in Table 4.12. The facets common to the three models are sense of accomplishment and approval of supervisor.

TABLE 4.12

Summary Of Facets Entering The Gender Job Satisfaction Models

	Models		
Facets & Single Item	Males And Females	Males	Females
1. Approval of supervisor	2	3	3
2. Role ambiguity	3	2	
3. Workload			
4. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a more serious nature			
5. Interpersonal conflict			
6. Stress			
7. Sense of accomplishment	1	1	1
8. Adequacy of orientation and training			2
9. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a less serious nature			
10. Risk of victimization			
Total variance explained by each model:	55.63%	55.09%	66.39%

T-test analysis determines that the only facet with a mean that differs significantly between the male and female subsets is adequacy of orientation and training (Table 4.13).

TABLE 4.13

T-Test Of Facets By Gender

Facets & Single Item	Means For Males	Means For Females	T Value	2-Tail Prob.
1. Approval of supervisor	1.3048	1.2633	.70	.486
2. Role ambiguity	1.1574	1.0668	1.74	.084
3. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a more serious nature	1.3950	1.4472	-.65	.516
4. Workload	1.4150	1.4322	-.26	.797
5. Interpersonal conflict	1.2061	1.1529	.78	.435
6. Stress	1.3704	1.3657	.06	.949
7. Adequacy of orientation and training	1.2946	1.1127	2.35	.020
8. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a less serious nature	1.9693	1.9658	.04	.964
9. Sense of accomplishment	1.4943	1.4634	.47	.637
10. Risk of victimization	1.3348	1.3381	-.04	.969

Note: The calculation of the means is based upon responses to interval scales which range from 1 to 3 for facet 7, and from 1 to 5 for the other nine facets.

On the basis of the observed significance level the null hypothesis which suggests that males and females express similar attitudes towards the facet adequacy of orientation and training is rejected; while males and females are satisfied with the adequacy of orientation and training, the females express less satisfaction with orientation and training than do the males.

4.1.2 Education

The data set is divided into two divisions of education: respondents with, and without, a university education. In the subset comprising university educated respondents, 8 outliers are deleted (cases: 155, 24, 90, 93, 138, 108, 150, and 20), and the standard multiple regression generates a model which explains 58.40% (p=.000) of the variation in the dependent variable (Table 4.14). The facets sense of accomplishment, approval of supervisor, and adequacy of orientation and training are the only statistically significant predictors of job satisfaction identified in this model. Each of these facets have a positive relationship to the dependent variable. The facet pertaining to sense of accomplishment is identified as the strongest predictor of job satisfaction.

In the subset comprising non-university educated respondents, 2 outliers are deleted (cases: 186 and 124). The standard multiple regression generates a model which explains 61.51% of the variation in overall job satisfaction (Table 4.15). The facets sense of accomplishment and likelihood of victimization through crimes of a less

TABLE 4.14

Facets Entering The University Educated Job Satisfaction Model

Facets	B	Beta	T	Sig T
1. Sense of accomplishment	.663832	.429456	6.469	.0000
2. Approval of supervisor	.184816	.400251	4.950	.0000
3. Adequacy of orientation and training	.171977	.140737	2.081	.0396
4. Risk of victimization	.085286	.074152	1.220	.2248
5. Interpersonal conflict	-.058444	-.064071	-.883	.3792
6. Stress	-.057040	-.069572	-.990	.3241
7. Role ambiguity	.048688	.089211	.949	.3448
8. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a less serious nature	.046495	.051608	.755	.4518
9. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a more serious nature	.041398	.052882	.798	.4266
10. Workload	.040177	.042906	.612	.5420

serious nature are the only statistically significant predictors of job satisfaction identified in this model. The facet pertaining to the likelihood of victimization through crimes of a less serious nature has a negative relationship to overall job satisfaction, and therefore decreases overall job satisfaction. The facet pertaining to sense of accomplishment has a positive relationship to overall job satisfaction. The facet pertaining to sense of accomplishment is identified as the strongest predictor of job satisfaction.

T-test analysis determines that the facets having a mean that differs significantly between the two education subsets are

TABLE 4.15

Facets Entering The Non-University Educated Job Satisfaction Model

Facets	B	Beta	T	Sig T
1. Sense of accomplishment	.639389	.510133	4.767	.0000
2. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a less serious nature	-.199712	-.290880	-2.537	.0144
3. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a more serious nature	.146501	.190715	1.712	.0933
4 Workload	.099614	.108849	1.027	.3095
5. Risk of victimization	-.099541	-.100288	-1.013	.3159
6. Approval of supervisor	.085529	.175184	1.608	.1142
7. Role ambiguity	.052040	.096712	.842	.4036
8. Interpersonal conflict	-.031156	-.027632	-.266	.7916
9. Adequacy of orientation and training	.012694	.009276	.091	.9281
10. Stress	.002247	.002210	.022	.9824

interpersonal conflict, stress, and adequacy of orientation and training (Table 4.16). On the basis of the observed significance levels, the null hypothesis which suggests that university educated respondents and non-university educated respondents express the same attitude about interpersonal conflict, stress, and adequacy of orientation and training is rejected.

The means indicate that university educated respondents and non-university educated respondents report satisfaction with adequacy of orientation and training, and, that the non-university educated respondents report greater satisfaction with this facet than do the university educated respondents. In addition, the means reveal that

interpersonal conflict and stress do not have much of a negative effect upon job satisfaction.

TABLE 4.16

T-Test Of Facets By Education

Facets & Single Item	Means For Non-University Educated	Means For University Educated	T Value	2-Tail Prob.
1. Approval of supervisor	1.2767	1.2877	-.18	.855
2. Role ambiguity	1.0618	1.1309	-1.29	.199
3. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a more serious nature	1.4284	1.4297	-.01	.989
4. Workload	1.4640	1.4091	.76	.447
5. Interpersonal conflict	1.0875	1.2206	-2.06	.041
6. Stress	1.2137	1.4425	-3.23	.002
7. Adequacy of orientation and training	1.0505	1.2577	-2.72	.007
8. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a less serious nature	1.8766	2.0167	-1.57	.119
9. Sense of accomplishment	1.4549	1.4901	-.47	.640
10. Risk of victimization	1.3433	1.3336	.10	.919

Note: The calculation of the means is based upon responses to interval scales which range from 1 to 3 for facet 7, and from 1 to 5 for the other nine facets.

4.1.3 Marital Status

The two subsets of marital status consist of respondents who are single, and respondents who are married. In the single respondents subset 4 influential outliers are deleted from the analysis (cases: 93, 58, 90, and 72), and the standard multiple regression generates a single respondents model which explains 58.77% (p=.000) of the variation in overall job satisfaction (Table 4.17).

TABLE 4.17

Facets Entering The Single Respondents Job Satisfaction Model

Facets	B	Beta	T	Sig T
1. Sense of accomplishment	.847275	.526931	7.202	.0000
2. Approval of supervisor	.131477	.278271	3.310	.0013
3. Role ambiguity	.113849	.193745	2.094	.0387
4. Interpersonal conflict	-.073142	-.068775	-.914	.3627
5. Adequacy of orientation and training	.065513	.051043	.661	.5099
6. Stress	-.052658	-.055205	-.744	.4588
7. Workload	.035066	.035722	.485	.6286
8. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a more serious nature	.009427	.011569	.163	.8706
9. Risk of victimization	.005811	.004348	.066	.9474
10. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a less serious nature	.004939	.005200	.071	.9432

The facets sense of accomplishment, approval of supervisor, and role ambiguity are the only statistically significant predictors of job

satisfaction identified in this model. Each of these facets have a positive relationship to the dependent variable. The facet pertaining to sense of accomplishment is identified as the strongest predictor of job satisfaction.

In the married respondents subset 5 influential outliers are deleted from the analysis (cases: 186, 108, 200, 24, and 20). The standard multiple regression generates a married respondents model which explains 51.32% (p=.000) of the variation in overall job satisfaction (Table 4.18).

TABLE 4.18

Facets Entering The Married Respondents Job Satisfaction Model

Facets	B	Beta	T	Sig T
1. Sense of accomplishment	.720840	.464409	8.194	.0000
2. Approval of supervisor	.130397	.256973	3.876	.0001
3. Role ambiguity	.105113	.182524	2.530	.0122
4. Adequacy of orientation and training	.092042	.069271	1.193	.2345
5. Risk of victimization	.086125	.071908	1.364	.1742
6. Interpersonal conflict	-.057816	-.056313	-.955	.3408
7. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a more serious nature	.033741	.040192	.690	.4908
8. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a less serious nature	-.021585	-.024223	-.403	.6875
9. Workload	.016800	.016533	.284	.7770
10. Stress	.000031	.000031	.006	.9954

The facets sense of accomplishment, approval of supervisor, and role ambiguity are the only statistically significant predictors of job satisfaction identified in this model. Each facet has a positive relationship to overall job satisfaction, and sense of accomplishment is identified as the strongest predictor of job satisfaction.

TABLE 4.19

T-Test Of Facets By Marital Status

Facets & Single Item	Single Means	Married Means	T Value	2-Tail Prob.
1. Approval of supervisor	1.2845	1.2889	-.08	.939
2. Role ambiguity	1.1295	1.0921	.70	.487
3. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a more serious nature	1.4691	1.3713	1.22	.223
4. Workload	1.4235	1.4351	-.17	.863
5. Interpersonal conflict	1.1289	1.2534	-1.79	.075
6. Stress	1.3759	1.3643	.15	.879
7. Adequacy of orientation and training	1.2277	1.1578	.91	.365
8. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a less serious nature	2.0083	1.9265	1.01	.313
9. Sense of accomplishment	1.5025	1.4549	.71	.480
10. Risk of victimization	1.3060	1.3776	-.80	.427

Note: The calculation of the means is based upon responses to interval scales which range from 1 to 3 for facet 7, and from 1 to 5 for the other nine facets.

T-test analysis fails to ascertain facets with means that differ significantly between the single and married respondents (Table 4.19). On the basis of the observed significance levels, the null hypothesis which suggests that single and married respondents express the same attitudes about the facets is accepted.

4.1.4 Motivation To Volunteer

The data set divisions of motivation to volunteer comprise two subsets: firstly, there are the intrinsically motivated respondents whose motivation (ie. a desire to help others) to become a correctional volunteer is not rooted in primarily self-serving interest; and secondly, there are the extrinsically motivated respondents whose motivation (ie. volunteering to further a career) to become correctional volunteer is rooted in primarily self-serving interest.

In the intrinsically motivated respondents subset, 3 influential outliers are deleted from the analysis (cases: 186, 167, and 55), and the standard multiple regression generates an intrinsically motivated respondents model which explains 72.43% (p=.000) of the variation in overall job satisfaction (Table 4.20).

The facets sense of accomplishment, approval of supervisor, and the likelihood of victimization through crimes of a more serious nature are the only statistically significant predictors of job satisfaction identified in this model. Each of these facets has a positive relationship to the dependent variable. The positive relationship of the

TABLE 4.20

Facets Entering The Intrinsically Motivated Respondents Job Satisfaction Model

Facets	B	Beta	T	Sig T
1. Sense of accomplishment	.596528	.405495	4.896	.0000
2. Approval of supervisor	.232716	.443225	4.586	.0000
3. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a more serious nature	.177395	.199531	2.344	.0225
4. Adequacy of orientation and training	.261086	.168302	1.965	.0542
5. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a less serious nature	-.106586	-.112278	-1.366	.1773
6. Workload	.070764	.064024	.849	.3995
7. Risk of victimization	-.060418	-.047459	-.634	.5288
8. Interpersonal conflict	-.021272	-.021457	-.266	.7913
9. Role ambiguity	-.007779	-.014139	-.132	.8952
10. Stress	.002280	.002145	.025	.9799

facet relating to victimization is attributed to the majority of respondents replying through the survey instrument that while workplace victimization is highly possible, volunteers do not fear it (Tables 4.73 and 4.74). The facet pertaining to sense of accomplishment is identified as the strongest predictor of job satisfaction.

In the extrinsically motivated respondents subset 4 influential outliers are deleted from the analysis (cases: 93, 108, 138, and 71), and the standard multiple regression generates an extrinsically motivated respondents model which explains 51.69% (p=.000) of the variation in overall job satisfaction (Table 4.21).

TABLE 4.21

Facets Entering The Extrinsically Motivated Respondents Job Satisfaction Model

Facets	B	Beta	T	Sig T
1. Sense of accomplishment	.593859	.365707	4.485	.0000
2. Approval of supervisor	.147829	.277677	3.061	.0028
3. Risk of victimization	.229595	.195088	2.718	.0077
4. Role ambiguity	.170862	.284761	3.009	.0033
5. Interpersonal conflict	-.122114	-.113706	-1.350	.1799
6. Adequacy of orientation and training	.081115	.064022	.803	.4239
7. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a more serious nature	-.069957	-.083526	-1.050	.2964
8. Workload	.060453	.059572	.721	.4724
9. Stress	.017433	.019166	.230	.8186
10. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a less serious nature	-.006982	-.008011	-.099	.9211

The facets sense of accomplishment, approval of supervisor, risk of victimization, and role ambiguity are the only statistically significant predictors of job satisfaction identified in this model. Each of these facets have a positive relationship to the dependent variable. The facet pertaining to sense of accomplishment is identified as the strongest predictor of job satisfaction.

T-test analysis determines that there are no facets which have a mean that differs significantly between the intrinsically motivated and the extrinsically motivated respondents (Table 4.22). On the basis of the observed significance levels, the null hypothesis which suggests

that intrinsically motivated and the extrinsically motivated respondents express the same attitudes about satisfaction with the facets is accepted.

TABLE 4.22

T-Test Of Facets By Motivation To Volunteer

Facets & Single Item	Means For Intrinsic Motivation	Means For Extrinsic Motivation	T Value	2-Tail Prob.
1. Approval of supervisor	1.2714	1.2859	-.22	.823
2. Role ambiguity	1.0944	1.1256	-.55	.585
3. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a more serious nature	1.4140	1.4350	-.25	.805
4. Workload	1.4966	1.3773	1.67	.098
5. Interpersonal conflict	1.2137	1.1517	.85	.397
6. Stress	1.3569	1.3794	-.30	.768
7. Adequacy of orientation and training	1.1474	1.2476	-1.26	.210
8. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a more serious nature	1.9264	2.0143	-1.10	.274
9. Sense of accomplishment	1.4344	1.5189	-1.18	.241
10. Risk of victimization	1.3226	1.3542	-.35	.728

Note: The calculation of the means is based upon responses to interval scales which range from 1 to 3 for facet 7, and from 1 to 5 for the other nine facets.

4.1.5 Length Of Service

Through crosstabulation six length of service divisions are created to facilitate subsetting for regression analysis (Table 4.23). To develop appropriate sample sizes for regression, the categories comprising volunteers in correctional service for more than 2 years are collapsed into a single category (Table 4.24).

TABLE 4.23

Gender By Length Of Service Divisions In 1990(a)

	Length Of Volunteer Service Divisions											
	1 year		1-2 years		2-3 years		3-4 years		4-5 years		5+ years	
Gender	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
Males	38	40.9	28	30.1	10	10.8	6	6.5	5	5.4	6	6.5
Females	50	45.9	32	29.4	9	8.3	7	6.4	6	5.5	5	4.6
Totals	88	43.6	60	29.7	19	9.4	13	6.4	11	5.4	11	5.4

TABLE 4.24

Gender By Length Of Service Divisions In 1990(b)

	Length Of Volunteer Service Divisions							
	1 year		1-2 years		> 2 years		Total	
Gender	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
Males	38	40.9	28	30.1	27	29.0	93	50.0
Females	50	45.9	32	29.4	27	24.7	109	50.0
Total	88	43.6	60	29.7	54	26.7	202	100.0

In the 1 year length of service subset 4 influential outliers are deleted from the analysis (cases: 186, 190, 24, and 81). The standard multiple regression generates a model which explains 64.93% (p=.000) of the variation in overall job satisfaction (Table 4.25). The facets sense of accomplishment, role ambiguity, and risk of victimization are the only statistically significant predictors of job satisfaction identified in this model. Each of these facets have a positive relationship to the dependent variable. The facet pertaining to sense of accomplishment is identified as the strongest predictor of job satisfaction.

TABLE 4.25

Facets Entering The 1 Year Length Of Service Job Satisfaction Model

Facets	B	Beta	T	Sig T
1. Sense of accomplishment	.993704	.558914	6.067	.0000
2. Role ambiguity	.254755	.388319	3.641	.0005
3. Risk of victimization	.216716	.162366	2.032	.0462
4. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a more serious nature	-.094909	-.080599	-.898	.3727
5. Approval of supervisor	.067619	.099103	.970	.3355
6. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a less serious nature	-.048116	-.045261	-.507	.6135
7. Adequacy of orientation and training	-.044659	-.029252	-.318	.7516
8. Interpersonal conflict	-.026260	-.021309	-.246	.8062
9. Stress	-.023806	-.020438	-.231	.8177
10. Workload	.017510	.013333	.161	.8727

In the 1-2 year length of service subset 5 influential outliers are deleted from the analysis (cases: 93, 108, 55, 71, and 20). The standard multiple regression generates a model which explains 62.79% (p=.000) of the variation in overall job satisfaction (Table 4.26). The facets sense of accomplishment, adequacy of orientation and training, and approval of supervisor are the only statistically significant predictors of job satisfaction identified in this model. Each of these facets have a positive relationship to the dependent variable. The facet pertaining to sense of accomplishment is identified as the strongest predictor of job satisfaction.

TABLE 4.26

Facets Entering The 1-2 Year Length Of Service Job Satisfaction Model

Facets	B	Beta	T	Sig T
1. Sense of accomplishment	.511941	.330054	3.050	.0039
2. Adequacy of orientation and training	.257654	.225534	2.183	.0345
3. Approval of supervisor	.182946	.421062	3.019	.0042
4. Workload	.137982	.151095	1.288	.2046
5. Interpersonal conflict	-.075803	-.077682	-.755	.4544
6. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a less serious nature	.074413	.087577	.704	.4853
7. Role ambiguity	.047311	.091205	.642	.5243
8. Stress	-.022730	-.025063	-.200	.8425
9. Risk of victimization	.015175	.012690	.112	.9114
10. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a more serious nature	.004286	.005148	.047	.9624

In the 2+ years length of service subset 1 influential outlier is deleted from the analysis (case: 44). The standard multiple regression generates a model which explains 52.40% (p=.000) of the variation in the dependent variable (Table 4.27). The facet sense of accomplishment is the only statistically significant predictor of job satisfaction identified in this model. This facet has a positive relationship to the dependent variable.

TABLE 4.27

Facets Entering The 2+ Years Length Of Service Job Satisfaction Model

Facets	B	Beta	T	Sig T
1. Sense of accomplishment	.581007	.535679	4.570	.0000
2. Adequacy of orientation and training	.150755	.148677	1.298	.2003
3. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a less serious nature	-.095439	-.164333	-1.374	.1758
4. Approval of supervisor	.092092	.276426	1.851	.0701
5. Workload	-.087440	-.128313	-1.078	.2863
6. Interpersonal conflict	.069937	.102996	.687	.4951
7. Stress	.044269	.072106	.548	.5863
8. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a more serious nature	.010220	.020073	.170	.8656
9. Role ambiguity	-.003169	-.007514	-.050	.9602
10. Risk of victimization	-.002883	-.003311	-.031	.9756

The order in which the facets enter the standard regression models are presented in Table 4.28. The only statistically significant predictor (facet) common to each of the three models is sense of accomplishment.

TABLE 4.28

Summary Of Facets Entering The Length Of Service Job Satisfaction Models

Facets & Single Item	Length Of Service Divisions: 1 Year	1-2 Years	> 2 Years
1. Approval of supervisor		3	
2. Role ambiguity	2		
3. Workload			
4. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a more serious nature			
5. Interpersonal conflict			
6. Stress			
7. Sense of accomplishment	1	1	1
8. Adequacy of orientation and training		2	
9. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a less serious nature			
10. Risk of victimization	3		
Total variance explained by each model:	64.93%	62.79%	52.40%

Oneway analysis of variance is employed to determine if the variances across the three length of service subsets are homogeneous. Variances demonstrated to be heterogeneous may effect the accuracy of F and P tests of significance, particularly when sample sizes differ. The F and P statistics are sensitive to the assumptions that the observations sampled are from a normal distribution, are independent, and that group variance is equal (Schlotzhauer and Littell, 1987:221). If these assumptions are not satisfied, then it is possible to reach one of two conclusions: that differences exist in the population when in fact no difference exists (Type I error), or, that that no difference exists in the population when in fact there are differences (Type II error). Oneway analysis of variance is considered an appropriate test for analysis of variance for balanced (equal sample sizes) and unbalanced (unequal sample sizes) data (Schlotzhauer and Littell, 1987:223).

In the present study, the homogeneity (or heterogeneity) of variances is assessed through Bartlett-Box F. This analysis is reported in Table 4.30, and indicates that variance heterogeneity is not present; that is, that the sample populations are of equal variances (normal distribution of values). The oneway analysis of variance also indicates that statistically significant differences exist in the means of the facet sense of accomplishment across the length of service divisions (Table 4.29). Thus, the null hypothesis which states that volunteers express the same attitudes about the facet sense of accomplishment is rejected. The oneway analysis indicates that as the length of volunteer service increases, sense of accomplishment decreases.

TABLE 4.29

Oneway Analysis Of Variance Of Length Of Service Divisions

Facets & Single Item	Length Of Service Divisions: 1 Year Means	1-2 Year Means	>2 Year Means	F Ratio	F Prob.
1. Approval of supervisor	1.2766	1.2968	1.2762	.0503	.9509
2. Role ambiguity	1.1182	1.1545	2.0504	1.2584	.2864
3. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a more serious nature	1.3891	1.4587	1.4336	.2689	.7645
4. Workload	1.3848	1.4271	1.4741	.6169	.5407
5. Interpersonal conflict	1.1156	1.2237	1.2138	1.1336	.3239
6. Stress	1.2666	1.4566	1.4149	2.6746	.0714
7. Adequacy of orientation and training	1.2180	1.2461	1.1190	.9318	.3956
8. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a less serious nature	1.9523	1.9073	2.0468	1.0257	.3604
9. Sense of accomplishment	1.5624	1.4951	1.3491	3.7906	.0242
10. Risk of victimization	1.3237	1.3433	1.3471	.0311	.9694

Note: The calculation of the means is based upon responses to interval scales which range from 1 to 3 for facet 7, and from 1 to 5 for the other nine facets.

TABLE 4.30

Test For Homogeneity Of Variances Of Facets By Length Of Service

Facets & Single Item	Bartlett-Box F	P
1. Approval of supervisor	2.277	.103
2. Role ambiguity	.451	.637
3. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a more serious nature	2.096	.123
4. Workload	.139	.870
5. Interpersonal conflict	.150	.860
6. Stress	.435	.648
7. Adequacy of orientation and training	.584	.558
8. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a less serious nature	.398	.672
9. Sense of accomplishment	.995	.370
10. Risk of victimization	.503	.605

Note: The calculation of the means is based upon responses to interval scales which range from 1 to 3 for facet 7, and from 1 to 5 for the other nine facets.

4.1.6 Summary

The number of facets identified in the present model are fewer than the number of facets identified in other research (ie. Ferratt, 1981); a finding which is not entirely unexpected considering the exploratory nature of the present research. Had the sample size been larger, a

greater number of independent variables incorporated into the analysis might have permitted additional facets to be identified, and more variation in the dependent variable to be explained.

The factor analysis and varimax rotation of the 35 independent variables identifies these 10 facets in this order: approval of supervisor, role ambiguity, likelihood of victimization through crimes of a more serious nature, workload, serious crimes, interpersonal conflict, stress, adequacy of orientation and training, sense of accomplishment, likelihood of victimization through crimes of a less serious nature, and risk of victimization.

The multiple classification analysis confirms that the demographic variables perform poorly as indicators of job satisfaction. The standard multiple regression for the total sample explains 55.63% of the variation in job satisfaction. The regression analysis performed with the gender subsets explains 55.09% and 66.39% of the variation in job satisfaction in the male and female subsets, respectively. The facet sense of accomplishment emerges as the strongest predictor of job satisfaction in the total sample, and in both gender subsets.

The total sample is then divided into subsets which comprise: single respondents and married respondents; university educated respondents and respondents whose education in not university level; volunteers whose motivation to volunteer is either intrinsic or extrinsic; and volunteers whose length of service is no longer than a year, between 1 to 2 years, or more than 2 years. Sense of accomplishment emerges most frequently as the strongest statistically

significant predictor of job satisfaction (Table 4.31). In three of these twelve subsets (Tables 4.15, 4.21, and 4.25) facets pertaining to victimization are identified as statistically significant predictors of job satisfaction. These three facets bear a positive relationship to overall job satisfaction. The positive direction of this relationship is attributed to the fact that the majority of respondent have indicated through the survey instrument that while they conceded that the occurrence of workplace victimization to is a likelihood, the majority do not fear it (Tables 4.73 and 4.74).

The only facet identified as a statistically significant predictor of job satisfaction to have a negative relationship to the dependent variable is the facet pertaining to the likelihood of victimization through crimes of a less serious nature in the subset comprised of non-university educated respondents. All other statistically significant facets in all other subsets have a positive relationship to the dependent variable.

Table 4.31 summarizes the order in which the facets enter each of the regression models as a statistically significant predictor of job satisfaction. A value of "1" indicates the strongest statistically significant predictor while a value of "3" or "4" indicates the least strongest statistically significant predictor (depending upon the number of facets entering the model). Overall, the facets which appear most frequently as statistically significant predictors of volunteer job satisfaction across the twelve subsets are (in this order): sense of accomplishment, approval of supervisor, and role ambiguity.

TABLE 4.31

Summary Of Facets Entering The 12 Job Satisfaction Models

Facets & Single Item	Models 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Approval of supervisor	2	3	3	2		2	2	2	2		3	
2. Role ambiguity	3	2				3	3	3	4	2		
3. Workload												
4. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a more serious nature					3							
5. Interpersonal conflict												
6. Stress												
7. Sense of accomplishment	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
8. Adequacy of orientation and training			2	3							2	
9. Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a less serious nature					2							
10. Risk of victimization									3	3		

Models:
1 = Total sample
2 = Male respondents subset
3 = Female respondents subset
4 = University educated respondents subset
5 = Non-university educated respondents subset
6 = Single respondents subset
7 = Married respondents subset
8 = Intrinsically motivated respondents subset
9 = Extrinsically motivated respondents subset
10 = 1 year length of service respondents subset
11 = 1-2 years length of service respondents subset
12 = 2+ years length of service respondents subset

4.2 WORKPLACE DANGER CROSSTABULATION ANALYSIS

Crosstabulation analysis permits examination of the relationship of independent variables to a dependent variable. In crosstabulation analyses the strength and direction of ordinal variables is assessed through the value for Gamma, and the value for Lambda reflects the direction and strength of nominal variables. Values for Gamma range from -1.00 to +1.00, and values for Lambda range from 0.00 to 1.00. In the present analysis, the level of significance for Lambda and Gamma is 0.05, thereby indicating a 5% probability that the observed relationship between an independent variable and the dependent variable occurs by chance. When Lambda and Gamma values are statistically significant, this indicates that the relationship between the crosstabulated variables cannot be explained away by sampling error or by chance.

Each pair of crosstabulated variables is also subjected to an analysis of variance (ANOVA). This procedure calculates the mean of the independent and dependent variable, and compares the variance which overlaps between each of the means. This test determines whether or not the between-group variation that occurs between each pair of variables is larger than what would be expected by chance. Statistical significance in the ANOVA test is indicated through the "p" value [for example: $F(3,180)=2.469$, $p=.064$]. A statistically significant "p" value is $<=.05$, and indicates that the mean of the independent variable and the mean of the dependent variable are significantly different enough to permit a crosstabulation analysis. A "p" value that is not statistically significant indicates that the mean of the independent variable and the mean of the dependent variable are not significantly different enough to

permit a crosstabulation analysis, and therefore, the statistical information generated through such a crosstabulation analysis is considered invalid.

Crosstabulated with twelve "likelihood of victimization" (independent) variables is a "fear of crime" (dependent) variable, the latter of which is formulated from respondent replies to this question: "In your role as a volunteer, to what extent do you fear becoming a victim of crime as a result of being in contact with offenders at your corrections office/facility?" The response choices accompanying the fear of crime variable and the 12 variables pertaining to the likelihood of victimization are: "greatly fear it", "moderately fear it", "somewhat fear it", "don't fear it at all", and "undecided." These response choices are recoded as: 1="high", 2="moderate", 3="low", and 4="no". The undecided responses are omitted from the analyses.

The crosstabulations generate percentages which, when combined (high, moderate, low), permit a general consideration of respondent attitude towards the fear of crime and towards the likelihood of victimization. For example, when the high (10.9%) moderate (33.2%) and low (44.6%) percentages are combined, we may conclude that 88.7% of the respondents concede the possibility of being verbally abused and 20.6% indicate a fear of crime in relation to this type of victimization (Table 4.32). This procedure is performed in Tables 4.32 to 4.67 and in Tables 4.69 to 4.71, and is summarized in Tables 4.72 to 4.74.

The first independent variable crosstabulated with the fear of crime is the likelihood of victimization through verbal abuse. Chi-square is not statistically significant. In this analysis 21.0% of the respondents express a fear of crime, and 88.7% of the respondents acknowledge a likelihood of being verbally abused (Table 4.32). Anova: F(3,180)=2.469, p=.064.

TABLE 4.32

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of Verbal Abuse

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of Verbal Abuse				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	15.0	3.3	2.4	0.0	7	3.8%
Low	15.0	24.6	13.4	9.5	31	16.8%
None	70.0	72.1	84.1	90.5	146	79.3%
Column Total	20	61	82	21	184	
Column %	10.9%	33.2%	44.6%	11.4%	100.0%	
Missing = 18						

Chi-square	12.47395	Gamma	0.34569
d.f.	6	Significance	0.05219

When the analysis of fear of crime and the likelihood of victimization through verbal abuse is controlled by gender, chi-square in the male subset is not statistically significant. In the male subset 18.7% of the respondents express a fear of crime, and 87.2% of the respondents acknowledge a likelihood of victimization through verbal abuse (Table 4.33). ANOVA: $F(3,82)=1.976$, $p=.124$.

TABLE 4.33

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of Verbal Abuse For Males

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of Verbal Abuse				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	7.1	9.5	2.5	0.0	4	4.7%
Low	14.3	23.8	12.5	0.0	12	14.0%
None	78.6	66.7	85.0	100.0	70	81.4%
Column Total	14	21	40	11		86
Column %	16.3%	24.4%	46.5%	12.8%		100.0%
Missing = 7						

Chi-square	6.33201	Gamma	0.41667
d.f.	6	Significance	0.38704

In the female subset chi-square is statistically significant at the 0.05 level. Gamma indicates that an increase in the likelihood of victimization through verbal abuse produces an increase in fear of crime; 22.5% of the respondents express a fear of crime, and 89.8% acknowledge a likelihood of being verbally abused (Table 4.34). ANOVA: F(3,94)=3.094, p=.031.

TABLE 4.34

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of Verbal Abuse For Females

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of Verbal Abuse				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	33.3	0.0	2.4	0.0	3	3.1%
Low	16.7	25.0	14.3	20.0	19	19.4%
None	50.0	75.0	83.3	80.0	76	77.6%
Column Total	6	40	42	10		98
Column %	6.1%	40.8%	42.9%	10.2%		100.0%
Missing = 11						

Chi-square	21.60379	Gamma	0.29105
d.f.	6	Significance	0.00143

The second independent variable crosstabulated with fear of crime is the likelihood of victimization through a property theft. Chi-square is not statistically significant. In this analysis 70.0% of the respondents acknowledge a likelihood of victimization through a property theft, and 20.6% of the respondents express a fear of crime (Table 4.35). ANOVA: F(3,176)=1.065, p=.365.

TABLE 4.35

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of Property Theft

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of Property Theft				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	11.1	7.7	2.6	1.9	7	3.9%
Low	22.2	15.4	19.2	13.0	30	16.7%
None	66.7	76.9	78.2	85.2	143	79.4%
Column Total	9	39	78	54	180	
Column %	5.0%	21.7%	43.3%	30.0%	100.0%	
Missing = 22						

Chi-square	4.99861	Gamma	0.20714
d.f.	6	Significance	0.54399

When the analysis of fear of crime and the likelihood of victimization through a property theft is controlled by gender, chi-square is not statistically significant in the male or female subset. In the male subset, 19.1% of the respondents express a fear of crime, and 67.9% of the respondents acknowledge a likelihood of victimization through a property theft (Table 4.36). ANOVA: $F(3,80)=.995$, $p=.400$.

In the female subset, 21.9% of the respondents express a fear of crime, and 71.9% of the respondents acknowledge a likelihood of victimization through a property theft (Table 4.37). ANOVA: $F(3,92)=.336$, $p=.799$.

TABLE 4.36

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of Property Theft For Males

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of Property Theft				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	0.0	10.0	2.9	3.7	4	4.8%
Low	50.0	15.0	20.0	3.7	12	14.3%
None	50.0	75.0	77.1	92.6	68	81.0%
Column Total	2	20	35	27		84
Column %	2.4%	23.8%	41.7%	32.1%		100.0%
Missing = 9						

Chi-square	7.12592	Gamma	0.39487
d.f.	6	Significance	0.30936

TABLE 4.37

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of Property Theft For Females

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of Property Theft				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	14.3	5.3	2.3	0.0	3	3.1%
Low	14.3	15.8	18.6	22.2	18	18.8%
None	71.4	78.9	79.1	77.8	75	78.1%
Column Total	7	19	43	27		96
Column %	7.3%	19.8%	44.8%	28.1%		100.0%
Missing = 13						

Chi-square	4.38429	Gamma	0.05112
d.f.	6	Significance	0.62482

The third independent variable crosstabulated with fear of crime is the likelihood of victimization through a physical attack that does not involve the use of a weapon. Chi-square is statistically significant at the .01 level. Gamma indicates that as the likelihood of victimization through a physical attack that does not involve the use of a weapon increases, fear of crime increases. In this analysis, 67.1% of the respondents acknowledge a likelihood of victimization through a physical attack that does not involve the use of a weapon, and 20.2% of the respondents express a fear of crime (Table 4.38). ANOVA: F(3,179)=4.478, p=.005.

TABLE 4.38

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of An Assault Without A Weapon Involved

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of An Assault Without The Use Of A Weapon				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	33.3	10.0	3.0	1.7	7	3.8%
Low	33.3	15.0	22.0	6.7	30	16.4%
None	33.3	75.0	75.0	91.7	146	79.8%
Column Total	3	20	100	60		183
Column %	1.6%	10.9%	54.6%	32.8%		100.0%
Missing = 19						

Chi-square	17.87789	Gamma	0.45586
d.f.	6	Significance	0.00654

When the analysis of fear of crime and the likelihood of an assault not involving a weapon is controlled by gender, chi-square is statistically significant only in the female subset. In the male subset, 18.7% of the respondents express a fear of crime, and 65.1% of the respondents acknowledge a likelihood of victimization through assault not involving a weapon (Table 4.39). ANOVA: F(3,82)=1.701, p=.173.

TABLE 4.39

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of An Assault Without A Weapon Involved For Males

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of An Assault Without The Use Of A Weapon				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	0.0	12.5	4.3	3.3	4	4.7%
Low	50.0	12.5	21.7	0.0	12	14.0%
None	50.0	75.0	73.9	96.7	70	81.4%
Column Total	2	8	46	30		86
Column %	2.3%	9.3%	53.5%	34.9%		100.0%
Missing = 7						

Chi-square	10.79095	Gamma	0.58680
d.f.	6	Significance	0.09506

In the female subset, chi-square is statistically significant at the .00001 level. Gamma indicates that as the likelihood of victimization through an assault not involving a weapon increases, fear of crime increases. In addition, 21.7% of the respondents express a fear of crime, and 69.1% of the respondents acknowledge a likelihood of victimization through an assault not involving a weapon (Table 4.40). ANOVA: F(3,93)=5.380, p=.002.

TABLE 4.40

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of An Assault Without A Weapon Involved For Females

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of An Assault Without The Use Of A Weapon				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	100.0	8.3	1.9	0.0	2	3.1%
Low	0.0	16.7	22.2	13.3	18	18.6%
None	0.0	75.0	75.9	86.7	71	78.4%
Column Total	1	12	54	30		97
Column %	1.0%	12.4%	55.7%	30.9%		100.0%
Missing = 12						

Chi-square	34.77330	Gamma	0.34362
d.f.	6	Significance	0.00000

The fourth independent variable crosstabulated with the fear of crime is the likelihood of victimization through an assault involving the use of a weapon. Chi-square is statistically significant at the 0.005 level. Gamma indicates that as the likelihood of victimization through an assault involving the use of a weapon increases, fear of crime increases. In this analysis 52.8% of the respondents acknowledge a likelihood of victimization through an assault involving the use of a weapon, and 20.8% of the respondents express a fear of crime (Table 4.41). ANOVA: $F(3,174)=4.041$, $p=.008$.

TABLE 4.41

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of An Assault Involving The Use Of A Weapon

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of An Assault Involving The Use Of A Weapon				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	0.0	33.3	4.7	1.2	7	3.9%
Low	50.1	16.7	19.8	13.1	30	16.9%
None	50.1	50.0	75.6	85.7	141	79.2%
Column Total	2	6	86	84	178	
Column %	1.1%	3.4%	48.3%	47.2%	100.0%	
Missing = 24						

Chi-square	18.88040	Gamma	0.39234
d.f.	6	Significance	0.00437

When the analysis is controlled by gender, chi-square is statistically significant at the 0.05 level in the male subset, and at the .00005 level in the female subset. Gamma indicates in both subsets that increases in the likelihood of victimization through an assault involving a weapon produce increases in the fear of crime. In the male subset 19.5% of the respondents express a fear crime, and 53.6% of the respondents acknowledge the likelihood of victimization through an assault involving a weapon (Table 4.42). ANOVA: $F(3,78)=3.298$, $p=.025$.

In the female subset 21.9% of the respondents express a fear of crime and 52.1% of the respondents acknowledge a likelihood of victimization through an assault involving a weapon (Table 4.43). ANOVA: $F(3,92)=6.550$, $p=.000$.

TABLE 4.42

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of An Assault Involving The Use Of A Weapon For Males

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of An Assault Involving The Use Of A Weapon				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	0.0	0.0	7.3	2.6	4	4.9%
Low	100.0	0.0	24.4	2.6	12	14.6%
None	0.0	100.0	68.3	94.7	65	80.5%
Column Total	1	2	45	38		82
Column %	1.2%	2.4%	50.0%	46.3%		100.0%
Missing = 11						

Chi-square	15.33493	Gamma	0.68603
d.f.	6	Significance	0.01781

TABLE 4.43

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of An Assault Involving The Use Of A Weapon For Females

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of An Assault Involving The Use Of A Weapon				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	0.0	50.0	2.2	0.0	3	3.1%
Low	0.0	25.0	15.6	21.7	18	18.8%
None	100.0	25.0	82.2	78.3	75	78.1%
Column Total	1	4	45	46		96
Column %	1.0%	4.2%	46.9%	47.9%		100.0%
Missing = 13						

Chi-square	32.04911	Gamma	0.14672
d.f.	6	Significance	0.00002

The fifth independent variable crosstabulated with fear of crime is the likelihood of victimization through a hostage-taking. Chi-square is statistically significant at the 0.05 level. In this analysis 40.6% of the respondents acknowledge a likelihood of victimization through a hostage-taking, and 21.1% of the respondents express a fear of crime. Gamma indicates that increases in the likelihood of victimization through a hostage-taking produce increases in fear of crime (Table 4.44). ANOVA: F(2,174)=4.434, p=.013.

TABLE 4.44

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of A Hostage Taking

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of Hostage Taking				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	0.0	20.0	7.5	1.0	7	4.0%
Low	0.0	40.0	16.4	16.2	30	16.9%
None	0.0	40.0	76.1	82.9	140	79.1%
Column Total	0	5	67	105	177	
Column %	0.0%	2.8%	37.9%	59.3%	100.0%	
Missing = 25						

Chi-square	10.57627	Gamma	0.31079
d.f.	4	Significance	0.03176

When this analysis is controlled by gender, chi-square is statistically significant at the .005 level in the male subset, and at the .05 level in female subset. In the male subset 19.5% of the respondents express a fear of crime, and 40.2% of the respondents acknowledge a likelihood of victimization through a hostage-taking (Table 4.45). ANOVA: F(2,79)=3.792, p=.027.

TABLE 4.45

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of A Hostage Taking For Males

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of Hostage Taking				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	0.0	0.0	9.7	2.0	4	4.9%
Low	0.0	100.0	16.1	10.2	12	14.6%
None	0.0	0.0	74.2	87.8	66	80.5%
Column Total	0	2	31	49		82
Column %	0.0%	2.4%	37.8%	59.8%		100.0%
Missing = 11						

Chi-square	15.11765	Gamma	0.52959
d.f.	4	Significance	0.00446

In the female subset 22.1% of the respondents express a fear of crime and 41.1% of the respondents acknowledge a likelihood of victimization through a hostage-taking (Table 4.46). ANOVA is is not statistically significant however: F(2,92)=1.222, p=.229; indicating that the means pertaining to the likelihood of victimization and to the fear of crime are not significantly different.

TABLE 4.46

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of A Hostage Taking For Females

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of Hostage Taking				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	0.0	33.3	5.6	0.0	3	3.2%
Low	0.0	0.0	16.7	21.4	18	18.9%
None	0.0	66.7	77.8	78.6	74	77.9%
Column Total	0	3	36	56		95
Column %	0.0%	3.2%	37.9%	58.9%		100.0%
Missing = 14						

Chi-square	11.97519	Gamma	0.10689
d.f.	4	Significance	0.01754

The sixth independent variable crosstabulated with fear of crime is the the likelihood of victimization through a sexual attack not involving a weapon. Chi-square is statistically significant at the 0.01 level. Gamma indicates that as the likelihood of victimization increases, fear of crime increases. This analysis reveals 36.5% of the respondents acknowledge a likelihood victimization through a sexual through a sexual attack not involving a weapon, and 20.0% of the respondents express a fear of crime (Table 4.47). ANOVA: $F(3,172)=4.077$, $p=.008$.

TABLE 4.47

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of A Sexual Assault Without The Use Of A Weapon

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of A Sexual Assault Without The Use Of A Weapon				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	0.0	33.3	6.7	0.9	6	3.4%
Low	0.0	0.0	25.0	12.5	29	16.5%
None	100.0	66.7	68.3	86.6	141	80.1%
Column Total	1	3	60	112	176	
Column %	0.6%	1.7%	34.1%	63.6%	100.0%	
Missing = 26						

Chi-square	17.98711	Gamma	0.47624
d.f.	6	Significance	0.00626

When the analysis is controlled by gender, chi-square is statistically significant only in the female subset; at the 0.05 level. Gamma in the female subset indicates that increases in the likelihood of victimization through a sexual attack produce increases in fear of crime. In the male subset 18.1% of the respondents acknowledge a fear of crime, and 21.7% of the respondents acknowledge a likelihood of victimization through a sexual attack (Table 4.48). ANOVA: $F(1,81)=5.100$, $p=.027$.

In the female subset 22.5% of the respondents express a fear of crime, and 49.5% of the respondents acknowledge a likelihood of a sexual assault not involving a weapon (Table 4.49). ANOVA: $F(3,89)=2.435$, $p=.070$.

TABLE 4.48

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of A Sexual Assault Without The Use Of A Weapon For Males

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of A Sexual Assault Without The Use Of A Weapon				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	0.0	0.0	11.1	1.5	3	3.6%
Low	0.0	0.0	22.2	12.3	12	14.5%
None	0.0	0.0	66.7	86.2	68	81.9%
Column Total	0	0	18	65		83
Column %	0.0%	0.0%	21.7%	78.3%		100.0%
Missing = 10						

Chi-square	5.18558	Gamma	0.51724
d.f.	2	Significance	0.07481

TABLE 4.49

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of A Sexual Assault Without The Use Of A Weapon For Females

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of A Sexual Assault Without The Use Of A Weapon				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	0.0	33.3	4.8	0.0	3	3.2%
Low	0.0	0.0	26.2	12.8	17	18.3%
None	100.0	66.7	69.0	87.2	73	78.5%
Column Total	1	3	42	47		93
Column %	1.1%	3.2%	45.2%	50.5%		100.0%
Missing = 16						

Chi-square	14.28369	Gamma	0.46296
d.f.	6	Significance	0.02662

The seventh independent variable crosstabulated with the fear of crime is the likelihood of becoming a victim of a sexual attack involving a weapon. Chi-square is statistically significant at the 0.00005 level. Gamma indicates that as the likelihood of victimization through a sexual attack involving a weapon increases, fear of crime increases. This analysis reveals that 35.9% of the respondents acknowledge a likelihood of victimization through a sexual attack involving a weapon, and 20.8% of the respondents express a fear crime (Table 4.50). ANOVA: F(3,174)=4.542, p=.004.

TABLE 4.50

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of A Sexual Assault Involving A Weapon

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of A Sexual Assault Involving A Weapon				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	0.0	50.0	5.1	0.9	6	3.4%
Low	0.0	0.0	22.0	15.8	31	17.4%
None	100.0	50.0	72.9	83.3	141	79.2%
Column Total	1	4	59	114	178	
Column %	0.6%	2.2%	33.1%	64.0%	100.0%	
Missing = 24						

Chi-square	31.24715	Gamma	0.34223
d.f.	6	Significance	0.00002

When the analysis is controlled by gender, chi-square is statistically significant at the 0.05 level in the male subset and at the .00005 level in the female subset. Gamma indicates in both subsets that as the likelihood of victimization through a sexual attack involving a weapon increases, fear of crime increases. In the male subset 17.9% of the respondents express a fear crime and 20.2% acknowledge a likelihood of victimization through a sexual attack involving a weapon (Table 4.51). ANOVA: F(1,82)=6.125, p=.015.

TABLE 4.51

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of A Sexual Assault Involving A Weapon For Males

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of A Sexual Assault Involving A Weapon				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	0.0	0.0	11.8	1.5	3	3.6%
Low	0.0	0.0	23.5	11.9	12	14.3%
None	0.0	0.0	64.7	86.6	69	82.1%
Column Total	0	0	17	67		84
Column %	0.0%	0.0%	20.2%	79.8%		100.0%
Missing = 9						

Chi-square	6.06985	Gamma	0.14796
d.f.	2	Significance	0.04808

In the female subset 17.9% of the respondents indicate a fear of crime, and 50.1% of the respondents acknowledge a likelihood of victimization through a sexual assault not involving a weapon (Table 4.52). ANOVA: F(3,90)=3.219, p=.026.

TABLE 4.52

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of A Sexual Assault Involving A Weapon For Females

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of A Sexual Assault Involving A Weapon				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	0.0	50.0	2.4	0.0	3	3.2%
Low	0.0	0.0	21.4	21.3	19	20.2%
None	100.0	50.0	76.2	78.7	72	76.6%
Column Total	1	4	42	47		94
Column %	1.1%	4.3%	44.7%	50.0%		100.0%
Missing = 15						

Chi-square	30.61660	Gamma	0.18550
d.f.	6	Significance	0.00003

The eighth independent variable crosstabulated with the fear of crime variable is the likelihood of victimization through an inappropriate sexual advance. Chi-square is statistically significant at the .00005 level. Gamma indicates that increases in the likelihood of victimization through an inappropriate sexual advance produce increases in fear of crime. This analysis reveals that 60.2% of the respondents acknowledge the likelihood of such an attack occuring, and 20.4% of the respondents express a fear of crime (Table 4.53). ANOVA: $F(3,177)=5.022$, $p=.001$.

TABLE 4.53

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of An Inappropriate Sexual Advance

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of An Inappropriate Sexual Advance				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	40.0	0.0	3.6	1.4	6	3.3%
Low	0.0	30.0	23.8	6.9	31	17.1%
None	60.0	70.0	72.6	91.7	144	79.6%
Column Total	5	20	84	72	181	
Column %	2.8%	11.0%	46.4%	39.8%	100.0%	
Missing = 21						

Chi-square	33.43016	Gamma	0.48258
d.f.	6	Significance	0.00001 *

When the analysis is controlled by gender, chi-square is statistically significant at the 0.05 level in the male subset and at .0005 level in the female subset. In both subsets Gamma indicates that increases in the likelihood of victimization through an inappropriate sexual advance produce increases in fear of crime. In the male subset 17.9% of the respondents express a fear crime, and 41.7% of the respondents acknowledge a likelihood of victimization through an inappropriate sexual advance (Table 4.54). ANOVA: $F(2,82)=4.674$, $p=.012$.

In the female subset 20.4% of the respondents express a fear of crime and 60.2% of the respondents acknowledge a likelihood of victimization through an inappropriate sexual advance (Table 4.55). ANOVA: $F(3,93)=2.553$, $p=.012$.

TABLE 4.54

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of An Inappropriate Sexual Advance For Males

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of An Inappropriate Sexual Advance				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	0.0	0.0	6.3	2.0	3	3.6%
Low	0.0	33.3	28.1	4.1	12	14.3%
None	0.0	66.7	65.6	93.9	69	82.1%
Column Total	0	3	32	49		84
Column %	0.0%	3.6%	38.1%	58.3%		100.0%
Missing = 9						

Chi-square	11.66673	Gamma	0.69706
d.f.	4	Significance	0.02001

TABLE 4.55

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of An Inappropriate Sexual Advance For Females

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of An Inappropriate Sexual Advance				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	40.0	0.0	1.9	0.0	3	3.1%
Low	0.0	29.4	21.2	13.0	19	19.6%
None	60.0	70.6	76.9	87.0	75	77.3%
Column Total	5	17	52	23		97
Column %	5.2%	17.5%	53.6%	23.7%		100.0%
Missing = 12						

Chi-square	26.44439	Gamma	0.33028
d.f.	6	Significance	0.00018

The ninth independent variable crosstabulated with the fear of crime and the likelihood of victimization through being lied to. Chi-square is not statistically significant. This analysis reveals 20.6% of the respondents acknowledge a fear of crime, and 97.3% of the respondents acknowledge a likelihood of victimization of being lied to (Table 4.56). ANOVA: F(3,181)=2.612, p=.053.

TABLE 4.56

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of Being Lied To

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of Being Lied To				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	6.5	1.3	0.0	20.0	7	3.8%
Low	22.1	15.4	8.0	0.0	31	16.8%
None	71.4	83.3	92.0	80.0	147	79.5%
Column Total	77	78	25	5	185	
Column %	41.6%	42.2%	13.5%	2.7%	100.0%	
Missing = 17						

Chi-square	11.84315	Gamma	0.36351
d.f.	6	Significance	0.06556

When the analysis is controlled by gender, chi-square is statistically significant in the male subset only, and at the 0.05 level. In the male subset 18.8% of the respondents express a fear crime, and 96.5% of the respondents acknowledge a likelihood of victimization through being lied to (Table 4.57). ANOVA: F(3,81)=2.411, p=.073. In the female subset 22.0% of the respondents express a fear crime, and 98.0% of the respondents acknowledge a likelihood of victimization through being lied to (Table 4.58). ANOVA: F(3,96)=1.069, p=.366.

TABLE 4.57

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of Being Lied To For Males

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of Being Lied To				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	5.4	2.9	0.0	33.3	4	4.7%
Low	24.3	8.6	0.0	0.0	12	14.1%
None	70.3	88.6	100.0	66.7	69	81.2%
Column Total	37	35	10	3		85
Column %	43.5%	41.2%	11.8%	3.5%		100.0%
Missing = 8						

Chi-square	12.60818	Gamma	0.46592
d.f.	6	Significance	0.04970

TABLE 4.58

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of Being Lied To For Females

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of Being Lied To				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	7.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	3	3.0%
Low	20.0	22.9	13.3	0.0	19	19.0%
None	72.5	79.1	86.7	100.0	78	78.0%
Column Total	40	43	15	2		100
Column %	40.0%	43.0%	15.0%	2.0%		100.0%
Missing = 9						

Chi-square	5.66886	Gamma	0.29508
d.f.	6	Significance	0.46129

The tenth independent variable crosstabulated with the fear of crime and the likelihood of victimization through car vandalism. Chi-square is statistically significant at the .005 level, and Gamma indicates that increases in the likelihood of car vandalism produce increases in fear of crime. This analysis reveals that 69.1% of the respondents acknowledge a likelihood of car vandalism, and 20.8% express a fear of crime (Table 4.59). ANOVA: F(3,174)=3.808, p=.011.

TABLE 4.59

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of Car Vandalism

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of Car Vandalism				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	0.0	11.1	2.2	1.8	6	3.4%
Low	75.0	18.5	20.7	7.3	31	17.4%
None	25.0	70.4	77.2	90.9	141	79.2%
Column Total	4	27	92	55	178	
Column %	2.2%	15.2%	51.7%	30.9%	100.0%	
Missing = 24						

Chi-square	19.90409	Gamma	0.45797
d.f.	6	Significance	0.00288

When the analysis is controlled by gender, chi-square is statistically significant only in the female subset; at the 0.05 level. In the male subset 19.7% of the respondents express a fear crime, and 74.1% of the respondents acknowledge a likelihood of victimization through car vandalism (Table 4.60). ANOVA: F(3,77)=1.372, p=.258.

TABLE 4.60

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of Car Vandalism For Males

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of Car Vandalism				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	0.0	9.1	4.3	4.8	4	4.9%
Low	66.7	18.2	17.4	0.0	12	14.8%
None	33.3	72.7	78.3	95.2	65	80.2%
Column Total	3	11	46	21		81
Column %	3.7%	13.6%	56.8%	25.9%		100.0%
Missing = 8						

Chi-square	10.92294	Gamma	0.51807
d.f.	6	Significance	0.09079

In the female subset 21.7% of the respondents express a fear crime, and and 64.9% of the respondents acknowledge a likelihood of victimization through car vandalism (Table 4.61). Gamma indicates that increases in the likelihood of victimization through car vandalism produce increases in fear of crime. ANOVA: F(3,93)=2.672, p=.052.

TABLE 4.61

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of Car Vandalism For Females

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of Car Vandalism				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	0.0	12.5	0.0	0.0	2	2.1%
Low	100.0	18.8	23.9	11.8	19	19.6%
None	0.0	68.8	76.1	88.2	76	78.4%
Column Total	1	16	46	34		97
Column %	1.0%	16.5%	47.4%	35.1%		100.0%
Missing = 12						

Chi-square	16.35933	Gamma	0.42509
d.f.	6	Significance	0.01195

The eleventh independent variable crosstabulated with the fear of crime is the likelihood of victimization through an obscene phone call at home. Chi-square is statistically significant at the .00001. Gamma indicates that increases in the likelihood of victimization through an obscene phone call at home produce increases in fear of crime. In this analysis 20.6% of the respondents express a fear of crime and 49.1% of the respondents acknowledge a likelihood of victimization (Table 4.62). ANOVA: $F(3,181)=11.590$, $p=.000$.

TABLE 4.62

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of Receiving An Obscene Phone Call At Home

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of Receiving An Obscene Phone Call At Home				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	66.7	9.1	2.6	2.1	7	3.8%
Low	33.3	27.3	23.4	9.6	31	16.8%
None	0.0	63.6	74.0	88.3	147	79.5%
Column Total	3	11	77	94		185
Column %	1.6%	5.9%	41.6%	50.8%		100.0%
Missing = 8						

Chi-square	43.20419	Gamma	0.51024
d.f.	6	Significance	0.00000

When the analysis is controlled by gender, chi-square is statistically significant at the 0.05 level in the female subset and at the .00001 level in the male subset. In the male subset 18.7% of the respondents express a fear crime and 48.9% acknowledge a likelihood of victimization through an obscene phone call at home (Table 4.63). ANOVA: $F(3,82)=3.186$, $p=.028$.

In the female subset 22.5% of the respondents express a fear of crime and 49.5% of the respondents acknowledge a likelihood of victimization through an obscene phone call at home (Table 4.64). ANOVA: $F(3,95)=11.468$, $p=.000$.

TABLE 4.63

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of Receiving An Obscene Phone Call At Home For Males

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of Receiving An Obscene Phone Call At Home				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	0.0	25.0	5.4	2.3	4	4.7%
Low	100.0	25.0	18.9	6.8	12	14.0%
None	0.0	50.0	75.7	90.9	70	81.4%
Column Total	1	4	37	44		86
Column %	1.2%	4.7%	43.0%	51.2%		100.0%
Missing = 7						

Chi-square	14.03952	Gamma	0.58583
d.f.	6	Significance	0.02920

TABLE 4.64

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of Receiving An Obscene Phone Call At Home For Females

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of Receiving An Obscene Phone Call At Home				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	100.0	0.0	0.0	2.0	3	3.0%
Low	0.0	28.6	27.5	12.0	19	19.2%
None	0.0	71.4	72.5	86.0	77	77.8%
Column Total	2	7	40	50		99
Column %	2.0%	7.1%	40.4%	50.5%		100.0%
Missing = 7						

Chi-square	69.32054	Gamma	0.45112
d.f.	6	Significance	0.00000

The twelfth independent variable crosstabulated with the fear of crime and the likelihood of victimization by an upset offender coming to the personal residence of the respondent. Chi-square is statistically significant at the 0.0005 level. Gamma indicates that as the likelihood of victimization by an upset offender coming to the personal residence of the respondent increases, fear of crime increases. This analysis reveals that 46.8% of the respondents acknowledge a likelihood of victimization by an upset offender coming to their residence, and 20.6% of the respondents express a fear of crime (Table 4.65). ANOVA: $F(2,181)=9.341$, $p=.000$.

TABLE 4.65

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of An Upset Offender Coming To The Volunteer Residence

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of An Upset Offender Coming To Residence				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	0.0	33.3	5.0	1.0	7	3.8%
Low	0.0	33.3	20.0	13.3	31	16.8%
None	0.0	33.3	75.0	85.7	146	79.3%
Column Total	0	6	80	98		184
Column %	0.0%	3.3%	43.5%	53.3%		100.0%
Missing = 18						

Chi-square	20.52763	Gamma	0.43394
d.f.	4	Significance	0.00039

When the analysis is controlled by gender, chi-square is statistically significant at the 0.00001 level in the female subset, but is not significant in the male subset. In the male subset 18.7% of the respondents express a fear crime and 46.5% of the respondents acknowledge a likelihood of victimization by an upset offender coming to their residence (Table 4.66). ANOVA: F(2,83)=1.289, p=.281.

TABLE 4.66

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of An Upset Offender Coming To The Volunteer Residence For Males

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of An Upset Offender Coming To Residence				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	0.0	0.0	7.9	2.2	4	4.7%
Low	0.0	50.0	15.8	10.9	12	14.0%
None	0.0	50.0	76.3	87.0	70	81.4%
Column Total	0	2	38	46		86
Column %	0.0%	2.3%	44.2%	53.5%		100.0%
Missing = 7						

Chi-square	4.36466	Gamma	0.38103
d.f.	4	Significance	0.35890

In the female subset, Gamma indicates that increases in the likelihood of victimization by an upset offender coming to their residence produce increases in fear of crime. In addition, 22.5% of the respondents express a fear crime, and 47.0% acknowledge a likelihood of victimization by an upset offender coming to their residence (Table 4.67). ANOVA: F(2,95)=10.714, p=.000.

TABLE 4.67

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of An Upset Offender Coming To The Volunteer Residence For Females

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of An Upset Offender Coming To Residence				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	0.0	50.0	2.4	0.0	3	3.1%
Low	0.0	25.0	23.8	15.4	19	19.4%
None	0.0	25.0	73.8	84.6	76	77.6%
Column Total	0	4	42	52		98
Column %	0.0%	4.1%	42.9%	53.1%		100.0%
Missing = 7						

Chi-square	33.19766	Gamma	0.47502
d.f.	4	Significance	0.00000

T-test analysis reveals that the means pertaining to the likelihood of victimization by: (1) sexual assault that does not involve a weapon (.001), (2) an inappropriate sexual advance (.000), and (3) sexual assault that involves a weapon (.000), differ significantly between the male and female subsets (Table 4.68). On the basis of the observed significance levels we can reject the null hypothesis which suggests that males and females express the same attitude about these three types of victimizations. The analysis of the means indicates that both gender subsets believe that any of these three types of victimizations occuring is possible, and, that the likelihood of that any of these three types of victimizations occuring is at the "low" to "moderate" level; and, that males believe more strongly than the females in the likelihood of any of these three types of victimizations occuring.

TABLE 4.68

T-Test Comparison Of Likelihood Of Victimizations By Gender

Victimization Variable	Males	Females	T Value	2-Tail Prob.
1. Verbal abuse	2.5455	2.5876	-.33	.743
2. Property theft	3.1023	2.9588	1.09	.275
3. Assault (no weapon)	3.2045	3.2165	-.11	.910
4. Hostage-taking	3.6477	3.6495	-.02	.985
5. Assault (with weapon)	3.5114	3.4742	.37	.714
6. Sex assault (no weapon)	3.8409	3.5361	3.51	.001
7. Inappropriate sexual advance	3.6023	3.0206	5.51	.000
8. Sex assault (with weapon)	3.8295	3.5052	3.83	.000
9. Being lied to	1.7955	1.7938	.01	.989
10. Car vandalism	3.1591	3.1959	-.31	.760
11. Obscene phone calls	3.4205	3.4021	.18	.857
12. Upset offender coming to personal residence	3.5341	3.5361	-.02	.982

Note: The calculation of the means is based upon responses to interval scales ranging from 1 to 4. A "1" indicates a "high" likelihood of victimization, a "2" indicates a "moderate" likelihood of victimization, a "3" indicates "low" likelihood of victimization, and a "4" indicates "no" likelihood of victimization.

The twelve victimization variables are then recoded to form a single variable which is labelled the "Likelihood Of Victimization." This variable is crosstabulated with the fear of crime variable that served as the dependent variable in the preceding crosstabulations (Table 4.32 to Table 4.67). The crosstabulation of the fear of crime and the likelihood of victimization variables involving the total sample does not produce a chi-square that is statistically significant. This analysis reveals that 23.5% of the respondents acknowledge a likelihood of victimization and 20.3% of the respondents express a fear of crime (Table 4.69). ANOVA: $F(3,183)=.859$, $p=.463$.

TABLE 4.69

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of Victimization

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of Victimization				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	0.0	2.9	0.0	4.2	7	3.7%
Low	0.0	14.3	0.0	18.2	31	16.6%
None	100.0	82.9	100.0	77.6	149	79.7%
Column Total	6	35	3	143	187	
Column %	3.2%	18.7%	1.6%	76.5%	100.0%	
Missing = 15						

Chi-square	2.90014	Gamma	0.28715
d.f.	6	Significance	0.82127

When the analysis is controlled by gender, the crosstabulation of the fear of crime and the likelihood of victimization variables does not produce a chi-square that is statistically significant in the male subset. In the male subset 18.4% of the respondents express a fear crime and 27.6% acknowledge a likelihood of victimization (Table 4.70). ANOVA: F(3,83)=.668, p=.574.

TABLE 4.70

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of Victimization For Males

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of Victimization				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	0.0	6.3	0.0	4.8	4	4.6%
Low	0.0	6.3	0.0	17.5	12	13.8%
None	100.0	87.5	100.0	77.8	71	81.6%
Column Total	6	16	2	63		87
Column %	6.9%	18.4%	2.3%	72.4%		100.0%
Missing = 6						

Chi-square	3.35716	Gamma	0.48165
d.f.	6	Significance	0.76287

In the female subset, the crosstabulation of the fear of crime and the likelihood of victimization variables does not produce a chi-square that is statistically significant. In the female subset 22.0% of the respondents express a fear of crime and 20.0% of the respondents acknowledge a likelihood of victimization (Table 4.71). ANOVA: F(2,97)=.206, p=.814.

TABLE 4.71

Fear Of Crime And The Likelihood Of Victimization For Females

Fear Of Crime	Likelihood Of Victimization				Row Total	Row %
	High	Moderate	Low	None		
High	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0%
Moderate	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.8	3	3.0%
Low	0.0	21.1	0.0	18.8	19	19.0%
None	0.0	78.9	100.0	77.5	78	78.0%
Column Total	0	19	1	80	100	
Column %	0.0%	19.0%	1.0%	80.0%	100.0%	
Missing = 9						

Chi-square	1.05157	Gamma	0.08696
d.f.	4	Significance	0.90188

Table 4.72 summarizes the crosstabulation analyses, and reflects that volunteer perceptions about the majority of the types of victimizations examined by this study bear a statistically significant relationship to volunteer perceptions about fear of crime. In all such statistically significant relationships the direction of the Gamma value is positive, and this indicates that increases in the likelihood of victimization produce increases in the fear of crime.

Table 4.73 confirms that after volunteers were asked to consider 12 types of victimization and the likelihood that each might occur, as a result of work-related contact with offenders, the majority of respondents agreed that the occurrence of 7 of 12 types of victimization are in fact a likelihood. In the male subset, a majority volunteers also agreed that the occurrence of 6 of 12 types of victimization are a likelihood, and in the female subset a majority volunteers agreed that the occurrence of 8 of 12 types of victimization are a likelihood.

TABLE 4.72

Crosstabulation Of Fear Of Crime With The Likelihood Of Victimization

Crosstabulation Of Fear Of Crime With The Likelihood Of Being A Victim Of ...	Chi-square Significant ?		
	Overall	Males	Females
1. Verbal abuse	No	No	Yes (c)
2. Property theft	No	No	No
3. Assault not involving the use of a weapon	Yes (b)	No	Yes (h)
4. Assault involving the use of a weapon	Yes (c)	Yes (a)	Yes (g)
5. Hostage-taking	Yes (a)	Yes (c)	Yes (a)
6. Sex Assault not involving the use of a weapon	Yes (b)	No	Yes (a)
7. Sex Assault involving the use of a weapon	Yes (g)	Yes (a)	Yes (g)
8. Inappropriate sexual advance	Yes (h)	Yes (a)	Yes (d)
9. Being lied to	No	Yes (a)	No
10. Car vandalism	Yes (c)	No	Yes (a)
11. Obscene phone calls	Yes (h)	Yes (a)	Yes (h)
12. Upset offender coming to personal residence	Yes (f)	No	Yes (h)

Levels Of Significance:

(a) <= .05 (c) <= .005 (e) <= .0005 (g) <= .00005
(b) <= .01 (d) <= .001 (f) <= .0001 (h) <= .00001

TABLE 4.73

Respondents Acknowledging A Likelihood Of Victimization In Relation To The Type Of Victimization

Type Of Victimization	Percent Of Respondents Acknowledging A Likelihood Of Victimization		
	%Overall	%Males	%Females
1. Verbal abuse	88.7	87.2	89.8
2. Property theft	70.0	67.9	71.9
3. Assault not involving the use of a weapon	67.1	65.1	69.1
4. Assault involving the use of a weapon	52.0	53.6	52.1
5. Hostage-taking	40.7	40.2	41.1
6. Sex Assault not involving the use of a weapon	36.4	21.7	49.5
7. Sex Assault involving the use of a weapon	35.9	20.2	50.1
8. Inappropriate sexual advance	60.2	41.7	76.3
9. Being lied to	97.3	96.5	98.0
10. Car vandalism	68.1	74.1	64.9
11. Obscene phone calls	49.1	48.9	49.5
12. Upset offender coming to personal residence	46.8	46.5	47.0

TABLE 4.74

Respondents Acknowledging A Fear Of Crime In Relation To The Type Of Victimization

Type Of Victimization	Percent Of Respondents Acknowledging A Fear Of Crime		
	%Overall	%Males	%Females
1. Verbal abuse	20.6	18.7	22.5
2. Property theft	20.6	19.1	21.9
3. Assault not involving the use of a weapon	20.2	18.7	21.7
4. Assault involving the use of a weapon	20.8	19.5	21.9
5. Hostage-taking	20.9	19.5	22.1
6. Sex Assault not involving	19.9	18.1	22.5
7. Sex Assault involving the use of a weapon	20.8	17.9	23.4
8. Inappropriate sexual advance	20.4	17.9	22.7
9. Being lied to	20.6	18.8	22.0
10. Car vandalism	20.8	18.7	21.7
11. Obscene phone calls	20.6	18.7	22.2
12. Upset offender coming to personal residence	20.6	18.7	22.5

A multiple classification analysis is performed to assess measures of association among five demographic variables (gender, marital status, level of education, motivation leading to becoming a volunteer, and length of volunteer service) with fear of crime (Tables 4.75 and 4.76). The value for r-square indicates that these demographic categories account for 4.8% of the variation in fear of crime.

The same variable which serves as the measure of fear of crime in the preceding crosstabulations serves this analysis as well; asking: "In your role as a volunteer, to what extent do you fear becoming a victim of crime as a result of being in contact with offenders at your corrections office/facility?" Accompanying this question are these response choices: greatly fear it, moderately fear it, somewhat fear it, don't fear it at all, or undecided which are recoded into 1="no fear" of crime, 2="low fear" of crime, 3="moderate fear" of crime, and 4="high fear" of crime. The undecided responses are omitted from the analyses.

The multiple classification analysis determines that as predictors of fear of crime, these demographic variables perform poorly, explaining only 4.8% of the variation in fear of crime. Additionally, this analysis confirms that statistically significant two-way and three-way interactions do not exist among the demographic variables. The limited variability accounted for by the demographic categories imparts that the standardized regression coefficients associated with each of the demographic categories do not predict much change in the dependent variable, and are therefore poor predictors of job satisfaction. The Grand Mean value of 1.35 indicates that overall, the level of fear of crime in the total sample population is in the "low" to "moderate" range.

TABLE 4.75

Multiple Classification Analysis For Measures Of Association Of Demographic Variables And Fear Of Crime

Grand Mean = 1.35

Variable + Category	N	Unadjusted Dev'n	Unadjusted Eta	Adjusted for Independents Dev'n	Adjusted for Independents Beta
Gender					
Males	85	-.03		-.03	
Females	100	.02		.03	
			.04		.04
Marital Status					
Single	100	-.07		-.09	
Married	85	.08		.10	
			.10		.13
Level Of Education					
Non-university	54	-.08		-.08	
*University	131	.03		.03	
			.07		.07
Motivation To Volunteer					
Intrinsic	71	-.07		-.09	
Extrinsic	114	.04		.06	
			.08		.10
Length Of Volunteer Service					
1 year	74	-.11		-.09	
1-2 year	56	.01		-.01	
2+ years	55	.14		.14	
			.15		.13

Multiple R Squared = .048
Multiple R = .218

202 cases were processed. 17 cases (8.4 pct) were missing.

TABLE 4.76

Multiple Classification Analysis For Interaction Effects

Source of Variation			Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects			4.630	6	.772	1.415	.212
Gender			.137	1	.137	.252	.617
Mstatus			1.470	1	1.470	2.696	.103
Educate			.446	1	.446	.818	.367
Motive			.868	1	.868	1.592	.209
Length			1.702	2	.851	1.560	.214
2-Way Interactions			5.849	14	.418	.766	.704
Gender	Mstatus		.965	1	.965	1.769	.186
Gender	Educate		.020	1	.020	.036	.849
Gender	Motive		.012	1	.012	.023	.880
Gender	Length		.067	2	.033	.061	.941
Mstatus	Educate		.229	1	.229	.420	.518
Mstatus	Motive		.038	1	.038	.070	.791
Mstatus	Length		2.888	2	1.444	2.648	.074
Educate	Motive		.008	1	.008	.015	.901
Educate	Length		.480	2	.240	.440	.645
Motive	Length		1.125	2	.562	1.031	.359
3-Way Interactions			6.184	16	.387	.709	.782
Gender	Mstatus	Educate	.444	1	.444	.815	.368
Gender	Mstatus	Motive	.692	1	.692	1.269	.262
Gender	Mstatus	Length	.250	2	.125	.229	.796
Gender	Educate	Motive	.018	1	.018	.033	.855
Gender	Educate	Length	.227	2	.114	.208	.812
Gender	Motive	Length	1.363	2	.682	1.250	.290
Mstatus	Educate	Motive	.337	1	.337	.618	.433
Mstatus	Educate	Length	.605	2	.303	.555	.575
Mstatus	Motive	Length	.261	2	.130	.239	.788
Educate	Motive	Length	.668	2	.334	.613	.543
Explained			16.664	36	.463	.849	.711
Residual			80.707	148	.545		
Total			97.371	184	.529		

202 cases were processed. 17 cases (8.4 pct) were missing.

To determine which volunteers express the greater fear of crime within each of the demographic categories, through SAS the calculation of the Least Squares Means reveals that some fear of crime is expressed by respondents in each of the five demographic groupings (Table 4.77).

TABLE 4.77

Least Squares Means For The Five Demographic Categories And Fear Of Crime

Demographic Categories	Least Squares Means
Gender	
Males	1.31096287
Females	1.38303298
Marital Status	
Single	1.24195403
Married	1.45204182
Level Of Education	
Non-university educated	1.29969350
University educated	1.39430234
Motivation To Volunteer	
Extrinsically motivated	1.42281205
Intrinsically motivated	1.27118379
Length Of Service	
1 year	1.25437921
1-2 years	1.32727668
2+ years	1.45933788

202 cases were processed. 17 cases (8.4 pct) were missing.

Respondents who have a greater fear of crime have higher Least Squares Means values associated with their demographic category. On this basis: (1) female volunteers express greater fear of crime than do male volunteers, (2) married volunteers express greater fear of crime than do single volunteers, (3) non-university educated volunteers express greater fear of crime than do university educated volunteers, (4) extrinsically motivated volunteers express greater fear of crime than do intrinsically motivated volunteers, and (5) in terms of length of volunteer service, the volunteers who have been volunteers for the longest time (2+ years) express the greatest fear of crime.

4.2.1 Summary

As noted earlier, workplace victimization is a concept isolated for consideration because: (1) corrections-oriented work is unique from other types of work as corrections-oriented work requires its workers to interact on an interpersonal level with offenders, and this condition places workers at potential risk to victimization; and (2) the likelihood of workplace victimization is not customarily investigated in job satisfaction analyses.

The crosstabulation analysis of the fear of crime variable against the combination of the twelve likelihood of victimization variables, involving the total sample (Table 4.69) and the male and female subsets (Tables 4.70 and 4.71, respectively), does not identify statistically significant relationships. However, when the twelve likelihood of victimization variables are crosstabulated individually against the fear of crime variable (Tables 4.32 to 4.67), statistically significant

relationships are identified. These statistically significant relationships confirm that volunteer perceptions about fear of crime are influenced by volunteer perceptions relating to the likelihood of particular types of victimization.

When female perceptions about fear of crime and the likelihood of victimization are contrasted with male perceptions, the data reflects that greater numbers of females (moreso than males) express a fear of crime (Table 4.74), and that greater numbers of females (moreso than males) feel vulnerable to more types of victimization (Table 4.73).

The crosstabulation analysis reveals that in the female subset 10 of the 12 types of victimization evaluated by this study have a statistically significant relationship to fear of crime, and in the male subset 6 of the 12 types of victimization have a statistically significant relationship to fear of crime (Table 4.72). One of the most intriguing relationships to emerge from this analysis is the crosstabulation of fear of crime against four types of victimization: assault and sexual assault involving a weapon in the commission of the offense, and assault and sexual assault not involving a weapon in the commission of the offense. Female fear of crime is found to have a statistically significant relationship to the likelihood of each of these four offenses occuring, while male fear of crime is found to have a statistically significant relationship only to the two offenses where a weapon is involved in the commission of the offense.

The 12 measures that pertain to the likelihood of victimization reveal that the majority of male and female volunteers concede a

likelihood of victimization through the 12 types of victimization considered by this study (Tables 4.32 to 4.71). The reported levels of the likelihood of workplace victimization range from "no" likelihood to a "high" likelihood, while the reported levels of fear of crime range from "no" fear of crime to a "moderate" fear of crime. On the face of this observation, it becomes apparent that while volunteers believe that correctional work is a medium which facilitates the likelihood of workplace victimization, high levels of the likelihood of workplace victimization are not necessarily accompanied by, nor produce, high levels of fear of crime (Tables 4.66 to 4.68).

4.3 DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE

By 1992 a demographic profile by which to describe the 'typical' Canadian volunteer has not yet been established. Studies attempting such an endeavor conclude that a 'typical' Canadian volunteer does not exist (Ross, 1983 and 1990; Carter, 1975; and Ross and Shillington, 1989). The present study constructs a demographic profile through data set subsetting and frequency distributions to profile volunteers collectively, and through gender subsetting, males apart from females.

Inspection of the demographic information reveals that 41.1% of the correctional volunteers are attending university, 52.4% are single, and 47.5% are 20 to 29 years old. The mean age calculation indicates that as a group, the females (mean: 31.72 years old) are somewhat younger than the males (mean: 34.75 years old). The sample consists of almost as many married males (49.5%) as single males (43.0%), but contains far more single females (52.3%) than married females (34.0%). Table 4.23 indicates that at the time this study was undertaken, the majority of volunteers have been in correctional service for no longer than 2 years (73.3%). In addition, only 11 (5.4%) of the volunteers are able to claim that their service to corrections equals or exceeds 5 years.

TABLE 4.78

Demographic Profile Of Male With Female Volunteers In 1990

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Males	93	46.0
Females	109	54.0

Education	Frequency	Percent
Elementary complete	2	1.0
Junior high complete	1	0.5
High school incomplete	12	5.9
High school complete	26	12.9
Non-university incomplete	6	3.0
Non-university complete	15	7.4
University incomplete	50	24.8
University diploma/certificate	10	5.0
University bachelor degree	65	32.2
University bachelor honours	3	1.5
University medical	9	4.5
University doctorate	1	0.5
Missing, invalid, or no response	2	1.0

Marital Status	Frequency	Percent
Single	97	48.0
Married/living with spouse	68	33.7
Married/not living with spouse	6	2.9
Common-law or live-in partner	9	4.5
Divorced	19	9.4
Missing, invalid, or no response	3	1.5

Age	Frequency	Percent
Less than 20	12	6.0
20 to 29	96	47.5
30 to 39	40	19.8
40 to 49	27	13.3
50 to 59	12	6.0
60 to 69	8	4.0
Greater than 70	4	2.0
Missing, invalid, or no response	3	1.4

Mean age: 32.804
Age range: 17 - 77

TABLE 4.79

Demographic Profile Of Male Volunteers In 1990

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Males	93	100.0

Education	Frequency	Percent
Elementary complete	1	1.1
Junior high complete	1	1.1
High school incomplete	6	6.4
High school complete	11	11.8
Non-university incomplete	4	4.3
Non-university complete	6	6.4
University incomplete	21	22.6
University diploma/certificate	5	5.4
University bachelor's degree	28	30.1
University bachelor honours	0	0.0
University medical	8	8.6
University doctorate	1	1.1
Missing, invalid, or no response	1	1.1

Marital Status	Frequency	Percent
Single	40	43.0
Married/living with spouse	38	40.9
Married/not living with spouse	3	3.2
Common-law or live-in partner	5	5.4
Divorced	6	6.4
Missing, invalid, or no response	1	1.1

Age	Frequency	Percent
Less than 20	4	4.3
20 to 29	44	47.3
30 to 39	16	17.2
40 to 49	14	15.2
50 to 59	7	7.5
60 to 69	5	5.3
Greater than 70	3	3.2

Mean age: 34.7526882
Age range: 18 - 77

TABLE 4.80

Demographic Profile Of Female Volunteers In 1990

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Females	109	100.0

Education	Frequency	Percent
Elementary complete	1	0.9
Junior high complete	0	0.0
High school incomplete	6	5.5
High school complete	15	13.8
Non-university incomplete	2	1.8
Non-university complete	9	8.3
University incomplete	29	26.6
University diploma/certificate	5	4.6
University bachelor's degree	37	33.9
University bachelor honours	3	2.8
University medical	1	0.9
University doctorate	0	0.0
Missing, invalid, or no response	1	0.9

Marital Status	Frequency	Percent
Single	57	52.3
Married/living with spouse	30	27.5
Married/not living with spouse	3	2.8
Common-law or live-in partner	4	3.7
Divorced	13	11.9
Missing, invalid, or no response	2	1.8

Age	Frequency	Percent
Less than 20	8	7.3
20 to 29	52	47.7
30 to 39	24	22.0
40 to 49	13	11.9
50 to 59	5	4.6
60 to 69	3	2.8
Greater than 70	1	0.9
Missing, invalid, or no response	3	2.8

Mean age: 31.7289720
Age range: 17 - 74

The data indicates there are about as many males (N=93) as females (N=109), single volunteers (N=106) and married volunteers (93), and the mode indicates that the most frequently occuring age is 23 years of age (Figure 4.1). The histogram also reveals that the majority of volunteers are in the age 20 to 29 bracket (N=110).

```
Count        Age    One symbol equals approximately  1.00 occurrence

  4          17  |****
 24          20  |************************
 42          23  |*****************************************
 27          26  |***************************
 17          29  |*****************
 11          32  |***********
 10          35  |**********
 13          38  |*************
 14          41  |**************
  5          44  |*****
  8          47  |********
  7          50  |*******
  2          53  |**
  2          56  |**
  2          59  |**
  1          62  |*
  4          65  |****
  2          68  |**
  0          71  |
  3          74  |***
  1          77  |*
                 +----+----+----+----+----+----+----+----+----+----+
                 0        10        20        30        40        50
                              Histogram frequency

   Mean      32.804       Median    28.000       Mode      23.000
   Std dev   13.152       Minimum   17.000       Maximum   77.000

           Valid cases     199      Missing cases      3
```

Figure 4.1: Histogram Of The Age Of The Volunteers

4.3.1 Summary

Despite the similarities outlined above, volunteers are more likely to have a university education (N=138) than an education that is not university level (N=62), have been a correctional volunteer for no longer than 2 years (N=148), and have motivation leading to their volunteering to be rooted in extrinsic factors (N=116) moreso than in intrinsic factors (N=72). Table 4.81 contrasts demographic information collected by the present study with the demographic information offered by Ross and Schillington (Table 1.5). This comparative analysis does not impart the existence of a typical volunteer.

TABLE 4.81

Comparison Of Demographic Information

	Ross and Schillington	Present Study[2]	Present Study Deviation
Males	43.5 %	46.0 %	+ 2.5 %
Females	56.5	53.9	- 2.6
Married	71.9	46.0	- 25.9
Single	28.1	52.4	+ 24.3
Working full-time	76.3	48.0	- 28.3
Working part-time	23.7	29.7	+ 6.0
Retired or unemployed	----	22.3	----
Non-university educated	45.6	30.7	- 14.9
University educated	54.4[1]	68.3	+ 13.9

[1] Three categories indicating post-secondary education.
[2] Some categories may not equal 100% due to non-response.

Chapter V

RESEARCH IMPLICATIONS AND POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 RESEARCH IMPLICATIONS

5.1.1 Measurement Error: Detecting Socially Desirable Responses

In the present study it is apparent that volunteers, and especially volunteers who are also students, perceive the utility of volunteer experience as a means by which to achieve career aspirations. This relationship is similarly present in other research (Smith, 1978; Chapman, 1980; and Ross, 1990). Given this utility of volunteer experience it is possible that volunteers may wish to offer socially desirable responses so as not to offend. Socially desirable responses depict things as the respondent would have them viewed, rather than depict things as they really are.

Recommendation 1

Future inquiries of a similar nature should give consideration to incorporating a scale into the research instrument that would facilitate the detection of "socially desirable" responses. Offered as an example of such a scale is the Marlowe-Crowne (1960) "Scale Of Social Desirability" (Appendix G) which has been employed in other research (ie. Melvin, Gramling, and Gardner, 1985) to detect the presence of socially desirable responses. The benefit of incorporating such a scale into the survey instrument must of course be weighed against its length which potentially contributes to instrument error and to non-response.

5.1.2 Instrument Error: Questionnaire Length

Too lengthy a questionnaire has the potential to promote respondent fatigue which can lead to loss of frame of reference and/or to a loss of motivation to complete the questionnaire. The development of the questionnaire employed by the present study incorporates questions designed to create a potential for analyses of topics of a nature which are not theoretically relevant to an evaluation of job satisfaction or to an evaluation of fear of crime. For example, question number 15 in the survey instrument (Appendix B) contains items which criminologists identify as causal to the production of criminal behaviour. Appendix D offers two references where concern of an identical nature is addressed empirically (Harris, et.al., 1969; and Hill, 1972). The existence of these two inquiries facilitates a comparative analysis with respondent replies to question 15 of the present study.

The response rate of the present study is 75.65% (N=202); 21.72% (N=58) of the volunteers elected not to respond, and 2.62% (N=7) of the questionnaires were returned undelivered. The questionnaire is 20 pages in length and contains 110 items. Dillman (1978:27) states that if the length of survey questionnaires do not exceed 12 pages (or about 125 items) then a response rate of about 76% should be expected, on average. When questionnaire length exceeds 10-12 pages, Dillman states that the response rate will decline markedly.

Recommendation 2

It should be noted that the response rate achieved by the present study is attributable in part to the volunteer coordinators who participated with this study to ensure volunteers who wished to respond through the survey instrument were not overlooked. Any researcher seeking to conduct research with the same corrections personnel will undoubtedly encounter a high degree of enthusiasm to cooperate. However, this cooperation should not be assumed. Undoubtedly, the current recessionary period has likely served to increase workload, restrict hiring, and cap budgets within the corrections community. If such restrictions do in fact exist, then measures which promote higher survey response rates should be given consideration. For example, if a survey questionnaire is to be employed to satisfy research goals similar to those of the present study, then theoretically irrelevant items should be deleted from the survey instrument. Items pertaining to religion, for example, may offend some persons as such items may be viewed by intended respondents as too personal to be included in a survey questionnaire.

5.1.3 Identification Of Additional Facets

Similar to the research findings presented by Ferrat (1981) and by Conway (1985), the present study has not identified a sufficient number of facets to explain adequately the variation in job satisfaction. However, the present study has identified new facets; in particular, facets pertaining to: (1) the likelihood of victimization through crimes of a more serious nature, (2) the likelihood of victimization through crimes of a less serious nature, and (3) the risk of victimization.

Recommendation 3

Future inquiries of a similar nature should consider incorporating into the research instrument scales or items not included in the present study. Perhaps some combination of scales or items other than those identified in the present study might explain a greater amount of volunteer job satisfaction.

5.1.4 Expanding The Number Of Victimization Variables

The variables included in the survey instrument which pertain to victimization total twelve. This list of victimizations is in no way complete as there are many other types of victimizations that one individual could inflict upon another individual. In the case of the prison environment, which by its nature breeds hostility and aggression in its inmates, the identification of statistically significant relationships between victimization, fear of crime, and job satisfaction are crucial to developing an understanding of the nature of correctional volunteer work and the nature of the correctional volunteer work environment. The dynamics of these relationships are no less important to volunteers working in probation whose perceptions about workplace safety merits equal attention.

Recommendation 4

Future inquiries of a similar nature should consider increasing the number of victimizations included in the survey instrument if victimization remains a primary research interest. Other types of victimization that could be included, for example, are: murder, being

shoved, being kicked, being punched, being struck by a hand-thrown object, being spit at, being scratched, being a victim of an act of arson (ie. molotov cocktail), being stabbed, having hair pulled, incurring a bite, being pick-pocketed, and so on. A more comprehensive list of types of victimization included in the survey instrument might facilitate the identification of additional facets related to job satisfaction, or might bring a greater degree of clarity to analyses which seek to identify statistically significant relationships between the likelihood of victimization and fear of crime.

5.1.5 Guardianship

Throughout the various fear of crime and likelihood of victimization crosstabulations (Tables 4.32 to 4.67) not a single volunteer is found to express a fear of crime beyond a "moderate" level, and yet, volunteer perceptions about the likelihood of victimization reach a "high" level in the majority of the crosstabulations. This finding lends support to Skogan and Maxwell's (1981:48) observation that "... fear of crime does not always parallel the risk to victimization for individuals."

This study has given considerable weight to the routine activity and lifestyle theory of victimization to establishing the potential for danger in occupations that require workers to interact on a one-to-one basis with offenders. However, this study has not attempted to evaluate why high levels of the likelihood of victimization are not accompanied by high levels of fear of crime. The routine activity theory suggests that guardians (ie. other persons such as co-workers) may moderate individual perceptions about dangerousness.

Recommendation 5

Inquiries of a similar nature should give consideration to exploring the possibility of an intervening variable moderating the influence of the likelihood of victimization upon fear of crime. It is possible that volunteer perceptions about "guardianship" might moderate the influence of perceptions about fear of crime. The influence of "guardianship" could be operationalized through a single item, or through a combination of items, such as: "How concerned are you that there are not enough workers around to ensure that an offender will be unable to physically injure you?" and/or "How concerned are you that other workers will be unwilling to help you if an offender attacks you?" and/or "How concerned are you that other workers will be unable to gain control of an offender who is trying to physically injure you?"

Questions such as those mentioned in the preceding paragraph could be employed as single items, or could be combined to form a scale, to be used as an intervening variable in a recursive path analytic model (for example) to assess the potential of perceptions about workplace guardianship to moderate the influence of the likelihood of victimization upon fear of crime.

5.2 POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS

5.2.1 Sense Of Accomplishment

The implication of the job satisfaction analysis for policy is that volunteers should be provided with work that permits them to acquire a sense of accomplishment. In 12 separate regression analyses the facet pertaining to sense of accomplishment emerges as the strongest predictor of job satisfaction (Table 4.31). A t-test analysis of variance reveals that the attitude that male and female respondents express towards the facet sense of accomplishment is not significantly (statistically) different (Table 4.13).

Volunteers were asked if they have "accomplished many worthwhile things" at their volunteer job. The response choices of "strongly agree" and "agree" are recoded as 1="yes", the "undecided" category is recoded as equal to the value 2, and the "strongly disagree" and "disagree" response choices are recoded as 3="no". The frequency distributions offered in Table 5.1 indicate that the majority of males (68.8%) and the majority of females (63.3%) derive a sense of accomplishment from their work. The mean values indicate that the males (mean=1.330) acquire a greater sense of accomplishment through volunteer work than do the females (mean=1.411).

TABLE 5.1

Frequency Distribution Of Accomplishment

I have accomplished many worthwhile things at this job.	Males		Females	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Yes	64	68.8	69	63.3
Undecided	19	20.4	32	29.4
No	5	5.4	6	5.5
Total	88	94.62%	107	98.16%

Mean	1.330	1.411
Valid cases	88	107
Missing cases	5	2

Recommendation 6

The literature affirms that volunteers derive satisfaction from work that they find to be interesting and challenging (Gidron, 1983), from work that makes use of their skills and abilities (Hillman, 1967), and from work which provides a sense of achievement (Barber, 1986). Therefore, volunteers should be provided with work of this nature.

5.2.2 Supervisor

This study identifies approval of supervisor as the second most important predictor of job satisfaction in the analysis comprising the total sample. When the data is subset into gender divisions, approval of supervisor is identified as the third strongest predictor of job satisfaction in the male model, and in the female model.

A t-test of selected items are evaluated to detect gender differences in attitudes pertaining to the supervisor (Table 5.2). In this analysis the possible response choices are: 1="strongly agree", 2="agree", 3="undecided", 4="disagree", and 5="strongly disagree". The means reveal that the volunteers express satisfaction on all 11 items. The the only item where a statistically significant difference occurs between the males and females is item 9. Both males and females express satisfaction with this item, however, the females (mean = 4.533) express greater satisfaction with this item than do the males (mean = 4.2529). Otherwise, there is no statistically significant difference in the attitude that males and females express about the other 10 items.

Recommendation 7

As males and females express a great deal of satisfaction with their supervisor on a variety of items, if the working relationship as it presently exists between the volunteers and their supervisor requires modification, identification of this requirement is not apparent in this study. As the strongest predictor of job satisfaction is the sense of accomplishment, it is likely that providing volunteers with a sense of accomplishment will promote a harmonious working relationship with the volunteers, and perhaps continued satisfaction with the supervisor.

TABLE 5.2

T-Test Of Selected Items Pertaining To Supervisor

Single Item	Means For Males	Means For Females	T Value	2-Tail Prob.
1. My supervisor rewards a job that is well done	2.2182	2.0814	1.13	.259
2. My supervisor informs me of recent developments that pertain to how I am to do my job	2.2443	2.1460	.78	.439
3. My supervisor plans with me what I am to accomplish in the time ahead	2.4533	2.4686	-.11	.916
4. My supervisor finds answers when I have a problem	1.9728	1.8271	1.29	.197
5. My supervisor really cares about doing her/his job	1.6699	1.6542	.14	.888
6. My supervisor sees to it that my potential is fully utilized	2.3595	2.3285	.23	.820
7. My supervisor is friendly and can easily be approached	1.6144	1.6401	-.22	.828
8. My supervisor is open to new ideas	1.7638	1.7529	.09	.931
9. My supervisor seems to resent my asking questions about things I don't understand	4.2529	4.5333	-2.27	.025
10. My supervisor does not review my performance with me on a regular basis	3.3810	3.5253	-.81	.417
11. My supervisor offers criticism that is usually more vindictive than constructive	4.1176	4.3431	-1.76	.080

5.2.3 Role Ambiguity

A t-test of selected items are examined to detect gender differences in attitudes pertaining to role ambiguity. In this analysis the possible response choices are: 1="never", 2="seldom", 3="sometimes", 4="usually", and 5="always". The means reveal that the volunteers express satisfaction on all 8 items. Statistically significant differences occur between the males and females on items 2 and 7. Both males and females express satisfaction with these items, however, the females express greater satisfaction with both items than do the males. Otherwise, there is no statistically significant difference in the attitude that males and females express about the other 6 items.

Recommendation 8

The t-test analysis does not reveal that role ambiguity is considered to be a problem by the volunteers (on the 8 items examined). Therefore, no recommendation pertaining to role ambiguity is offered.

TABLE 5.3

T-Test Of Items Pertaining To Role Ambiguity

Are These Factors A Problem?	Means For Males	Means For Females	T Value	2-Tail Prob.
1. Feeling that you cannot predict the reactions of your supervisor	1.8512	1.7008	1.32	.189
2. Feeling that you never know what your supervisor thinks of you	1.9968	1.7352	2.08	.039
3. Being unclear as to the scope of your responsibilities	1.8901	1.8095	.68	.498
4. Feeling that you are required to perform tasks that are against your better judgement	1.6447	1.5446	1.02	.311
5. Thinking that you will be unable to satisfy the conflicting demands of your supervisor	1.5535	1.4492	1.06	.289
6. Feeling that your ideas are usually considerably different from the ideas of your supervisor	2.0768	1.9643	.88	.380
7. Feeling that the amount of authority that you have is not enough to permit you to get your work done	2.0074	1.6897	2.36	.019
8. Not knowing what your supervisor expects of you	2.0275	1.8400	1.56	.122

5.2.4 Victimization

Table 4.73 indicates that overall, males and females concede that the 12 types of workplace victimization considered by this study may occur as a result of interactions which take place between offenders and correctional workers. In addition, Table 4.74 indicates that overall, the majority of males and females are not fearful of crime. While the differences between the gender subsets in the percent of respondents reporting a fear of crime is negligible, a greater percent of females (moreso than males) report being fearful of crime. This trend of females being more fearful of crime than males is similarly reported in other research (Clemente and Kleinman, 1977:527; Baumer, 1979:255; Braungart, Braungart, and Hoyer, 1980:63; Skogan and Maxfield, 1981:74; Hassinger, 1985:293).

Recommendation 9

As the females in this study express higher levels of fear of crime than do the males, perhaps addressing concerns about the potential for workplace victimization might alleviate such concerns, and enhance satisfaction with the job. Volunteers should be acquainted with procedures used to identify and control dangerous (violent) offenders who are a threat to worker safety, and should be provided with some sense of situations where danger is likely to arise. Such procedures could be incorporated into the orientation and training process.

5.2.5 Demographic Profile

A demographic profile has been developed to characterize those persons involved in correctional volunteer service. This profile has been compared to the profile developed by Ross and Schillington to determine if in fact a 'typical' correctional volunteer exists.

Recommendation 10

The demographic profile does not impart the existence of a 'typical' correctional volunteer. A danger of offering demographic information in a study such as this is that such information may be misused. Demographic information should not be used to either restrict or facilitate the recruitment of volunteers.

5.3 SUMMARY

As this study has determined, greater numbers of females are more fearful of crime than are the males, and greater numbers of females (moreso than the males) concede the likelihood of the occurrence of workplace victimization. Perhaps adequate training and orientation to the correctional environment would offer a early beginning to the management of such concerns. In addition, perhaps volunteers who derive a greater sense of accomplishment from the work will, as a consequence, also find greater satisfaction with the supervisor and/or create satisfaction with other aspects of the job.

Appendix A

FIGURES DEPICTING THE CORRECTIONS SERVICE STRUCTURE

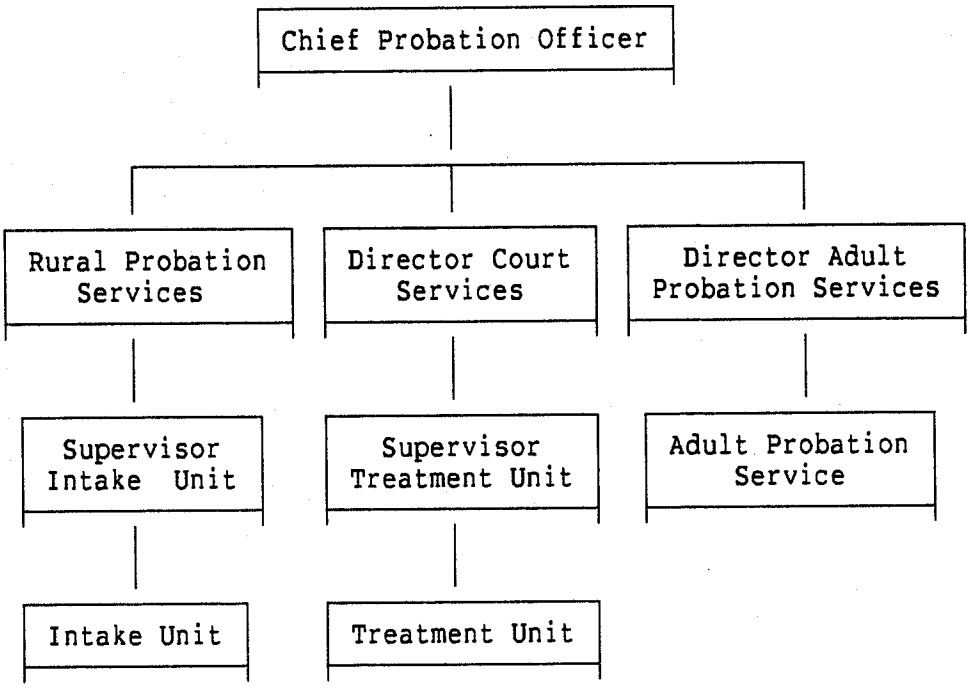

Figure A.1: Organizational Chart: Manitoba Probation Services In 1970

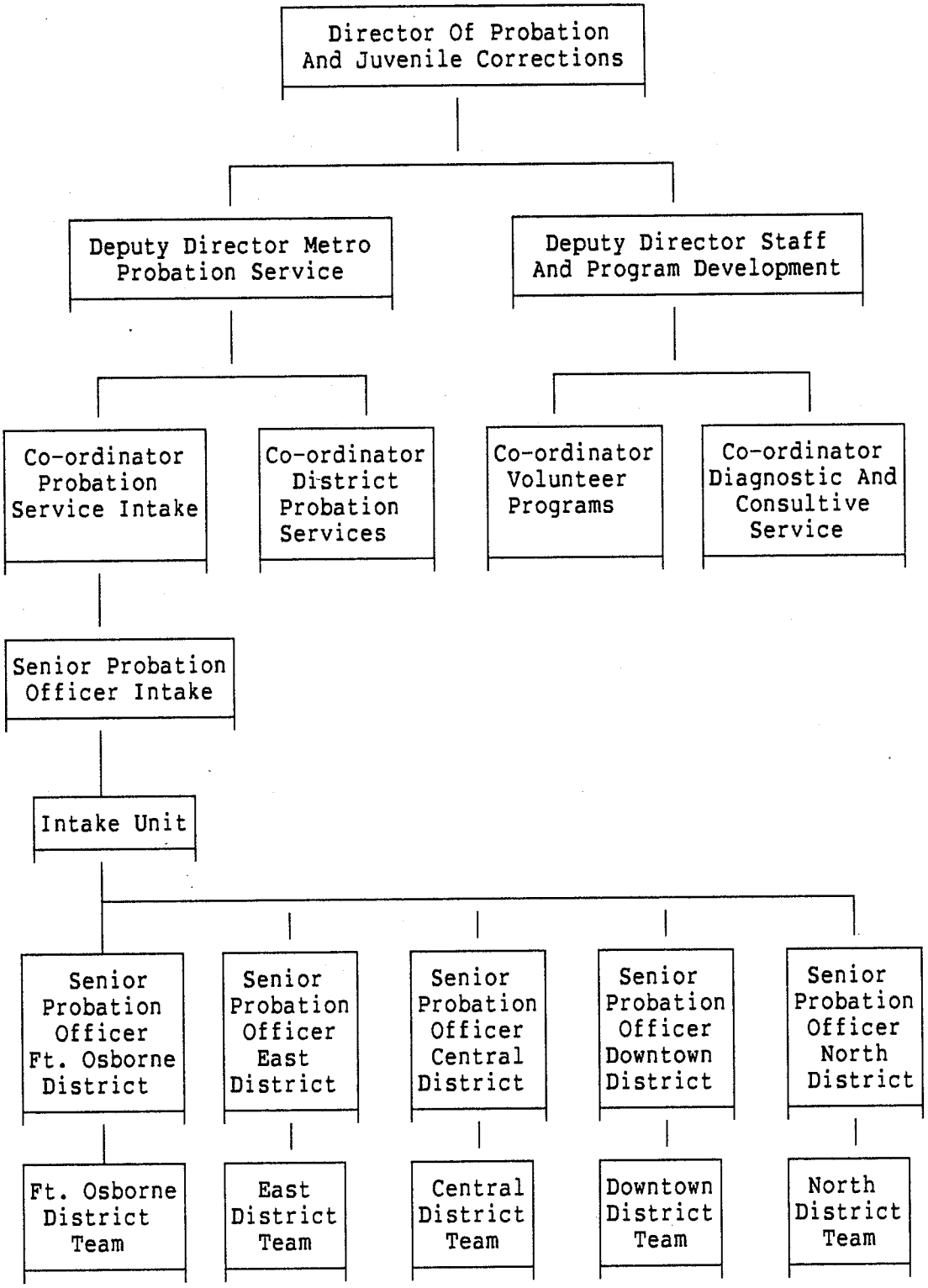

Figure A.2: Organizational Chart: Manitoba Probation Services In 1971

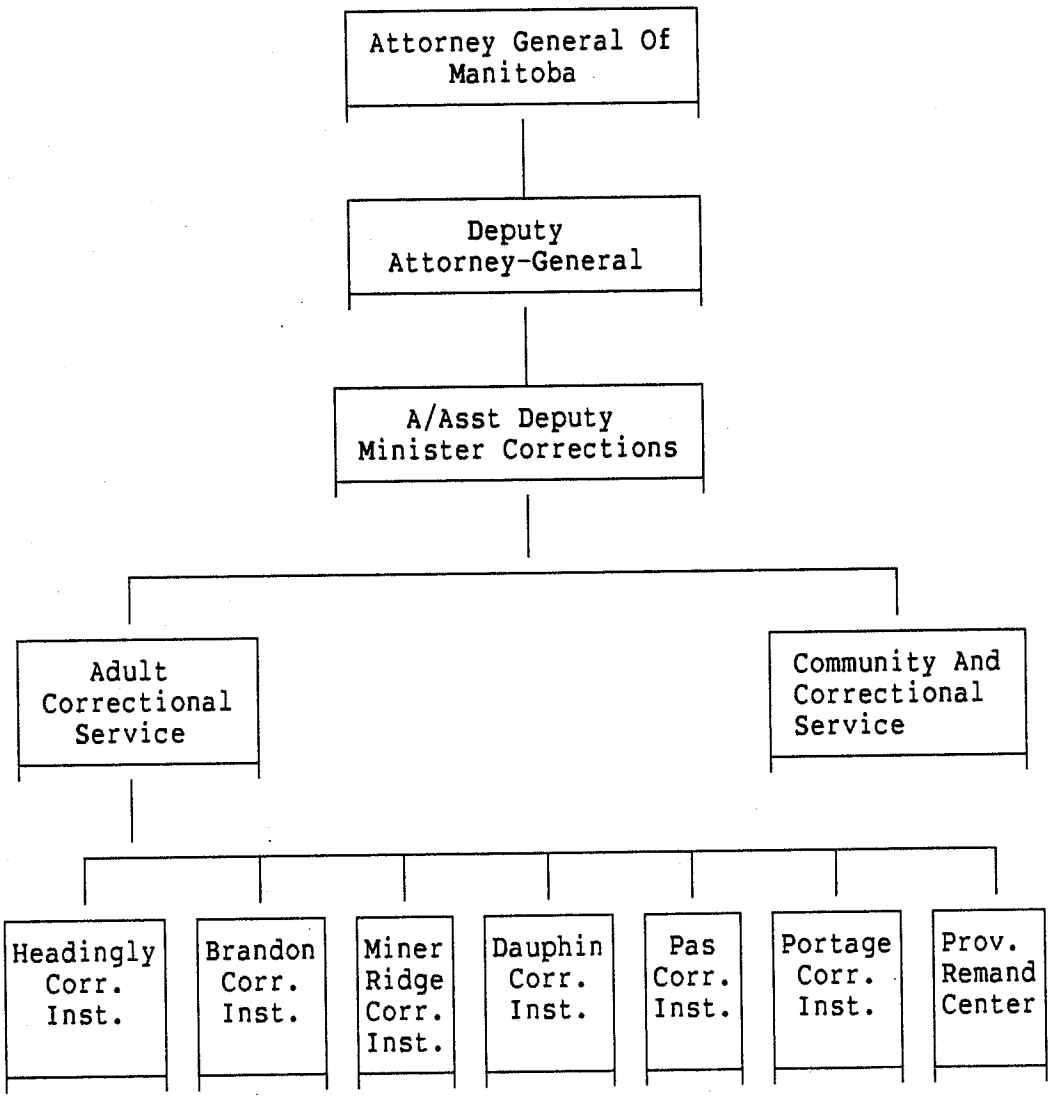

Figure A.3: Organizational Chart: Manitoba Probation Services In 1988

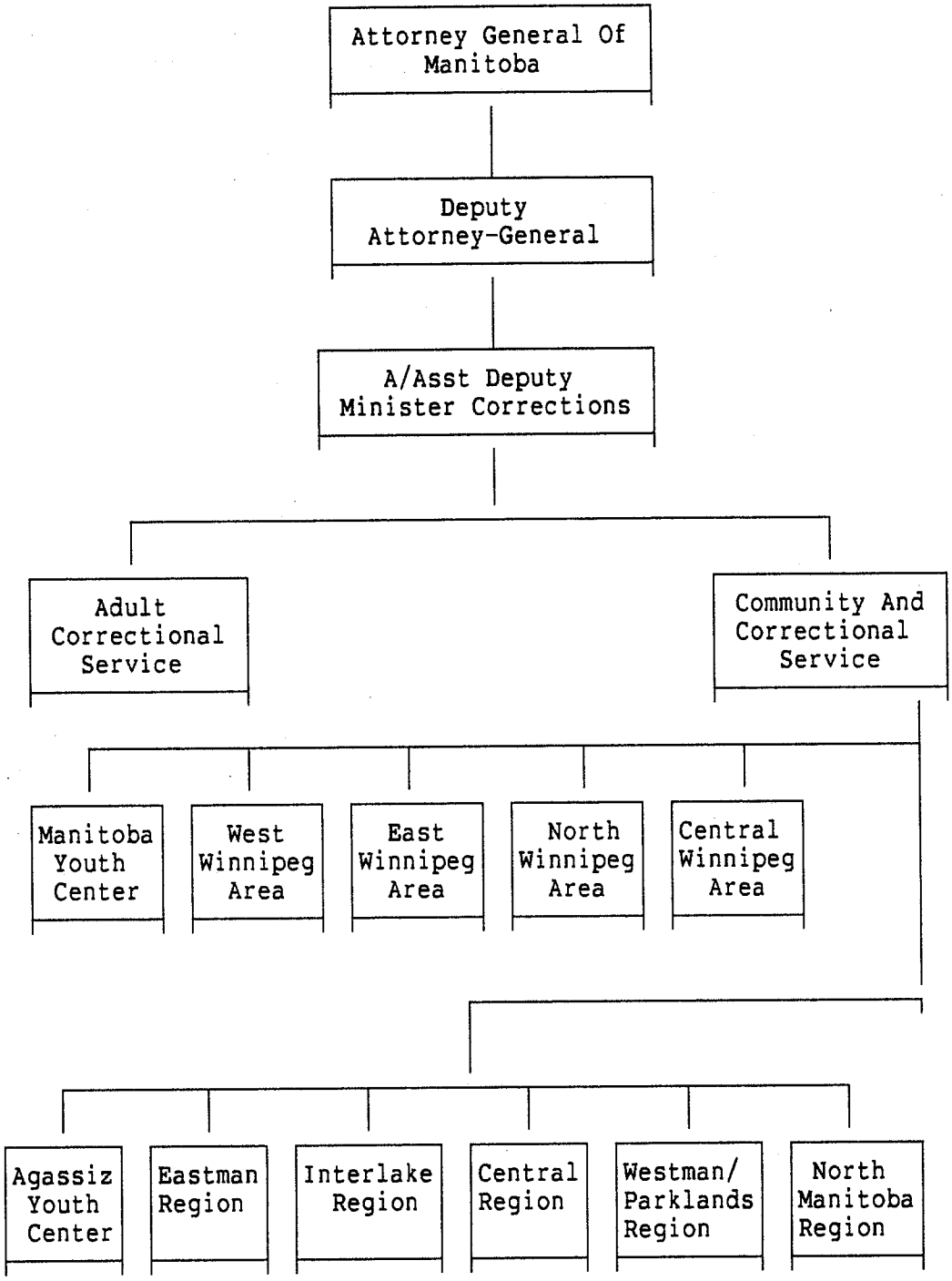

Figure A.4: Attorney General Department Organizational Chart In 1988

Appendix B

RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

CRIMINAL JUSTICE VOLUNTEERISM:

VOLUNTEERS IN CORRECTIONAL SERVICE

IN

WINNIPEG MANITOBA, CANADA

A 1990 SURVEY OF MANITOBA VOLUNTEERS IN CORRECTIONAL SERVICE AND THEIR ATTITUDE TOWARDS FEAR OF CRIME, JOB STRESS, JOB SUPERVISOR, JOB SATISFACTION, WORK AND WORK ENVIRONMENT, CORRECTIONAL SERVICE IN GENERAL, AND A VARIETY OF SPECIAL INTEREST TOPICS

Questions in the booklet are arranged so that you only need fill in the blank or circle the answer which most accurately represents your opinion. Please answer all questions in the the order in which they appear. The last page has been reserved for your comments.

Return this questionnaire to:
Department Of Sociology
University Of Manitoba
Winnipeg, Manitoba
R3T 2N2

WHO AM I?

Peter John Frick, graduate student, conducting research at the Department Of Sociology at the University Of Manitoba.

WHAT IS THIS SURVEY FOR, AND WHY SHOULD YOU ANSWER?

This survey questionnaire has been constructed to obtain your opinion on a variety of issues that pertain to your service as a Volunteer in Corrections in Winnipeg, Manitoba Canada. The answers that you provide by answering this questionnaire will serve as your evaluation of Volunteer Correctional Service, and as such, will generate information valuable to creating an understanding of volunteerism in Canadian Criminal Justice.

I know that you are very busy and that questions can infringe upon your privacy. However, you have found Volunteer Corrections Service important enough for you to become involved in it, and I believe your dedication to corrections service should not go unnoticed. This questionnaire may take you less than 15 minutes to complete, and keep in mind that there are no right or wrong answers. Only YOUR opinion matters. Please feel free to offer your comments on the last page of the questionnaire. A summary of the survey results will be made available to you if you request it (see question 41).

WHERE DID I GET YOUR NAME?

From your Correction Volunteer Coordinator and Area Director.

WHAT WILL BE DONE WITH THE QUESTIONNAIRE?

All questionnaires will be destroyed after the information is recorded on computer tape. Survey research at the University Of Manitoba is supervised by an ethical review committee to protect your privacy, and I am required to keep ALL INFORMATION THAT YOU GIVE ME CONFIDENTIAL. And of course, should you find any question to be objectionable, you do not have to answer it.

HELP?

If you need help to complete any portion of this questionnaire, please contact me at [phone #]. If I am unable to receive your call immediately, kindly leave a message and I will get back to you.

********** **SPECIAL INSTRUCTIONS** **********

If you worked as a Volunteer in Corrections at **MORE THAN ONE** correction office/facility, please provide answers based upon your work experience at which ever office/facility you worked at for **THE LONGEST TIME.** And, while you may no longer be working as a Correction Volunteer, please answer the questions as if you **STILL ARE,** that is, based upon your experience as a Correction Volunteer.

WHILE THERE ARE SEVERAL TOPICS ON THIS SURVEY, THE MAJOR FOCUS

IS TO GET A GOOD UNDERSTANDING OF YOUR EXPERIENCE AS A

VOLUNTEER IN CORRECTIONAL SERVICE

---

1. How long have you lived in Winnipeg?
   Please fill in the appropriate blank(s).

   YEAR(s) _____ MONTH(s) _____

2. While you worked as a volunteer in Corrections, in which Community did you live in for the longest time?
   Please circle the corresponding number.

   ASSINIBOINE PARK 1
   FORT GARRY 2
   ST.JAMES 3
   ASSINIBOIA 4
   CITY CENTRE 5
   FORT ROUGE 6
   EAST KILDONAN 7
   TRANSCONA 8
   WEST KILDONAN 9
   LORD SELKIRK 10
   ST.BONIFACE 11
   ST.VITAL 12

   OTHER (specify):

3. How long have you served as a Volunteer in Corrections?
   Please fill in the appropriate blank(s).

   YEAR(s) _____ MONTH(s) _____

4. For which correction office/facility do you perform volunteer service?
   Please circle the corresponding number.

   EAST DISTRICT OFFICE (Gateway) 1
   EAST DISTRICT OFFICE (Archibald) 2
   NORTH DISTRICT OFFICE (Redwood) 3
   WEST DISTRICT OFFICE (Portage) 4
   WEST DISTRICT OFFICE (Tuxedo) 5
   MANITOBA YOUTH CENTER (Doncaster) 6
   ADULT REMAND (Princess) 7
   HEADINGLY (Headingly) 8
   CENTRAL (Donald) 9

   OTHER (specify):

This next group of questions (5 to 19) pertain to your attitude towards Corrections Service In General.

5. Do you like working as a Volunteer in Corrections?
   Please circle the corresponding number.

   STRONGLY LIKE 1
   LIKE 2
   SOMEWHAT LIKE 3
   UNDECIDED 4
   SOMEWHAT DISLIKE 5
   DISLIKE 6
   STRONGLY DISLIKE 7

6. Please RANK the 3 reasons that influenced you the MOST to become a correction volunteer. Use the number **1** indicate your **MOST** important reason, the number **2** to indicate your **2nd MOST** important reason, and the number **3** to indicate your **3rd MOST** important reason. If some or none of your "top 3" reasons do not appear in the list below, then list your other reasons where it says 'OTHER(specify)' and provide the appropriate 1 to 3 ranking.
   Please RANK 3 reasons only.

	RANK
THOUGHT IT WOULD BE INTERESTING	____
I FELT A REAL NEED TO HELP OTHERS	____
I WANTED TO HELP THE COMMUNITY	____
I WANTED TO LEARN A NEW SKILL	____
I WANTED TO PREVENT OTHERS FROM MAKING THE MISTAKES THAT I MADE	____
I THOUGHT THAT IT WOULD HELP ME GET A JOB LATER	____
IT WAS A REQUIREMENT FOR A COURSE THAT I WAS TAKING IN SCHOOL	____
MY FRIENDS WERE DOING IT	____
IT WAS JUST SOMETHING TO DO	____
I WANT TO LEARN MORE ABOUT THE CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM	____
BECAUSE CRIME APPEARS TO HAVE INCREASED IN MY COMMUNITY	____

   OTHER (specify):

7. What is your volunteer work assignment?
   Please circle the corresponding number.

   WORK WITH OFFENDERS ON PROBATION 1
   WORK WITH OFFENDERS IN INSTITUTION ... 2
   WORK WITH OFFENDERS ON TEMPORARY ABSENCE 3
   YOUTH JUSTICE COMMITTEE MEMBER 4

   OTHER (specify):

8. Do you feel that your volunteer assignment should vary, meaning that from time to time you should work at different offices/facilit and/or institutions, or should it remain the same?
Please circle the corresponding number.

VARY 1
REMAIN THE SAME 2
UNDECIDED 3

9. Is your orientation to the correction system adequate?
Please circle the corresponding number.

YES ____ NO ____ UNDECIDED ____

10. Do you believe that all criminals, most criminals, only some criminals, or no criminals can be rehabilitated (for example, go on to lead a "normal" life)?
Please circle the corresponding number.

ALL CRIMINALS 1
MOST CRIMINALS 2
SOME CRIMINALS 3
NO CRIMINALS 4
UNDECIDED 5

11. Who are the most effective Volunteers in Corrections?
Please circle the corresponding number.

MEN 1
WOMEN 2
MEN AND WOMEN ARE ABOUT THE SAME 3
MEN AND WOMEN ARE EXACTLY THE SAME ... 4
UNDECIDED 5

12. Please indicate how you first heard about becoming a Volunteer in Corrections.
Please circle the corresponding number.

VOLUNTEER CENTER (5 Donald Street) ... 1
NEWSPAPER 2
JOHN HOWARD SOCIETY 3
OTHER VOLUNTEERS 4
ELIZABETH FRY SOCIETY 5
FRIENDS 6
SALVATION ARMY 7
MENNONITE CENTRAL COMMITTEE 8
CHURCH 9
ABORIGINAL ORGANIZATION 10
UNIVERSITY 11
RED RIVER COMMUNITY COLLEGE 12
SUPPORT GROUPS (ie. A.A.) 13
DON'T REMEMBER 14

OTHER (specify):

13. In general, does your supervisor give serious consideration to your suggestions that pertain to the care of offenders?
Please circle the corresponding number.

ALWAYS 1
USUALLY 2
SOMETIMES 3
RARELY 4
NEVER 5
UNDECIDED 6

14. If someone expressed to you their desire to become a volunteer in Corrections, would you recommend the job?
Please circle the corresponding number.

STRONGLY RECOMMEND IT 1
RECOMMEND IT 2
SOMEWHAT RECOMMEND IT 3
UNDECIDED 4
SOMEWHAT ADVISE AGAINST IT 5
ADVISE AGAINST IT 6
STRONGLY ADVISE AGAINST IT 7

15. There exists the belief that offenders become offenders because they have been influenced by a number of factors, and that some factors have a stronger influence in producing criminality than do other factors. If you share this belief, **RANK** the factors listed below in order from the strongest factor to the weakest factor. Use the number one **1** to identify the **STRONGEST** factor, use the number two **2** to identify the **2nd STRONGEST** factor, and so on through to the **14th STRONGEST** factor. Use each of the fourteen numbers (1 through to 14) only once. If you do not share this 'multiple factor' belief, do not answer this question and instead go on to question 19.
Please RANK all 14 factors.

RANK

THE WAY THEY ARE RAISED ..... ____
UNCONTROLLABLE IMPULSES/URGES ..... ____
ITS THE LIFESTYLE THEY PREFER ..... ____
THEY WERE JUST BORN THAT WAY ..... ____
POVERTY ..... ____
BROKEN HOMES (ie. divorce) ..... ____
DRUGS (ie. cocaine, marijuana) ..... ____
ALCOHOL ..... ____
WHAT THEY SEE ON TELEVISION ..... ____
LACK OF RELIGION ..... ____
MENTAL ILLNESS ..... ____
THE FRIENDS THEY KEEP ..... ____
LACK OF EDUCATION ..... ____
THEY BELIEVE ITS THE ONLY WAY TO A BETTER LIFE .. ____

16. On average, how often do you work as a Corrections volunteer?
Please fill in the appropriate blank(s).

HOUR(s) PER DAY _____ WEEK(s) PER MONTH _____

DAY(s) PER WEEK _____ MONTH(s) PER YEAR _____

17. Is your volunteer training adequate?
Please circle the corresponding number.

YES ____ NO ____ UNDECIDED ____

18. On average, how long does it take you to travel to the correction office/facility where you work (ROUND UP TO THE NEAREST MINUTE)?
Please circle the corresponding number.

LESS THAN 10 MINUTES 1
BETWEEN 11 TO 15 MINUTES 2
BETWEEN 16 TO 20 MINUTES 3
BETWEEN 21 TO 25 MINUTES 4
BETWEEN 26 TO 30 MINUTES 5
BETWEEN 31 TO 35 MINUTES 6
BETWEEN 36 TO 40 MINUTES 7
BETWEEN 41 TO 45 MINUTES 8
BETWEEN 46 TO 50 MINUTES 9
BETWEEN 51 TO 55 MINUTES 10
BETWEEN 56 TO 60 MINUTES 11
MORE THAN 60 MINUTES 12
UNDECIDED 13

19. If you attend school while working as a volunteer in Corrections, what are you studying? If you do **NOT** attend school while working as a volunteer in Corrections, please go on to question 20
Please specify major(s), program(s), trade(s), etc.

SOCIAL WORK 1
CRIMINOLOGY 2
PSYCHOLOGY 3
SOCIOLOGY 4

OTHER (specify):

20. (a) In your role as a volunteer at your correction office/facility have you ever been physically attacked by an offender?
Please put a check mark in the appropriate blank.

YES ____ NO ____

(b) In your role as a volunteer at your correction office/facility have you ever been verbally abused by an offender?
Please put a check mark in the appropriate blank.

YES ____ NO ____

This next group of questions (21a to 21q, and 22) pertain to your attitude towards Fear of Crime.

21. **Please circle the corresponding number.**
If you cannot decide upon an answer from the 5 categories, then leave that question **BLANK,** and go on to another question.

From your contact with offenders, what is the likelihood that you could become a victim of ...	HIGH	MODERATE	LOW	NOT AT ALL	UNDECIDED
a) ... abusive language (ie. threats, swearing)	1	2	3	4	5
b) ... a theft of your property (ie. things on desk top/in office)	1	2	3	4	5
c) ... a physical attack WITHOUT a weapon	1	2	3	4	5
d) ... a hostage taking	1	2	3	4	5
e) ... a physical attack WITH a weapon	1	2	3	4	5
f) ... a sexual attack WITHOUT a weapon	1	2	3	4	5
g) ... an inappropriate sexual advance	1	2	3	4	5
h) ... a sexual attack WITH a weapon	1	2	3	4	5
i) ... fraudulent misrepresentation (ie. an offender lying to you)	1	2	3	4	5
j) ... your car being vandalized	1	2	3	4	5
k) ... disturbing (ie. obscene) phone calls AT HOME from offenders	1	2	3	4	5
l) ... an upset offender coming to your home	1	2	3	4	5

Please circle the corresponding number.
If you cannot decide upon an answer from the 5 categories, then leave that question **BLANK**, and go on to another question.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
m) Corrections personnel are more likely to be crime victims than are the general public	1	2	3	4	5
n) If I had the choice, I would prefer to carry a weapon (ie.gun) at work	1	2	3	4	5
o) In knowing an offender, you are more likely to become a crime victim than when you didn't know an offender	1	2	3	4	5
p) Failure to punish crime amounts to giving a licence to commit crime	1	2	3	4	5
q) If asked to supervise a dangerous offender (ie.sex offender) I would refuse because of the danger	1	2	3	4	5

22. In your role as a volunteer, to what extent do you fear becoming a victim of crime as a result of being in contact with offenders at your corrections office/facility?
Please circle the corresponding number.

GREATLY FEAR IT 1
MODERATELY FEAR IT 2
SOMEWHAT FEAR IT 3
DON'T FEAR IT AT ALL 4
UNDECIDED 5

OTHER (specify):

The following questions (23a to 23t, and 24) pertain to your attitude towards Work and Work Environment at your correction office/facility.

23. **Please circle the corresponding number.**
If you cannot decide upon an answer from the 5 categories, then leave that question **BLANK**, and go on to another question.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
a) I have opportunities to develop my own special abilities	1	2	3	4	5
b) Unreasonable demands are not made of me	1	2	3	4	5
c) The people I work with are competent in getting the job done	1	2	3	4	5
d) I have not been asked to do excessive amounts of work	1	2	3	4	5
e) The hours that I work are not excessive	1	2	3	4	5
f) Given the level of resources in this office/facility, it's all but impossible to do the job properly	1	2	3	4	5
g) The people that I work with do not appreciate me	1	2	3	4	5
h) The job requires too much paperwork	1	2	3	4	5
i) I'm free to decide how to do my work	1	2	3	4	5
j) Travel to and from work is convenient	1	2	3	4	5
k) The people that I work with are helpful	1	2	3	4	5

Please circle the corresponding number.
If you cannot decide upon an answer from the 5 categories, then leave that question **BLANK**, and go on to another question.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
l) I can see the results of my work	1	2	3	4	5
m) The bureaucracy prevents me from doing everything that I could/should do for offenders	1	2	3	4	5
n) This job has made me become more cynical	1	2	3	4	5
o) The people I work for appreciate my work	1	2	3	4	5
p) To get a well paying job these days it is necessary to have volunteer experience	1	2	3	4	5
q) My tasks are usually the same each day	1	2	3	4	5
r) I have accomplished many worthwhile things at this job	1	2	3	4	5
s) To satisfy some co-workers, I have to upset other co-workers	1	2	3	4	5
t) I am proud of the work that I do	1	2	3	4	5

24. How closely does your volunteer job conform to your expectations of what you thought the job would be like **BEFORE** you got it?
Please circle the corresponding number.

EXACTLY THE SAME	1
VERY SIMILAR	2
SOMEWHAT SIMILAR	3
UNDECIDED	4
SOMEWHAT DISSIMILAR	5
VERY DISSIMILAR	6
EXACTLY OPPOSITE	7

This next group of questions (25a to 25p, and 26) is a checklist that pertains to On-The-Job Stressers that may, or may not, be a concern, problem, or an obstacle in the performance of your duties and responsibilities.

Read the list of statements below, and from the categories provided, determine to what extent the statement reflects a work-related problem for you at the correction office/facility where you are a volunteer.

25. **Please circle the corresponding number.**
If you cannot decide upon an answer from the 5 categories, then leave that question **BLANK**, and go on to another question.

This factor is a problem	NEVER	SELDOM	SOMETIMES	USUALLY	ALWAYS
a) Not knowing what your supervisor expects of you	1	2	3	4	5
b) Feeling that you are required to perform tasks that are against your better judgement	1	2	3	4	5
c) Thinking that you will be unable to satisfy the conflicting demands of your supervisor	1	2	3	4	5
d) Feeling that your workload is so heavy that you cannot get it all done in a day	1	2	3	4	5
e) Not having enough time to do the work properly	1	2	3	4	5
f) Having the requirements of the job impact your personal life	1	2	3	4	5
g) Being unclear as to the scope of your responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5
h) Feeling that the amount of authority that you have is not enough to permit you to get your work done	1	2	3	4	5

Please circle the corresponding number.
If you cannot decide upon an answer from the 5 categories, then leave that question **BLANK,** and go on to another question.

This factor is a problem	NEVER	SELDOM	SOMETIMES	USUALLY	ALWAYS
i) Feeling that you are not provided with enough information to get the job done	1	2	3	4	5
j) Feeling that you cannot predict the reactions of your supervisor	1	2	3	4	5
k) Feeling that you never know what your supervisor thinks of you	1	2	3	4	5
l) Feeling that your ideas are usually considerably different from the ideas of your supervisor	1	2	3	4	5
m) Interpersonal conflicts between members of the permanent staff	1	2	3	4	5
n) Interpersonal conflicts between volunteers and the permanent staff	1	2	3	4	5
o) Interpersonal conflicts between volunteers	1	2	3	4	5
p) Feeling burned out at my volunteer job	1	2	3	4	5

26. Would you say that the amount of stress that you experience at your volunteer Corrections job is:
Please circle the corresponding number.

EXTREMELY HIGH	1
HIGH TO EXTREMELY HIGH	2
HIGH	3
MODERATE TO HIGH	4
MODERATE	5
LOW TO MODERATE	6
LOW	7
NO STRESS	8
UNDECIDED	9

This next group of questions (27a to 27r, and 28) pertain to your attitude towards your Supervisor.

27. **Please circle the corresponding number.**
If you cannot decide upon an answer from the 5 categories, then leave that question **BLANK,** and go on to another question.

In general, my supervisor ...	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
a) ... seems to resent my asking questions about things that I don't understand	1	2	3	4	5
b) ... does not review my performance with me on a regular basis	1	2	3	4	5
c) ... offers criticism that is usually more vindictive than constructive	1	2	3	4	5
d) ... insists that everything is to be done her/his way	1	2	3	4	5
e) ... rewards a job that is well done	1	2	3	4	5
f) ... insists on being informed of decisions that I make	1	2	3	4	5
g) ... informs me of recent developments that pertain to how I am to do my job	1	2	3	4	5
h) ... plans with me what I am to accomplish in the time ahead	1	2	3	4	5
i) ... knows or finds the answers when I have a problem	1	2	3	4	5
j) ... is hard to get along with	1	2	3	4	5

Please circle the corresponding number.
If you cannot decide upon an answer from the 5 categories, then leave that question **BLANK,** and go on to another question.

In general, my supervisor ...	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNDECIDED	DISAGREE	STRONGL DISAGREE
k) ... seems to really care about doing her/his job	1	2	3	4	5
l) ... has the respect of the volunteers	1	2	3	4	5
m) ... has the respect of the permanent staff	1	2	3	4	5
n) ... sees to it that my potential is fully utilized	1	2	3	4	5
o) ... is friendly and can easily be approached	1	2	3	4	5
p) ... is open to new ideas	1	2	3	4	5
q) ... emphasizes the quantity of work over the quality of work	1	2	3	4	5
r) ... spends more time finding someone to blame than trying to find a solution when something goes wrong	1	2	3	4	5

28. The amount of supervision that I received from my supervisor was:
Please circle the corresponding number.

JUST RIGHT 1
ABOUT RIGHT 2
A BIT MUCH 3
OFTEN TOO MUCH 4
ALWAYS TOO MUCH 5
SUPERVISOR NEVER GOES AWAY 6
WAS NEVER SUPERVISED 7
UNDECIDED 8

This next group of questions (29 to 41) pertain to a variety of Special Interest Topics.

29. (a) What is your religious preference, if any?
Please circle the corresponding number.

ANGLICAN 1
BAPTIST 2
GREEK ORTHODOX 3
JEWISH 4
LUTHERAN 5
MENNONITE 6
MORMON 7
PENTECOSTAL 8
PRESBYTERIAN 9
ROMAN CATHOLIC 10
UKRAINIAN CATHOLIC 11
UNITED CHURCH 12
PROTESTANT UNSPECIFIED 13
CHRISTIAN UNSPECIFIED 14
MOSLEM 15
OTHER EASTERN RELIGIONS 16
ATHEIST 17
NO PREFERENCE/AFFILIATION 18
UNDECIDED 19

OTHER (specify):

(b) From the preference that you indicated in 28 (a), immediately above, would you call yourself strong or not very strong? If you were unable to state a preference in 28 (a), then please go on to question 29.
Please circle the corresponding number.

VERY STRONG 1
STRONG 2
SOMEWHAT STRONG 3
UNDECIDED 4
SOMEWHAT WEAK 5
WEAK 6
VERY WEAK 7

30. How often do you attend services at Church (or a synagogue or temple or other place of worship)? Would you say:
Please circle the corresponding number.

NEVER OR HARDLY EVER 1
ONE TO THREE TIMES A YEAR 2
FOUR TO ELEVEN TIMES A YEAR 3
ONCE TO THREE TIMES A MONTH 4
ONCE A WEEK 5
MORE THAN ONCE A WEEK 6

31. (a) When you were growing up, what was your mother's religion?
(b) When you were growing up, what was your father's religion?
Please circle the corresponding number in both categories.

	MOTHER	FATHER
ANGLICAN	1	1
BAPTIST	2	2
GREEK ORTHODOX	3	3
JEWISH	4	4
LUTHERAN	5	5
MENNONITE	6	6
MORMON	7	7
PENTECOSTAL	8	8
PRESBYTERIAN	9	9
ROMAN CATHOLIC	10	10
UKRAINIAN CATHOLIC	11	11
UNITED CHURCH	12	12
PROTESTANT UNSPECIFIED	13	13
CHRISTIAN UNSPECIFIED	14	14
MOSLEM	15	15
OTHER EASTERN RELIGIONS	16	16
ATHEIST	17	17
NO PREFERENCE/AFFILIATION	18	18
UNDECIDED	19	19

OTHER (specify):

32. When you were growing up, how strong was your mother's religion?
Please circle the corresponding number.

VERY STRONG	1
STRONG	2
SOMEWHAT STRONG	3
UNDECIDED	4
SOMEWHAT WEAK	5
WEAK	6
VERY WEAK	7

33. When you were growing up, how strong was your father's religion?
Please circle the corresponding number.

VERY STRONG	1
STRONG	2
SOMEWHAT STRONG	3
UNDECIDED	4
SOMEWHAT WEAK	5
WEAK	6
VERY WEAK	7

34. What is your highest level of education?
Please circle the corresponding number.

NO SCHOOLING	1
ELEMENTARY	
INCOMPLETE	2
COMPLETE	3
JUNIOR HIGH	
INCOMPLETE	4
COMPLETE	5
HIGH SCHOOL	
INCOMPLETE	6
COMPLETE	7
NON-UNIVERSITY	
INCOMPLETE	8
COMPLETE	9
UNIVERSITY	
INCOMPLETE	10
DIPLOMA/CERTIFICATE	11
BACHELOR'S DEGREE	12
BACHELOR HONOURS DEGREE	13
MEDICAL DEGREE	14
MASTER'S DEGREE	15
DOCTORATE	16

35. What is your marital status?
Please circle the corresponding number.

SINGLE (never married)	1
MARRIED AND	
LIVING WITH SPOUSE	2
NOT LIVING WITH SPOUSE (separated)	3
COMMON-LAW / OR	
LIVE-IN PARTNER	4
DIVORCED	5
WIDOWED	6

36. Are you male or female?
Please put a check mark in the appropriate blank.

MALE _____ FEMALE _____

37. How old are you today (IN YEARS)?
Please fill in the blank.

PRESENT AGE _____

38. How old where you when you first became a volunteer in Corrections?
Please fill in the blank.

AGE _____

39. In addition to being a volunteer, are you also presently working full time, part time, going to school, keeping house, or something else?
Please circle the corresponding number.

EMPLOYED FULL TIME 1
EMPLOYED PART TIME 2
SELF EMPLOYED 3
UNEMPLOYED 4
RETIRED 5
IN SCHOOL 6
KEEPING HOUSE 7

OTHER (specify):

40. Sometimes our nationality or religious backgrounds make us think of ourselves not only as Canadian, but as being related to other countries, and so we might call ourselves 'French', 'Jewish', or 'English', for example. Thinking of your background, what would you call yourself?
Please check as many as may apply.

____ FRENCH
____ ENGLISH
____ IRISH
____ SCOTTISH
____ INUIT
____ FRENCH-CANADIAN
____ NORTH AMERICAN INDIAN
____ GERMAN
____ ITALIAN
____ UKRAINIAN
____ DUTCH (Netherlands)
____ CHINESE
____ JEWISH
____ POLISH
____ BLACK
____ METIS
____ CANADIAN

OTHER (specify):

41. Do you want a summary of the survey results?
Please put a check mark in the appropriate blank.

YES ____ NO ____

If you answered **'YES'** to question 41 please print your name and address on the back of the return envelope, and we will see to it that you get a summary of the survey results.

THANK-YOU FOR TAKING THE TIME TO COMPLETE THIS QUESTIONNAIRE. IF YOU WOULD CARE TO OFFER COMMENTS PLEASE DO SO ON THE FOLLOWING PAGE.

IF THERE IS ANYTHING ELSE THAT YOU WOULD LIKE TO SAY ABOUT YOUR SERVICE AS A VOLUNTEER IN CORRECTIONS, THIS PAGE HAS BEEN RESERVED FOR THIS PURPOSE. ALL COMMENTS ARE KEPT CONFIDENTIAL.

YOUR CONTRIBUTION TO THIS STUDY IS GREATLY APPRECIATED. AGAIN, IF YOU WOULD LIKE A SUMMARY OF THE SURVEY RESULTS, PLEASE PRINT YOUR NAME AND ADDRESS ON THE BACK OF THE RETURN ENVELOPE (not on the questionnaire) AND WE WILL SEE THAT YOU GET IT.

Appendix C

CONTRACTUAL AGREEMENT GRANTING PERMISSION TO UNDERTAKE THE STUDY

THIS AGREEMENT made in duplicate this day of

A.D. 19 .

BETWEEN:

MANITOBA COMMUNITY SERVICES,

CORRECTIONS DIVISION

(hereinafter referred to as the

"Corrections Division)

OF THE FIRST PART,

- and -

(hereinafter referred to as the

"Researcher")

OF THE SECOND PART.

WHEREAS the Corrections Division operates programs for alleged and convicted offenders.

AND WHEREAS the Researcher is desirous of entering into a contract for research services and information to be provided by the Corrections Division.

NOW THEREFORE THIS AGREEMENT WITNESSETH THAT in consideration of the mutual covenants and agreements herein contained and subject to the terms and conditions hereinafter set out, the parties hereto agree as follows:

1. The Corrections Division undertakes to provide the Researcher with research information relating to its offenders and/or staff, and without restricting the generality of the foregoing:
   (a) data relating to the research project;
   (b) access to anonymously coded data;
   (c) use of the Corrections Division premises and facilities for the specific purpose of the research project;
   (d) access to the Corrections Division resident files.

2. The Researcher undertakes and agrees to provide the Corrections Division with written information related to the research project as required, and without limiting the generality of the foregoing:
   (a) the research question or review topic;
   (b) the research hypothesis, if any, including the independent and dependent variables, or review topic areas of comparison;
   (c) the method of the research project, specifically: As outlined in the May 9, 1990 Letter.
      i) description of research design;
      ii) materials required;
      iii) the number and sex of the interviewers;
      iv) the time required for the research project;
      v) procedures to be followed;
      vi) Corrections Division support staff required;
      vii) the sex, age, and race of subjects required;
      viii) method of data analysis;
      ix) review of relevant research literature;

x) description of pilot work, if any;

xi) theoretical and/or practical implications of proposed work;

xii) budget for use of funds or statement of needed assistance.

(d) the results of the research project, specifically the target population to which the conclusions are to be generalized;

(e) statement of voluntary participation for the subjects;

(f) statement of how the researcher will satisfy the ethical guidelines of his/her discipline. A statement by a suitable ethics review committee will be acceptable for student researchers.

3. The Researcher undertakes and agrees to acknowledge in any publications the assistance of the Corrections Division.

4. The Researcher undertakes and agrees to obtain written authorization from the Assistant Deputy Minister prior to the publishing of any report or proposal relating to the research project.

5. The Researcher further undertakes and agrees to provide to the Assistant Deputy Minister 2 copies of any and all proposals, papers and final research report relating to the research report.

6. The Researcher agrees to provide N/A. number of training hours to Corrections Division.

7. The Researcher further undertakes and agrees to obey and comply with the Corrections Division rules and regulations with such reasonable variations and modifications as may be added from time to time by way of notice from the Corrections Division to the Researcher.

8. Nothing in this Agreement shall be deemed or construed to confer liability on the Corrections Division, either directly or indirectly, concerning any loss, injury or damage to property incurred by the Researcher while at or upon the Corrections Division premises.

9. No term or condition of this Agreement shall be deemed to be waived by the Researcher in whole or in part unless the waiver is clearly expressed in writing signed by the Assistant Deputy Minister or by a person authorized for that purpose by the Assistant Deputy Minister.

10. The term of this Agreement shall be May 22, 1990 - June 22/90 provided always that either party may terminate same upon written notice delivered to the other party at least — months in advance of the Friday completed within anniversary or termination date. This Agreement may also be terminated at the option of the Corrections Division upon reasonable notice if, in the opinion of the Assistant Deputy Minister, the research project conducted by the researcher has changed in a substantial nature such that it can no longer be facilitated by the Corrections Division.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF the parties hereto have affixed their signatures.

WITNESSED BY:

CORRECTIONS DIVISION	THE RESEARCHER
Assistant Deputy Minister	Research Supervisor
Program Director	Researcher
Program Manager	Researcher

Appendix D

SURVEY INSTRUMENT QUESTIONS SOURCES

SOURCE	QUESTIONS
CURRIE, Raymond. (1989). Winnipeg Area Study: Research Report No. 20. Dept. Of Sociology. University Of Manitoba.	29(a), 29(b), 30, 31(a), 31(b), 32, 33, 34, 35
DILLMAN, Don A. (1978). Mail And Telephone Surveys: The Total Design Method. A Wiley-Interscience Publication. John Wiley & Sons. Toronto.	41
GANDY, J. et.al. (1976). Volunteers And Volunteer Programs In Selected Adult Correctional Institutions. January. Faculty Of Social Work. University Of Toronto. Toronto, Ontario.	21(p)
HARRIS, Louis., et.al. (1969) "Volunteers Look At Corrections" Report Of A Survey. February. Joint Commission On Correctional Manpower And Training. Washington, D.C. 30 Pages.	15
HERMAN, Jeanne Brett. (1986). "Job Attitudes And Job Behaviours From Personal And Organizational Perspectives." Dissertation. University Of Arkansas. University Microfilms International. Ann Arbour, Michigan.	27(d), 27(e), 27(f) 27(g), 27(h), 27(n) 27(o), 27(r)
HILL, Marjorie J. (1972). Partners: Community Volunteer And Probationer In A One-To-One Relationship. Project Evaluation. Systems And Research Unit. Division Of Corrections. Juneau, Alaska. Dissertation. University Of Arkansas. University Microfilms International. Ann Arbour, Michigan.	15, 27(d), 27(e) 27(f), 27(g), 27(h) 27(n), 27(o), 27(r)
HORNER, Pat. (1990). Interview. An interview with a Winnipeg Probation Officer. Winnipeg Probation Services. Winnipeg, Manitoba.	21(q)

QUESTIONS SOURCES - continued

SOURCE	QUESTIONS
HOWELL, James Carlton. (1972). "A Comparison Of Probation Officers And Volunteers." Dissertation At The University Of Colorado. University Microfilms International. Ann Arbor, Michigan.	23(i), 23(l), 23(n) 23(r), 23(s), 23(p)
MEAD, H.R. (1978). "Managerial Behaviour And Level Of Performance: An Empirical Study. Dissertation. University Of South Carolina.	18(d), 18(f), 18(g) 18(m), 18(t)
McLEAN, Alan D. (1979). Work Stress. Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Inc. Don Mills, Ontario and London.	25(a)-25(l)
SIENEMA, Jerry. (1990). Interview. An interview with a Winnipeg Probation Officer. Winnipeg Probation Services. Winnipeg, Manitoba.	7, 9, 17
TROUGHTON, Brian. (1990). Interview. An interview with a Winnipeg Probation Officer. Winnipeg Probation Services. Winnipeg, Manitoba.	8

Appendix E

LETTERS CONSTRUCTED TO SOLICIT RESPONDENT PARTICIPATION

INITIAL CONTACT LETTER

Peter Frick
Return Address
Winnipeg, Manitoba
Return Postal Code

20th May, 1990

Respondent Name
Respondent Address
Winnipeg, Manitoba
Respondent Postal Code

Dear Respondent,

Winnipeg's Gateway Probation Office implemented a new service delivery system called the Community Resources Management Team approach in 1986. From funds provided by the Solicitor General's Department, this new system was evaluated by an independent researcher, and the final report was released to the probation community in June of 1989.

I was the independent researcher who conducted that evaluation, and Recommendation 14 of my final report states that volunteers are under-valued. While you may already be aware of this fact, I would also like you to know that through funding made available to me from the Criminology Research Center at the University of Manitoba, I am able to once again draw attention to the important contribution that volunteers in Correctional Service make through their volunteer work.

I writing to you to ask for your participation in the most comprehensive study ever done on Volunteers in Correctional Service in Manitoba. Through this study we will be able to tell the corrections community the extent to which volunteers, as a group, are either satisfied or dissatisfied with many aspects of corrections.

I do not wish to take up more of your time than is absolutely necessary, so I have stamped your questionnaire with a number so that I can take you off my mailing list as soon as I receive your reply. This number is for mailing purposes only, and helps me to ensure that I have not overlooked your contribution to correctional service. Would you please take a few minutes and return your completed questionnaire in the postage paid return envelope. This envelope is addressed to my personal residence to ensure that no one but myself has access to your completed questionnaire. And please note that the questionnaire contains instructions to help me get a summary of the analysis results to you.

I would be most happy to answer any questions that you may have. Please feel free to write or call. My telephone number is [phone #].

Thank you for your assistance,

Sincerely,

Peter Frick
Project Director

1ST WEEK REMINDER POSTCARD

31 May, 1990

Last week a questionnaire seeking your opinions about your service as a Volunteer in Corrections in Winnipeg was mailed to you.

If your questionnaire has already been returned, please accept a sincere debt of thanks. If not, please complete the questionnaire today. For the Volunteer Correctional Community to benefit from this study, it is essential that your experience as a volunteer be considered as you see it, and not just inferred from the answers that the other volunteers have sent me. You felt it important enough to become a Volunteer in Corrections, and I feel that your contribution cannot be overlooked.

If by some chance you did not receive a questionnaire, or if it was misplaced, please contact me at [phone #] and I will see to it that you receive a questionnaire immediately.

Sincerely,

Peter Frick
Project Director

THIRD WEEK REMINDER LETTER

Peter Frick
Return Address
Winnipeg, Manitoba
Return Postal Code

14th June, 1990

Respondent Name
Respondent Address
Winnipeg, Manitoba
Respondent Postal Code

Dear Respondent,

About three weeks ago I wrote to you seeking your opinion about various aspects of your service as a volunteer in correctional service. As of today I have not yet received your questionnaire.

While this survey may take 15 minutes of your time, we hope that you will see it as a contribution to improving the quality volunteer correctional practice. For your participation we will make available to you, if you so request at question 41 of the questionnaire, a summary of the data analysis.

As mentioned in our first letter to you, we wish to offer you every convenience in returning your completed questionnaire. Your volunteer coordinator has collected many such questionnaires from volunteers, and is willing to accept your questionnaire as well. To ensure that your completed questionnaire remains completely confidential, I encourage you to return your questionnaire in the postage paid envelope that I have sent you.

In the event that your questionnaire and/or return envelope have been misplaced, a replacement questionnaire and return envelope are enclosed.

If I may assist you in any way with the completion of your questionnaire please do not hesitate to write or call. The telephone number is [phone #].

Sincerely,

Peter Frick
Project Director

SEVENTH WEEK REMINDER LETTER

Peter Frick
Return Address
Winnipeg, Manitoba
Return Postal Code

28th June, 1990

Respondent Name
Respondent Address
Winnipeg, Manitoba
Respondent Postal Code

Dear Respondent,

We are currently in our final stages of the Criminal Justice survey, and as yet we have not received your completed questionnaire. We realize that we have been persistent in trying to contact you, and we do respect your privacy and your right to refuse. However, as we have not yet heard from you, we are uncertain as to whether or not you prefer not to fill out the questionnaire, or whether you intend to but just have not been able to find the time to do so. May we ask you one last time to be a part of this study.

The survey questionnaire that you have received has also been received by all other correctional volunteers in Winnipeg, and although most volunteers have replied, this is not to suggest that your response can be overlooked. Our concern is that the opinion that you hold may differ from those volunteers who have chosen to respond. To date the returned questionnaires indicate that some volunteers are quite pleased with volunteer correctional service, while there are others who are very displeased with volunteer correctional service.

For this study to accurately represent how the majority of volunteers feel about volunteer correctional service, it is crucial that no volunteer be overlooked. The danger of not having a sufficient number of volunteers completing and returning the questionnaire is the possibility of incorrect statistical inferences occuring from too many volunteers not being adequately represented by this study.

In order to ensure prompt and reliable delivery, we are sending this questionnaire by courier. In case our other correspondence did not reach you, we have enclosed a questionnaire and return envelope with postage.

If you have any questions about the study, please feel free to contact me at [phone #] between 6:00-10:00 p.m. Your contribution to the success of this study is greatly needed, and will be much appreciated.

Sincerely,

Peter Frick
Project Director

DATA COLLECTION TERMINATION POSTCARD

15 November, 1990

The data collection period for the 1990 Criminal Justice Volunteer survey is now complete. The complexity of the data analysis and interpretation will not permit the Data Analysis Package to be finalized until the upcoming summer months. If you have requested a copy of the Data Analysis Package you should anticipate receiving it 30 August 1991. Should the finalization of this package complete early or terminate late, your volunteer coordinator will be informed.

If your address has changed since you returned your completed questionnaire, please inform your volunteer coordinator and myself of your new address.

Peter Frick
Project Director
[phone #]

Appendix F

QUESTIONS COMPRISING THE CLOSED-ENDED FACETS

SCALE 1: Approval of supervisor (7 items)

27 (k) In general, my supervisor ... seems to really care about doing her/his job.

27 (p) In general, my supervisor ... is open to new ideas.

27 (n) In general, my supervisor ... sees to it that my potential is fully utilized.

27 (i) In general, my supervisor ... knows or finds the answers when I have a problem.

27 (g) In general, my supervisor ... informs me of recent developments that pertain to how I am to do my job

27 (r) In general, my supervisor ... spends more time finding someone to blame than trying to find a solution when something goes wrong.

27 (b) In general, my supervisor ... does not review my performance with me on a regular basis.

SCALE 2: Role ambiguity (7 items)

25 (j) This factor is a problem ... feeling that you cannot predict the reactions of your supervisor.

25 (a) This factor is a problem ... not knowing what your supervisor expects of you.

25 (g) This factor is a problem ... being unclear as to the scope of your responsibilities.

25 (b) This factor is a problem ... Feeling that you are required to perform tasks that are against your better judgement.

25 (c) This factor is a problem ... feeling that you will be unable to satisfy the conflicting demands of your supervisor.

25 (l) This factor is a problem ... feeling that your ideas are usually considerably different from from the ideas of your supervisor.

25 (h) Feeling that the amount of authority that you have is not enough to permit you to get your work done.

SCALE 3: Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a more serious nature
(3 items)

21(e) From your contact with offenders, what is the likelihood that you could become a victim of ... a physical attack with a weapon?

21(d) From your contact with offenders, what is the likelihood that you could become a victim of ... a hostage taking?

21(c) From your contact with offenders, what is the likelihood that you could become a victim of ... a physical attack without a weapon?

SCALE 4: Workload (3 items)

23 (d) I have not been asked to do excessive amounts of work.

23 (e) The hours that I work are not excessive.

23 (b) Unreasonable demands are not made of me.

SCALE 5: Interpersonal conflict (3 items)

25 (m) This factor is a problem ... interpersonal conflicts between members of the permanent staff.

25 (n) This factor is a problem ... interpersonal conflicts between volunteers and members of the permanent staff.

25 (o) This factor is a problem ... interpersonal conflicts between volunteers.

SCALE 6: Stress (3 items)

25 (f) This factor is a problem ... having the requirements of the job impact upon your personal life.

25 (p) This factor is a problem ... feeling burned out at my volunteer job.

26 Would you say that the amount of stress that you experience at your volunteer job is:

SCALE 7: Adequacy of orientation and training (2 items)

09 Is your orientation to the correction system adequate?

17 Is your volunteer training adequate?

SCALE 8: Likelihood of victimization through crimes of a less serious nature (3 items)

21 (a) From your contact with offenders, what is the likelihood that you could become a victim of ... abusive language (ie. threats, swearing)?

21 (i) From your contact with offenders, what is the likelihood that you could become a victim of ... fraudulent misrepresentation (ie.a offender lying to you)?

21 (k) From your contact with offenders, what is the likelihood that you could become a victim of ... disturbing (ie. obscene) calls at home from offenders?

SCALE 9: Sense of accomplishment (2 items)

23 (r) I have accomplished many worthwhile things at this job.

23 (t) I am proud of work that I do.

SCALE 10: Risk of victimization (2 items)

21 (m) Corrections officers are more likely to be crime victims than are members of the general public.

21 (o) In knowing an offender, you are more likely to become a crime victim than when you didn't know an offender.

Appendix G

MARLOWE-CROWNE SCALE OF SOCIAL DESIRABILITY

Listed below are a number of statements concerning personal attitudes and traits. Read each item and decide whether the statement is true or false as it pertains to you personally. **Please check either True or False.**

TRUE		**FALSE**
T____	a) Before voting I thoroughly investigate the qualifications of all candidates.	____F
T____	b) I never hesitate to go out of my way to help someone in trouble.	____F
T____	c) It is sometimes hard for me to go on with my work if I am not encouraged.	____F
T____	d) I have never intensely disliked anyone.	____F
T____	e) On occasion I have had doubts about my ability to succeed in life.	____F
T____	f) I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my own way.	____F
T____	g) I am always careful about my manner of dress.	____F
T____	h) My table manners at home are as good as when I eat out in a restaurant.	____F
T____	i) If I could get into a movie without paying and be sure I was not seen, I would probably do it.	____F
T____	j) On a few occasions, I have given up doing something because I thought too little of my ability.	____F
T____	k) I like to gossip at times.	____F
T____	l) There have been times when I feel like rebelling against people in authority even though I knew they were right.	____F
T____	m) No matter who I'm talking to, I'm always a good listner.	____F
T____	n) I can remember "playing sick" to get out of something.	____F
T____	o) There have been occasions when I have taken advantage of someone.	____F
T____	p) I'm always willing to admit it when I make a mistake.	____F

T____ q) I always try to practice what I preach. ____F

T____ r) I don't find it particularly difficult to get along with loud mouthed, obnoxious people. ____F

T____ s) I sometimes try to get even, rather than forgive and forget. ____F

T____ t) When I don't know something I don't at all mind admitting it. ____F

T____ u) I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable. ____F

T____ v) At times I have really insisted on having things my own way. ____F

T____ w) There have been occasions when I felt like smashing things. ____F

T____ x) I would never think of letting someone else be punished or my wrongdoings. ____F

T____ y) I never resent being asked to return a favour. ____F

T____ z) I have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different from my own. ____F

T____ aa) I never make a long trip without checking the safety of my car. ____F

T____ bb) There have been times when I was quite jealous of the good fortune of others. ____F

T____ cc) I have almost never felt the urge to tell someone off. ____F

T____ dd) I am sometimes irritated by people who ask favours of me. ____F

T____ ee) I have never felt that I was punished without just cause. ____F

T____ ff) I sometimes think when people have a misfortune they only got what they deserve. ____F

T____ gg) I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings. ____F

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